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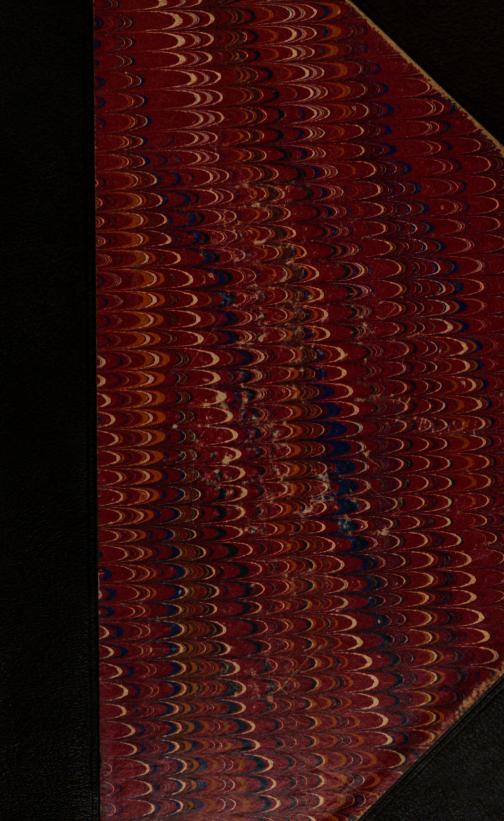
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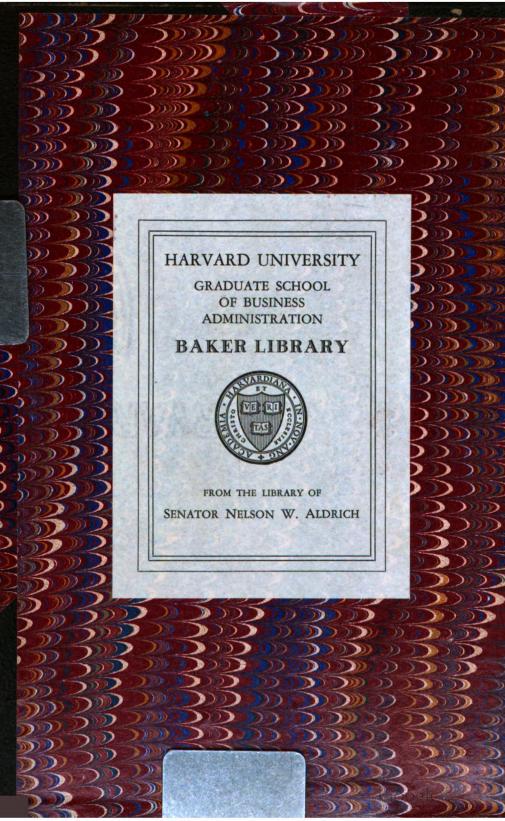
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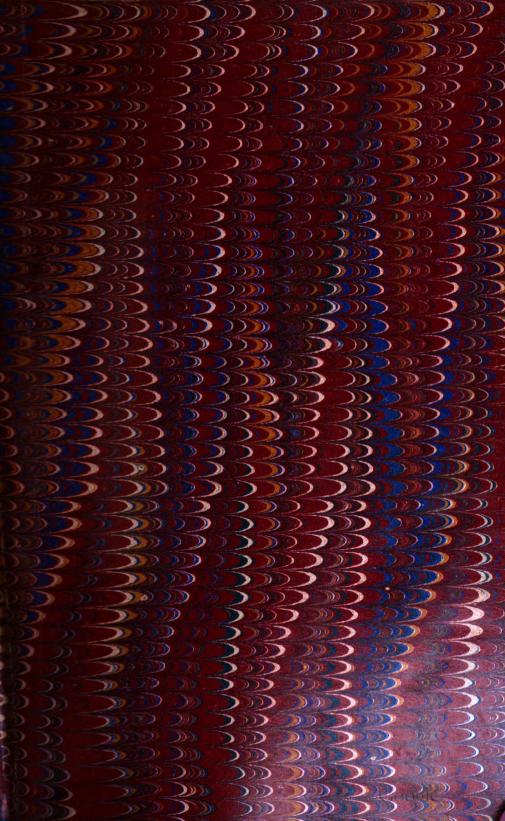
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U.S. Bureau of statistics (Treasury dept.) LABOR

IN

EUROPE AND AMERICA:

A SPECIAL REPORT ON

THE RATES OF WAGES, THE COST OF SUBSISTENCE, AND THE CONDITION OF THE WORKING CLASSES

IN

GREAT BRITAIN, GERMANY, FRANCE, BELGIUM,

AND

OTHER COUNTRIES OF EUROPE;

ALSO IN

THE UNITED STATES AND BRITISH AMERICA.

ВY

E DWARD YOUNG, Ph. D.,

Homo sum: humani nihil a me alienum puto.—TERENCE.

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LETTER TO THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,

BUREAU OF STATISTICS,

Washington, June 17, 1875.

SIR: In a country like ours, where all useful labor is deemed honorable, where the existence of popular suffrage renders the working-classes the chief repository of political power, and where the sentiment of the people harmonizes with the national traditions in support of a policy calculated to preserve, as between employers and the employed, that equality of rights asserted in our fundamental theories of government, all trustworthy information on the subject of labor possesses an interest which becomes more general and pronounced as the rapidly-developing industries of the country increase in diversity and extent.

This interest has been much enhanced of late in consequence of the agitation in regard to the relations between capital and labor, which has signally marked the last decade; and since the organization of this Bureau the applications for information on this subject have steadily increased in number. Such applications are received from various classes of persons—from political economists and students of social science, from journalists engaged in the discussion of economic and social questions. from philanthropists desirous of improving the condition of the workingclasses, from representatives of labor associations, from persons representing the interests of employers, and, finally, from prominent members of both Houses of Congress desirous of applying to the task of practical legislation such data on the subject of labor at home and abroad as have been acquired by observation and experience. applications have been especially numerous in connection with legislation on the subject of the tariff, and a review of the debates on tariff legislation*, for many years past, will show with what avidity both protectionists and free-traders have availed themselves of any information within their reach upon the subject under consideration, and especially on the cost of labor and condition of the laborer in those countries of Europe which compete most sharply with American manufactures.

It was owing to the frequency and urgency of the demands for such information, coupled with the inability of the Bureau of Statistics to supply the same from its ordinary sources of intelligence, that the undersigned was induced, when in Europe as a delegate to the International Statistical Congress in 1872, to avail himself of the opportunities thus

^{*} See Special Report on the Customs-Tariff Legislation of the United States.

afforded for commencing an inquiry into the rates of wages, the cost of subsistence, and the condition of the working-classes in the Old World. Instead, therefore, of visiting those parts of Europe which possessed the greatest interest to a citizen of the New World, he employed the leisure time at his command in making investigations on this subject in the chief seats of manufacturing industry. The murky, soot-laden atmosphere of Birmingham, Wolverhampton, Sheffield, Leeds, and other industrial centers of Great Britain, was less inviting than the health-inspiring breezes of her hills and fields, while their great workshops and factories were far less attractive from an æsthetic point of view than those "epics in stone" which commemorate the devotional spirit and architectural skill of our mediæval ancestors. It was among the former, however, that the information needed for this report had to be collected. So, on the Continent, it was necessary to spend much time at such busy seats of industry as Chemnitz, Essen, Barmen, Seraing, Huy, Jumet, and Charleroi, and similar towns, while many places far richer in historic associations, architectural beauty, and the treasures of art and science, received but a transient visit, or were omitted altogether.

The difficulties which obstructed the prosecution of this inquiry were numerous and formidable, but the success of the work undertaken demanded that they should be met and surmounted. The disinclination of many employers to make known the rates of wages paid by them in the different branches of their work was overcome in some cases by a judicious presentation of the subject and a due exercise of tact, while the disposition of others to answer inquiries in a general and perfunctory manner was met by care and minuteness in the preparation of questions; but there were instances in which it was necessary to exercise no small amount of determination and persistence in order to obtain the information desired. A single illustration, in addition to the case mentioned on page 521, may be given. The director of the largest and most widely-known establishment in one important branch of industry declined to communicate to the United States consul of the district information in regard to the rates of wages paid in the mills under his direction; it was subsequently secured, however, by the undersigned, but only after nearly two days had been devoted to thoughtful preparation and active exertion.

The readers of this report will probably notice the omission of any formal comparison between the conditions of labor in the various countries of Europe and corresponding industries in the United States, or of any conclusions as to the relative advantages possessed by the Old World and the New for the prosecution of manufacturing industry. If this omission be regarded as a defect, it is due to the undersigned to say that it is an intentional one. In attempting such a comparison it would be difficult, if not impossible, to avoid discussing the effects of customs-tariffs upon the prosperity of manufactures in this and other countries. This result is foreign to the wish of the undersigned,

and incompatible with the neutrality appropriate to his official position. Had it been prepared by a citizen not officially connected with the Government, the course hinted at might with entire propriety have been pursued; yet it is possible that the advantage thus gained in logical completeness would be more than neutralized by the loss of confidence which a work of this character would necessarily sustain if affected by a partisan bias.

In the preparation of this volume such bias has been sedulously avoided. The author has not aspired to erect an edifice, but has confined himself to the humbler, though he hopes not less useful, task of preparing the materials—of quarrying, hewing, and polishing the stones, carefully observing that their quality is good, their lines mathematically accurate, and their integrity and trustworthiness undoubted—but leaving to others the distinction, not only of erecting the structure but also of determining the use to which it shall be devoted when complete. To drop the figure, it is as much the inclination as the duty of the undersigned impartially to gather, collate, and publish FACTS, leaving it to others to deduce therefrom such conclusions as from their respective points of view may seem legitimate.

He does not profess, however, to be without opinions on economic matters. One who has watched the growth of industry and the various mutations by which it has been affected during a period of nearly forty years; who has witnessed each financial crisis from 1837 to 1873, and observed its effects upon industry and trade; who has attentively followed the course of tariff-legislation from 1842 to the present time, and who during the last twenty-three years has been more or less engaged in gathering and publishing statistics of American industry, could not make such an avowal without self-stultification; nor could he, unless wanting in patriotic sentiment, fail to take a lively interest in any governmental policy whereby the prosperity of our common country might be affected. The noble sentiment of a Roman poet,* which has been adopted as a motto, may be fitly paraphrased by the author of this report in the expression, "I am an American, and cannot be indifferent to whatever concerns America."

That the report contains imperfections the author is well aware. With fewer demands upon his attention he might have improved it in various respects; but he has found it necessary to work under such conditions as were permitted by the engrossing labors incident to the direction of an important Bureau, and he therefore submits it to you, Mr. Secretary, and through you to Congress and to the country, as his contribution to industrial literature, in the hope that, whatever its defects of style, arrangement, or treatment, the mass of new information which it contains will make it a source of benefit to his fellow-toilers in all departments of physical and mental labor. In money, it has involved a not inconsiderable expenditure from his private funds; in labor, its cost

^{*} Homo sum; humani nihil a me alienum puto.

has been so great as to give him a more vivid idea of the meaning of that word than he had when he defined it upon the initial page of the report as "exertion attended with pain or fatigue."

In conclusion, he desires to make an acknowledgment to those whose substantial assistance has facilitated his labors:

To the honorable Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State, for the interest which he kindly evinced in the inquiry, and for a circular letter to the ministers and consuls of the United States in Europe: to the consular officers hereinafter named for their effective aid: to the ministers of Germany and Belgium at Washington, who voluntarily furnished letters asking that all proper facilities be afforded in the prosecution of his inquiries in their respective countries; to Mr. J. P. Harris-Gastrell, of the British legation, for numerous letters to parties in England: to influential merchants in New York, especially to Messrs. A. T. Stewart & Co., who instructed their agents in Europe to render to the undersigned all possible assistance in the prosecution of his task*; and, finally, to Mr. E. T. Peters, librarian of the Bureau, for large assistance in the preparation of the early chapters of the work. especially of the historical portion, and also for obtaining at his own cost, while recently in England, information in regard to trades-unions, and for preparing the chapter thereon.

Respectfully submitted.

EDWARD YOUNG, Chief of Bureau of Statistics.

Hon. BENJAMIN H. BRISTOW,
Secretary of the Treasury.

^{*} But for the active assistance of the agents of Messrs. Stewart & Co. at Berlin and Chemnitz, in collecting a large amount of information relative to Prussia and Saxony, the statements in the report in regard to wages in Germany would have been far less accurate and complete than they now are.

LABOR IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.

Since the day when our primal progenitor was expelled from Eden, and the doom pronounced, "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread," the subject of labor has been one of absorbing interest. To trace it from the earliest historic period to the present time, through all the vicissitudes which our race has experienced, would be a difficult if not an impossible task; and yet the subject has of late assumed such gigantic proportions as to demand the most careful consideration.

It may be well, in the outset, to accurately define the word "labor." It is generally, but we believe incorrectly, used as a synonym for "work." The latter word denotes occupation or employment, but not necessarily of a toilsome or fatiguing character, while the former, as Worcester's first definition properly expresses it, implies "exertion attended with pain or fatigue, hard work, task, toil, &c." Work may be performed not only without pain or fatigue, but with positive pleasure.

Notwithstanding this difference of signification, the words "work" and "workmen" will, in the following pages, be regarded as synonymous with "labor" and "laborers," partly as a concession to popular use, but chiefly to avoid the frequent repetition of those words.

ORIGIN OF SLAVERY, AND DEVELOPMENT OF WAGE LABOR.

From the earliest times of which there exists any authentic record, the performance of the labor necessary to sustain life has been an occasion of contention and struggle in human society. The desire to escape from this necessary toil, or the ambition to possess more than their own labor could produce, has always impelled men to seek in some way to control the services of their fellows. "The simple wish," says Maine in his Ancient Law, "to use the bodily powers of another person as a means of ministering to one's own ease or pleasure is doubtless the foundation of slavery, and as old as human nature." In the more advanced portions of the modern world slavery is forbidden, and it is only through the intervention of those subtle forces known as the "laws of trade" that one man can derive profit from the labor of another. In a more primitive state of society this process was far more simple and direct. There "the wish to use the bodily powers of another," if accompanied by adequate power, went straight to its object by reducing to bondage the person whose services were desired. Thus, born of the rude impulses of men at a stage of social development when the right of the stronger was the prevailing law, slavery is everywhere found as an already established fact in the very infancy of civilization. nations of antiquity, the most polished as well as the rudest, slavery was universal; and it is only within a comparatively recent period that it has disappeared even from the most enlightened nations of modern times. In our own country less than a decade has elapsed since its final abolition by the adoption of the thirteenth amendment to the Constitution, and it was but a few years earlier that Alexander II issued the edict which terminated serfdom in Russia. The Spanish republic, falling in with the spirit of the age, has but just done what the Spanish monarchy so long refused to do, by adopting legislation looking to the abolition of slavery in the Antilles; while in Brazil the process of emancipation, inaugurated by the law of September 28, 1871, will prob-

ably not be completed for many years to come. Under most if not all of the native governments of Asia, slavery, in some form, still remains undisturbed; in Egypt it flourishes under the reign of the present khedive; notwithstanding the efforts of that potentate to cultivate the friendship and good opinion of western rulers; and on certain portions of the African coast, as well as among the islands of Polynesia, some of the most revolting features of the slave-trade appear to have been recently revived.

It thus appears that slavery is one of the most conspicuous facts of human history; and its universal prevalence in former times has undoubtedly had a potent influence in the genesis of the labor question of the present day. Cassagnac, in his History of the Working and Burgher Classes, takes the position that the classes of which he treats are universally the descendants of former slaves. The theories of this writer were grossly warped by his own aristocratic pride and prejudice; yet there is no lack of historical evidence that slavery preceded wage labor in the process of social evolution, and that hired laborers, who have only appeared to any considerable extent in communities which had made some progress in civilization and in the diversification of industry, were chiefly drawn at first from a class which had been previously enslaved.

For ages the process of enslavement and that of gradual elevation out of slavery went on side by side. The ways by which persons fell into slavery were various. Cassagnac maintains that this system, or rather this thing—for it doubtless existed as a fact long before the relations it involved were defined in any code of law-had its origin in the absolute authority of the father over his children. That this was one of its early sources there is good reason to believe, for history affords many instances of the sale of children by their fathers. Laban bargained away his daughter Rachel to Jacob for seven years' service; and though he sold her for a wife, and not for a slave, the principle of possession and of the right of exchange for a pecuniary equivalent is clearly recognized in the transaction. Xenophon, in his Anabasis, mentions a Thracian king who offered to give him his daughter, and proposed to buy his if he had one; and in Athens, as late as the time of Solon, there was, according to Plutarch, no law to forbid the sale of children. It is said, too, that Athenian fathers not unfrequently availed themselves of their prerogative in this respect. It often happens that the customs of certain existing communities, who are now at a stage of social development corresponding to that of other communities at a remote period in the past, serve to illustrate the customs of the latter. Thus, as Maine expresses it in his Village Communities, "direct observation comes to the aid of historical inquiry." An instance of this kind is furnished by the Georgians and Circassians in the notorious practice which prevails among them of selling their daughters to become the wives or concubines of wealthy Turks. It is not difficult to believe that in semicivilized, polygamous societies the children born of wives or concubines for whom a price had been paid would often be regarded by the father in the light of property. A few would be treated as favorites, but toward the greater number paternal affection would have but little force, and such as were objects of dislike would occasionally be sold; while others, less bright, energetic and ambitious than their brothers and sisters, would be assigned to servile tasks, and, through prolonged drudgery, finally sink into veritable slavery, in which condition their children would find themselves from infancy. If it be remembered that in such communities families were often very numerous, and composed

of the offspring of several different mothers, it will not seem improbable that dull or uncomely children, especially those of concubines, or of unloved wives, were in many instances thus treated.

The sale of Joseph to the Midianites, by his brethren, was an instance of the exercise of the right of the stronger, to which there have doubt-

less been many analogous cases.

Another source of slavery at a later period was debt, and the power which in many countries law and custom have given to the creditor over the body of the debtor. Tacitus states that among the ancient Germans the love of gambling was such that when everything else was gone, a player would often stake his liberty on the last throw, and, if he lost, would quietly suffer himself to be bound and sold. St. Ambrose mentions a similar custom as having prevailed among the Huns. In some instances, men pursued by their enemies or by the law. bartered

their liberty for the privilege of asylum.

But beyond doubt the chief source of slavery was subjugation in war. In some cases a conquered territory was seized by the victors and the great mass of its former inhabitants reduced to a state of servitude. In others vast numbers of prisoners were carried into captivity and reduced to slavery in the country of their conquerors. According to Josephus the Israelites enslaved the Amalekites, whom they conquered in battle during their journey through the wilderness; and they subsequently spared the Gibeonites on condition of their becoming "hewers of wood and drawers of water" for all time. The biblical record affords numerous instances of conquering armies carrying the conquered into captivity, and the same custom is illustrated in the sculptures of Egypt, Chaldea, and Assyria. The Egyptian king Sesostris,* returning from a successful expedition through many nations, extending as far as Scythia and Thrace, is described as bringing back vast numbers of captives, whom, according to Herodotus, he employed "in collecting the immense stones used in the construction of the temple of Vulcan," and in digging "those vast and numerous canals by which Egypt is intersected." An inscription on one of the winged bulls found among the ruins of Nineveh states that 208,000 Aramæans were carried into captivity by the Assyrian king Sennacherib in a single raid; and according to the inscription on the Bellino cylinder, the aggregate number of prisoners of war carried into Assyria by the same monarch in three other expeditions exceeded 600,000. Of the vast number of people reduced to slavery under this monarchy alone some conception may be formed when it is remembered that the reigns of many of the Assyrian kings were almost an uninterrupted succession of sanguinary campaigns. Thus Esarhaddon, who, according to Rawlinson, reigned from 680 to 667 B. C., made, during that period of thirteen years, no less than ten or twelve great military expeditions, including one into Egypt and one into the interior of the Arabian peninsula.

The Medo-Persian monarchs appear to have followed the same custom to a considerable extent in the wars by which they attained the hegemony of Asia. Herodotus tells us that, on the capture of Eretria, its inhabitants were made slaves under the orders of Darius (Hystaspes,) which orders appear to have extended to all other prisoners of Greek nationality. The women and children of Miletus were also carried into slavery by the Persians during the reign of the same ruler.† Among

^{*}Two or more kings are confounded by the Greek writers under this name.

†It was so, also, with the dynasty to whose most conspicuous representative the Persians, a little later, surrendered the rod of empire. Thus Philip, having conquered the Thebans, sold his captives; and his son, the great Alexander, subsequently destroyed their city and sold the inhabitants, irrespective of age or sex, into slavery.

smaller potentates similar practices prevailed. Thus Polycrates, King of Samos, puts into chains the Lesbians captured by him in a naval engagement, and compels them to dig a trench round the walls of his capital. What became of them subsequently we are not informed. In short, during the period under consideration, the practice in question was all but universal. In some instances a turn in the fortunes of war liberated and restored to their homes and possessions the people thus carried into captivity; but in a majority of cases they must have

sunk permanently into the slave population.

The multiplication of slaves in this way at certain epochs must have been immense; nor was this phenomenon confined exclusively to ancient times, for Sir John Chardin states that when the Tartars made an incursion into Poland, and carried away as many captives as they could, finding that they would not be redeemed, they sold them for a crown a head: and Menian, in his History of Algiers, represents a Mohammedan as saying scornfully to a Christian, "What! have you forgotten the time when a Christian at Algiers was scarce worth an onion?" Of the extent which the slave population of the western portion of Asia Minor had attained at the period of the reign of Darius (Hystaspes,) an incidental proof is furnished in the account which Herodotus gives of the visit of Aristagoras, prince of Miletus, to the Spartan king Cleomenes, whom he wished to persuade to attempt the liberation of the Ionian Greek's from Persian rule; for among other inducements to invade Asia Minor for this purpose, he mentions the "prodigious number of slaves" which the inhabitants of that region possessed, and which would be at the disposal of the conqueror.

But there was always a limit to the extent of the servile population that could be maintained compatibly with the security of the ruling In one instance the slaves of Argos, largely outnumbering the citizens, of whom many had been killed in war, took possession of the government, and held it for a number of years. Another case, familiar to the reader of Grecian history, is that of the revolting Helots of Sparta, who at the time of the great earthquake (470 B.C.) nearly succeeded in overthrowing that state. Another instance is furnished in connection with the irruption of the Scythians into Southwestern Asia in the seventh century before Christ. When these barbarian hordes, after a protracted career of conquest and destruction, were returning to their country, they were met, and for some time successfully resisted, by an army of their former slaves, who, during their prolonged absence, had married their wives and installed themselves at the head of their households as well as of public affairs. Herodotus naively relates that one of the Scythians proposed to his comrades that they throw aside their arrows and their darts, and rush upon their opponents without any weapons save the whips which they used for their horses. they see us with arms," said he, "they think themselves our equals in birth and importance; but as soon as they shall see us with the whip in our hands, they will be impressed with a sense of their servile condition and resist no longer." He adds that the plan was successful. cidentally this account serves to illustrate the similarity of spirit between the ancient and modern slaveholder; for whether the story be true in its details or not, it doubtless harmonized with what the historian knew in regard to the general feeling of masters toward their

The serious danger involved in too great a preponderance of the ser-

vile class must often have led to the emancipation of considerable numbers of those who composed it. In other cases it may have induced an insensible relaxation in the rigors of their servitude, gradually leading up to their complete liberation; for there is reason to believe that some of the principal nations of antiquity passed through some such phase of social development as that which witnessed the gradual loosening of the bonds of the villeins of feudal Europe, of which latter event there will be occasion to speak more fully hereafter. Occasionally considerable bodies of slaves were emancipated at once by some ruler or military leader, who found it important to secure them as trusty allies; as when Augustus, during the campaign of Sicilius against Sextus Pompeius, liberated 20,000 of this class to make sailors of them.*

There must also have been frequent cases of individual manumission—sometimes as the result of gratitude, or attachment, on the part of the master; sometimes in fulfillment of agreements entered into with the slave to inspire him with zeal in the exercise, for his master's benefit, of some valuable faculty; while many doubtless worked their way to freedom through sheer force of character and strength of intellect. In these and various other ways the emancipated class must have received continuous accessions throughout the course of history; but in the ancient world, as has just been seen, the class of bondmen was constantly re-enforced by the enslavement of the vast numbers of prisoners taken in war; so that however frequent or extensive may have been the emancipations, slavery never approached extinction, as it did in Europe after the practice of enslaving prisoners had been abandoned.

The effect of this continued process of enslavement on the one hand and emancipation on the other must have been to build up a numerous proletariat occhying a position but little superior, at least as regards physical comfort, to that of the slaves themselves. For slavery stripped its victim of whatever possessions he enjoyed previous to his enslavement; and when he, or perhaps his remote descendant, emerged from that condition, it was to find himself destitute, dependent, and obliged to procure his daily bread by working for such wages as he could obtain in competition with the slave labor by which he was surrounded.

Here then, in brief, is the great central fact in respect to labor in the ancient world, namely, the supremacy of military power in industrial as well as in political relations.† For if the whip was the symbol of industrial masterhood, the sword was unceasingly employed in providing fresh shoulders for its blows; and the sword, too, as has been seen, was chiefly instrumental in preparing available material out of which to form the class of hired laborers.†

^{*}Ptolemy Philadelphus liberated and restored to their homes 120,000 Jewish captives, who, at the close of the war in which they were taken, had been sold by the government as slaves to such of the inhabitants as chose to purchase them. On their emancipation, the owners were reimbursed out of the royal treasury. The motive for this unusual act of generosity was quite unique, being no other than the desire to add to the famous Alexandrian library the Hebrew Scriptures, to accomplish which the king deemed it necessary to secure the co-operation of the Jewish authorities, and took this method of gaining their good will.

tIt would be too much to say that this supremacy of the sword in industry has wholly disappeared, even now, in countries where a strike for increased wages is liable to be treated as an offense against the state, and suppressed by military power.

This effect was often produced by the vast destruction of property which occurred in war, leaving tens of thousands not absolutely enslaved, but so destitute as to have no resource but hired labor. Modern times furnish an instance of the reduction of large numbers of people, who were carrying on some small productive business for themselves, to the position of wage laborers through the agency of a revolution in industrial methods. To this there will be occasion to refer again when treating of the introduction of machinery as an industrial agent.

As to the actual life of the working-classes in ancient times something may be inferred from such fundamental conditions as that which has just been pointed out. For the rest it will be necessary to depend on the casual glimpses which ancient history affords. Doubtless there were communities of greater or less extent which had for generations escaped the terrors of war; whose social arrangements, if not founded upon absolute equity, were at least comparatively free from the effects of violence and injustice; and whose condition, under the favoring smiles of nature. was at certain fortunate periods sufficiently happy to suggest to the imagination the poetic picture of Arcadia. Both in sacred and profane history there are indications of a social state in which wealth and rank did not carry with them a contempt for labor. Thus Abraham's servant, when sent into Mesopotamia in quest of a wife for Isaac, stationed himself at a well near the city of Nahor, apparently not doubting that among the damsels who came thither to draw water he would find a suitable companion for the son and prospective heir of his wealthy master. It was under similar circumstances that Moses encountered the daughters of Jethro, priest of Midian, who had come to the well to fill the troughs for their father's flocks. Herodotus (viii, 137) says that "in remoter times the families even of kings had but little money, and it was the business of the queen herself to cook for her husband"—a state of primitive simplicity to which a fair counterpart is found in Volney's description of the life of the family of a modern Arab chief. "A sheik." says he, "who has the command of five hundred horse, does not disdain to saddle and bridle his own, nor to give him barley and chopped straw. In his tent his wife makes the coffee, kneads the dough, and superintends the dressing of his victuals. His daughters and kinswomen wash the linen, and go with pitchers in their hands and veils over their faces te draw water from fountains." In the earlier days of Rome, it is said, it was not uncommon for senators to live in the country cultivating their land with their own hands; while consuls and dictators were often taken from the plow. "In those happy days," says Pliny, "the earth, glorious in seeing herself cultivated by the hands of triumphant victors, seemed to make new efforts and to put forth her fruits in greater abundance."

But if at certain times, and for longer or shorter periods, there have been communities in which the nobility of labor was proclaimed by the examples of the great and influential—communities in which the toil necessary to human sustenance was shared by all, and general comfort went hand in hand with general industry—such, unhappily, has not been the ordinary experience of the human race, and such, certainly, was not the usual condition of affairs among those nations of antiquity whose

histories have come down to our day.

LABOR IN EGYPT.

Among the earliest of these nations, that which has the chief claim upon our attention is Egypt. The remains of her colossal architecture and sculpture which have endured to our day in the time-defying pyramids, the ruins of magnificent temples, the obelisks, colossi, and sphinxes, the labyrinth, the catacombs, and the splendid tombs of the kings, reveal to us a people of remarkable genius and skill, and invest them with a strange and fascinating interest. Far beyond the classic days of Rome and Greece there rises into view a second and remoter antiquity in which this Egyptian civilization stands, like one of the pyramids, outlined in imposing majesty upon the very horizon of time.

According to Manetho, the Egyptian historian, who wrote in the time of Ptolemy Philadelphus, no less than thirty dynasties had ruled in Egypt previous to the overthrow of her last native king. Assuming all these dynasties to have been successive, the duration of the Egyptian monarchy up to that time must have exceeded five thousand years: but accepting the received opinion that the first seventeen of them consisted of several contemporary lines, each embracing one or more dynasties, and adopting the order of contemporaneousness established by Lane, the history of Egypt stretches back to the year 2717 B. C. It should be said here that Bünsen and Lepsius, both high authorities. while accepting the theory of the contemporaneousness of the earlier dynasties, assign to Menes, the first king mentioned in Manetho's lists. a date much earlier than the one just given. The preponderance of evidence, however, appears to favor the latter, and accepting that as approximately correct, the time which elapsed between the accession of Menes and the overthrow of Nectanabo by Artaxerxes Ochus, about 350 B. C., was no less than 2,367 years. If to these thirty dynasties be added that of the Ptolemies, which, although of foreign origin, ruled in an Egyptian capital and identified itself more or less closely with Egyptian interests, the history of Egypt as a nation will extend from 2717 to 31 B. C., a period of 2,686 years. But the origin of Egyptian civilization must be assigned to a period even more remote than that of Menes, for in the time of the fourth dynasty, which began about 2440 and ended about 2200 B. C., there were constructed monuments which could only have been the work of a people who had enjoyed the advantage of several centuries of progress.*

The early advance of Egypt in civilization, as well as her great material prosperity, had its physical basis in the rare fertility of the valley of the Nile and the remarkable security of its situation. former, by attracting the people to a regular agricultural life, induced fixity of residence and the desire for those comforts and embellishments with which men naturally seek to surround themselves when established in permanent homes. The latter, by protecting them from the predatory incursions of nomad tribes, enabled them to accumulate in peace and safety the means by which this desire might be gratified. Hence gradually arose a demand for mechanical and artistic pursuits to supply agricultural implements, dwellings, household furniture and utensils, improved apparel, and ultimately great public buildings and works of art. Hence, also, arose the desire for protection in the pursuit of a regular industry and in the enjoyment of its products, creating a demand for government and social organization, and rendering it possible to unite a large body of people into a single state. Thus were developed in Egypt the needful conditions for an advancing civilization long before the peoples around them had abandoned the rude and stereetyped usages of an unprogressive pastoral life.

The security of situation above referred to was due to the singular isolation of the country; for the valley of the Lower Nile, which owed its fertility solely to its annual overflow by the great river, and which

^{*}During the joint reign of two kings of this dynasty was erected the great pyramid of Aboo-seer, commonly known as the pyramid of Cheops; and many other works of the same period attest at once the wealth of the Egyptians and the skill in art and industry to which they had attained even at that early day. These two kings were the two Suphises of Manetho, (the Shufu or Khufu and Num-Shufu or Num-Khufu of the monuments,) of whom the former is believed to be identical with the Cheops of the Greeks, after whom the pyramid has been popularly named. The date, 2352 B. C., is believed, upon astronomical evidence, to have fallen within the period during which these two kings reigned.

constituted the "land of Egypt," was situated in the midst of a desert region of vast extent, affording little subsistence for predatory and hostile tribes, and interposing a formidable barrier of trackless sand between the Egyptians and the nearest habitable tracts on which any considerable population could have found a home. Thus carefully did nature guard the tender infancy of Egyptian civilization; and even in later times, when assailed by rival nations, grown powerful through the arts which they probably owed in great measure to herself, Egypt often found in her surrounding deserts most potent allies, and more than one great army was reduced to impotence through hunger, thirst, and weariness endured in attempting to cross them. In relation to the industry and wealth of the Egyptians, no circumstance connected with their natural situation was equal in importance to the annual inundation, on which depended the productiveness of the entire area of their cultivable land. In consequence of this regular overflow of the fertilizing waters, there was usually "corn in Egypt" when surrounding nations were consumed with famine. Yet even there the agriculturist was by no means wholly exempt from the vicissitudes which beset his calling elsewhere; for a variation of a few feet either way in the rise of the river was attended with serious loss. In modern times a rise of less than eighteen or twenty feet at the nilometer of El Rodah, near Cairo, is considered scanty, leaving a considerable area of land outside the limits of the inundation. A rise of less than twenty-four feet is not entirely sufficient, while a rise of more than twenty-seven feet ranks as a destructive flood. In the great French work, the Description of Egypt. there is a table of sixty-six inundations, taken from the official records, and comprehending those of the years 1737 to 1800 inclusive, of which eleven were very high, thirty good, sixteen feeble, and nine insufficient. Similar variations must have occurred in ancient times, and occasionally, though it would seem very rarely, the rise was so scanty as to produce famine. That which occurred in the time of Joseph (probably about 1876 B. C.) has been made familiar by the Scripture narrative; another appears to have occurred a century or two earlier, under one of the sovereigns of the twelfth dynasty; and one of seven years' duration is recorded as having happened in the reign of El Mustansir, about the middle of the eleventh century of the Christian era. So great was the distress at this time in certain portions of Egypt that cannibalism was resorted to, and organized bands kidnapped unwary passengers in the streets of El Káhireh, (Cairo.) At this period, however, the evils resulting from the failure of the inundation were aggravated by those of

In the prosperous times of ancient Egypt art and industry had done much to extend the benefits of the inundation. The great canal (or, rather, continuous series of canals) now known as the Bahr-Yoosuf, (River of Joseph,) which runs parallel with the Nile from a little below Cairo to Farshoot, a distance of about three hundred and fifty miles, is believed to have been first constructed under the Pharaohs, and it may even be full as old as the Arab tradition attributing it to the patriarch Joseph would indicate. In a passage heretofore cited Herodotus attributes to Sesostris the construction of a large number of canals by means of the involuntary labors of his captives, and remarks that, in consequence of these works, "Egypt, which was before conveniently adapted to those who traveled on horseback or in carriages, became unfit for both. The canals," says he, "occur so frequently and in so many winding directions that to journey on horseback is disagreeable; in carriages impossible. The prince, however, was influenced by a patriotic

motive: before his time those who inhabited the inland parts of the country, at a distance from the river, on the obbing of the Nile suffered great distress from the want of water, of which they had none but from muddy wells." The Sesostris of the Greek and Roman writers is supposed to have been Rameses II, whose reign of sixty-six years appears to have occupied the latter part of the fourteenth and the earlier part of the thirteenth centuries, B. C.; but it is believed that they also confounded under the same name two kings of the twelfth dynasty who ruled about seven centuries earlier, namely, Sesertesen I and Sesertesen III, the latter of whom is called Sesostris by Manetho. It is not unlikely that one of these kings, rather than Rameses II, was the author of the system of canals referred to by Herodotus, especially as the celebrated Lake Mœris, one of the greatest of the works connected with the system of irrigation, is satisfactorily shown to have been excavated under Amenemha III, who reigned in the twentieth century before Christ, and is believed to be identical with the Morris of the Greek historians.*

The importance attached to agriculture by the ancient Egyptians is sufficiently indicated by the construction of such enormous works as those just referred to, for the purpose of facilitating its processes and increasing its products. As early as the days of Abraham their country appears to have been well known to surrounding nations for the regularity and abundance of its food-supply; for when pressed by famine in Canaan the patriarch is represented (Génesis xii) as going to Egypt in quest of subsistence for himself, his numerous dependents, and his flocks and herds. According to the Hebrew version of the Old Testament Scriptures his was about 1920 B. C., and, according to the Septuagint, 2551 B. C. About two centuries later, Jacob, with his household, and probably from one thousand to twelve hundred retainers, resorted to the same source of supplies; and it appears from Genesis xxvi, 2, that Isaac, under stress of famine, was once upon the point of going thither, but was directed elsewhere. Under the despotic rule of the Persians, which commenced about 525 B. C., and, with some interruptions, continued about two centuries, agriculture, like all the other interests of the country, was seriously depressed; but it revived again under the Ptolemies, and, under the Romans, Egypt was regarded as the granary of the empire.

The various operations of agriculture are represented with considerable minuteness in the sculptures and paintings on the walls of tombs, on some of which, dating as far back as the fourth and fifth dynasties, appear the plow and various other implements employed in farming. The first essential in connection with agriculture was to secure to the land the full benefits of the inundation, and great pains was taken to accomplish this end by means of ditches and skillful mechanical appliances, as well as by dikes and dams to retain the water upon the land.

The contrivances for irrigating lands lying above the level of the inundation appear in early times to have been confined to buckets carried by hand, and a simple machine constructed on the principle of the wellsweep, and known in modern Egypt as the shádoof. At a later day a contrivance somewhat similar to the modern chain-pump, though on a larger scale, appears to have been used for the same purpose. After the inundation had subsided the land was plowed, or broken up by the hoe, and sown; goats, and, according to Herodotus, swine, being sometimes driven over the field for the purpose of treading in the seed. The principal

^{*}The prænomen of this king, Ra-en-ma, or Ma-en-ra, is probably the name which the Greeks converted into Mœris.



crop appears to have been wheat.* which, when ripe, was usually cut near the top of the stalk, the ears being carried in nets or baskets, by men or asses, to the thrashing-floor, where the grain was trodden out by oxen or cows. Sometimes, however, the wheat was bound in sheaves. These several processes of plowing, sowing, harvesting, and thrashing in reference to wheat and other kinds of grain, are portrayed in the tombs, in which are also found curious representations of gardens and vinevards. The former were often extensive, and contained tanks for fish, and for the purpose of irrigation. Those represented are doubtless the gardens of the rich, who alone could have had their tombs so elaborately decorated. The proprietors of land are represented as constantly supervising the labor of their workmen, and paving the closest attention to the cultivation of their estates; and Diodorus informs us that agriculture had been carried to a higher degree of perfection by the Egyptians than by any other people. The rare productiveness of their country is demonstrated by the large population it supported, which, according to the historian just named, amounted, in his day, about the commencement of the Christian era, to three millions, and had once been as high as seven millions. There is no doubt that at the time of Diodorus the population of Egypt had, by war and misgovernment, been reduced very far below its ancient limit; and, if we assume that limit to have been the higher number mentioned above, the number of inhabitants to each square mile of cultivable land averaged upward of 650, a population considerably more dense than that of any country in modern Europe.†

The skill of the Egyptians in the mechanical arts is strikingly attested by the remains of their magnificent temples and other specimens of their architecture. In connection with the monumental remains of the fourth dynasty (2440 to 2200 B. C.) are found opaque glass and glazed pottery, or porcelain, the potter's wheel, and the kiln, together with evidences of

a general knowledge of metallurgy.

Under the fifth dynasty (which commenced simultaneously with the fourth) appear the saw, adze, chisel, lever, balance, and press, and the blow-pipe, used as a bellows. The sculptures exhibit a great variety of

this area that the density of population is calculated above.

From a list of all the towns and villages of Egypt, with the extent of cultivated land belonging to each, made about A. D. 1375, Mr. E. W. Lane, in his work on the Modern Egyptians, has calculated the aggregate amount of cultivated land at that time at 5,500 geographical square miles, or about 7,150 English square miles.

† The following paragraph bearing on this subject is copied from a recent article in an English scientific journal, contributed by Mr. Charles Vincent:

[•] It is believed by some writers that the zea mentioned by Herodotus as the principal grain of the Egyptians, although usually translated spelt, was really a species of bearded wheat.

t According to Colonel Jacotin, one of the best authorities on the subject, the space which the Nile does or can water and fertilize, north of the first cataract, including its own bed, is only 9,582.3936 geographical square miles, or about 12,457 English square miles. The space actually under cultivation was found by M. Estève, according to Colonel Jacotin, to be 5,469.8688 geographical square miles; but the latter gentleman calculates that in ancient times 2,735.0784 more may have been cultivable, making a total of 8,205.9472 geographical, or about 10,666 English square miles, and it is upon

[&]quot;In the sepulchers of Thebes may be found delineations of butchers sharpening their knives on round bars of iron attached to their aprons. The blades of the knives are painted blue, which fact proves that they were of steel, for in the tomb of Rameses III this color is used to indicate steel, bronze being represented by red. An English gentleman has recently discovered near the wells of Moses, by the Red Sea, the remains of iron-works so vast that they must have employed thousands of workmen. Near the works are to be found the ruins of a temple and a barrack for the soldiers protecting or keeping in order the workmen. The works are supposed to be at least 3,000 years old."

musical instruments, elegant vases, and articles of household furniture; vessels of metal, alabaster, and other materials; arms and domestic implements, the production of which gives evidence of equal taste and skill; while in weaving, and in the various processes of the manufacture of linen, the Egyptians are said to have excelled.

.Diodorus Siculus divided the ancient Egyptians into three classes, as follows: 1. Persons of rank, and priests, who shared between them the chief honors and powers of the state. 2. Soldiers, who were also husbandmen. 3. Artisans and laborers. Herodotus enumerates seven classes, namely, priests, soldiers, herdsmen (of sheep and cattle,) swine-herds, tradesmen, interpreters, and pilots. Plato mentions hunters as a separate class, and some have added fishermen and boat These various occupations are but subdivisions of the third class mentioned by Diodorus, and are comprehended under the general terms "artisans" and "laborers." The impression has commonly prevailed that these classes were castes like those of India, separated from each other. from one generation to another, by a barrier which law and custom forbade any of their members to cross; but the testimony of the monuments, as first pointed out by M. Ampère, shows that this opinion was Members of the priestly and military classes not only intermarried, but in some instances performed indifferently the functions of the priest or soldier. That intermarriages between members of the privileged classes and the common people were extremely rare, may naturally be supposed, for this is the case in all countries where privileged classes exist: but there can be no doubt that between most of the different classes of working-people intermarriages were common. Indeed, this is implied in the statement of Herodotus (ii, 47) in reference to swine herds, whose case he mentions as if it were entirely exceptional. Nor does he say that even they were forbidden to intermarry with members of other classes, but that marriage with them was "studiously avoided," and that they were thus "reduced to the necessity of intermarrying among those of their own profession." This prejudice arose from their connection with an animal regarded as unclean, and for the same reason they were excluded from the temples. But although there were among the Egyptians no castes, properly so called, it was probably the common practice in most occupations for the son to be brought up to the employment pursued by his father, and it also appears that different occupations were held in different degrees of esteem. The swine-herds, as already indicated, stood lowest in the social scale. The herdsmen of sheep and cattle were regarded with dislike, if not with contempt, a fact which Joseph adroitly turned to the advantage of his kinsmen, by using it as a means of securing for them a residence by themselves in the land of Goshen, (Genesis xlvi, 33 and 34.)*

The antipathy to persons engaged in pastoral pursuits, implied in the statement of Joseph, that every shepherd was "an abomination unto the Egyptians," probably grew out of the invasion of Egypt by a pastoral people, and the establishment therein of the "shepherd-kings." Of these, according to Africanus's version of Manetho, there were three dynasties, the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth, whose rule commenced about 2080 B. C., and lasted somewhat more than five hundred years, during which period, however, there were some contemporary dynasties of native kings. According to Manetho, the first of these three foreign dynasties was Phonician, while the other two are believed to have included Arabs and Asyrians; and there is reason to believe that between some of those and the kings of the fifteenth dynasty there existed a bitter hostility. The Pharaoh who elevated Joseph to the post of prime minister is believed to have been Assis (or Assa) of the fifteenth dynasty, and being himself one of the shepherd-kings, he naturally would not share, though from policy he might respect, the prejudices of the Egyptians. The later Pharaoh, "who knew not Joseph," and oppressed the Israelites, is supposed to have been of Assyrian erigin, and was probably of the sixteenth dynasty.

Agricultural laborers are said to have been a despised class, and boatmen were held in low esteem, while even mechanics were regarded with contempt by the military class, who disdained to follow mechanical pursuits, considering them mean and unmanly.*

The divisions of Egyptian society above mentioned appear to have no relation to the distinction between freemen and slaves. From a remark of Herodotus, that "the Egyptians did not confine the exercise of trades to slaves, as the Spartans did," it may be inferred that persons of this class were employed, to some extent, in the various common occupations, but not exclusively in any. It is probable, however, that slaves were chiefly held by members of the privileged classes. who would be most likely to have the means of purchasing them. It will be recollected that it was a member of the upper class, Potiphar, a captain of the king's guard, who purchased Joseph from the Midianite merchants who carried him into Egypt. It may be remarked here that this transaction affords incidental evidence that at the time when it occurred (about 1800 B. C.) Egypt was known to traders as a market in which slaves were in regular demand. In successful military expeditions immense numbers of captives were often brought back and reduced to slavery; and there are indications in the sculptures of Thebes that slaves sometimes formed a part of the annual tribute paid by conquered nations to the Egyptian kings. The slaves taken in war, and probably also those received as tribute, were sometimes employed in large numbers on the public works; but it is likely that a considerable number of the former class were distributed among the soldiers and military commanders, and that a portion of them were also assigned to the priests, while others were sold under the authority of the government to any private individuals who chose to purchase them. The slaves acquired in these various ways were, of course, of many nationalities, and the representations of them on Egyptian bas-reliefs show that persons of the negro type were included among them. Besides the above mentioned there was another class of involuntary laborers, composed of criminals, a term which probably embraced many who by political or other offenses had incurred the displeasure of the monarch or of the local authorities. The origin of the custom of employing this class upon public works is attributed to Sabacus, the Ethiopian, who invaded Egypt about the middle of the eighth century before Christ. he retained his authority," says Herodotus, "he made it a rule not to punish any crime with death, but, according to the magnitude of the offense, he condemned the criminal to raise the ground near the place to which he belonged, by which means the situation of the different cities became more and more elevated." The employment of captives by Sesostris in digging the canals has already been referred to. exacted by the taskmasters of the government in the execution of public works appears usually to have been very severe, the laborers being treated as mere beasts of burden. Those condemned to work in the mines are said to have been driven with blows to continue their labors until they sometimes fell lifeless from exhaustion. The practice of inflicting corporal punishment to hasten the performance of work appears

[&]quot;Herodotus (ii, 167) states that he had observed the same custom in various parts of Thrace, Scythia, Persia, and Lydia. "It seems, indeed," says he, "to be an established prejudice, even among nations the least refined, to consider mechanics and their descendants in the lowest rank of citizens, and to esteem those as the most noble who were of no profession, annexing the highest degree of honor to the exercise of arms. This idea prevails throughout Greece, but more particularly at Lacedemonia; the Corinthians, however, do not hold mechanics in disesteem."

to have prevailed under the Pharaohs, for we are told (Exodus v, 14) that "the officers of the children of Israel which Pharaoh's taskmasters had set over them were beaten, and demanded, 'Wherefore have ye not fulfilled your task in making brick, both yesterday and to-day, as heretofore?'" It is not difficult to conceive the hardships to which laborers were sometimes subjected by taskmasters eager to win the favor of a monarch whose vanity and ambition demanded the early completion of a temple, a pyramid, or some other great work, by which he sought to transmit his fame to posterity.

The treatment of slaves by private owners would of course vary according to circumstances and the disposition of the masters. In occasional instances, when recommended by marked capacity and fidelity, they appear to have been assigned to positions of trust and responsibility, as in the case of Joseph, of whom we are told that Potiphar "made him overseer over his house, and all that he had put he into his hand." But such cases, of course, throw no light upon the ordinary treatment of the mass of persons of this class. In agriculture a part of their employment consisted in turning the wheels by means of which water was pumped from the river or canals for the purpose of irrigating the soil; in the mechanical occupations, and in commerce, they doubtless performed much of the heavy and disagreeable work, and in the household, female slaves ground corn in the hand-mills then in use. washed the feet of guests, and performed various menial offices. But in regard to their general condition and treatment little is definitely known. Not the slaves alone, but the entire mass of the laboring people, appear to have been entirely devoid of political power, and to have had scarcely an idea of such a thing as the rights of citizenship. Their demeanor in the presence of their superiors in rank was marked by great humility; and their habit of prostrating themselves before those in authority affords presumptive evidence that the latter possessed, and eccasionally exercised, the power of inflicting severe punishment upon the objects of their displeasure. Yet there is reason to believe that the laws of Egypt were characterized by more humanity and a greater regard for justice than those of most other nations of ancient times, not excepting some of the greatest of those states which flourished at a period much later than that to which the larger and more prosperous portion of Egyptian history must be assigned.*

Imprisonment for debt, which has disgraced the codes even of modern nations, was not practiced among the Egyptians; while the murder of a slave, like that of a freeman, was punished with death. In these and other particulars the laws appear to have been framed with more regard to the rights of the poor and humble than might have been expected in a country where this class had so little influence in public affairs. It would appear, however, that at one period, at least, idleness or vagrancy was punished with great severity; for Herodotas mentions a law instituted by Amasis, which required every Egyptian once a year to explain to the chief magistrate of his district the means by which he obtained his subsistence, and states that a failure to comply with this ordinance, or to prove that a livelihood was procured by honest means,

was a capital offense.

The political subjection of this class appears to have been founded in their gross superstition, or perhaps it would be more accurate to say

An indication of the efficiency with which the laws were administered may be seen in the fact, attested by sculptures of a very ancient date, that it was the common practice of persons of all classes to go abroad unarmed.



that it was founded in the general ignorance out of which this supersti-Their belief in a multitude of divinities, of whose will the priests were supposed to be the authorized interpreters, induced them to accord to this class an authority which, at one period of their history. appears to have been paramount in some respects to that of the king himself, and this authority was probably the original basis of the monarch's power. It is quite possible that on this account the government was milder than if it had been founded purely on military power. It is evident, however, that the military forces of the nation, called into existence, perhaps, to repel invasion or to prosecute foreign wars, soon became one of the main supports of the monarchy; and the fidelity of these forces to the government, as well as their zeal in the defense of the country, was stimulated by especial privileges, of which the most substantial was the possession of allotments of land, exempt from all rent or taxation, which, together with the duty of military service, appears to have descended from father to son through successive genera-

In its bearing on the economical condition of the working-classes, the subject of land-tenure, incidentally referred to above, is sufficiently important to require a passing notice. In Genesis xlvii may be found the well-known scriptural account of Joseph's purchase of the lands of the Egyptians for Pharaoh at the time of the great famine, in consequence of which they had previously exhausted their money and their cattle in purchasing from the king the food which he had gathered into the royal store houses during the seven years of plenty. In permitting the people to continue the occupancy and cultivation of their land. Joseph exacted for Pharaoh a fifth part of the produce, and in the twenty-sixth verse we are told that he "made it a law over the land of Egypt unto this day that Pharach should have the fifth part." It appears, however, that the land of the priests was not included in this purchase, for, according to verse 22, "the priests had a portion of food assigned them of Pharaoh, and did eat their portion which Pharaoh gave them; wherefore they sold not their lands." As near as can be determined this event occurred about 1865 B. C.

At a later period the land is found divided between the king, the priests, and the soldiers. According to Herodotus the priests and soldiers had each a tract of land, which, expressed in our measurement, would be a little over six acres, free from all taxation. This was probably the quantity held by the common soldiers and the lower order of priests, for it seems likely that both in the military and priestly professions the quantity of land held varied to some extent with the rank of the holder. Sesostris (which name in this instance probably applies to Rameses II) is represented as having made a regular distribution of the lands of Egypt, assigning "to each Egyptian a square piece of ground," (Herodotus ii, 109,) and deriving his revenues "from the rent which every individual annually paid him." "Whoever was a sufferer by the inundation of the Nile was permitted to make the king acquainted with his loss;" and "certain officers were appointed to in-

if It will be understood that in respect to the dates of most events of the earlier portion of Egyptian history, there is great diversity of opinion among chronologists.



^{*}It appears that Psammetichus, who came to the throne about 664 B. C., after overthrowing a dodecharchy of which he had been a member, commenced the practice of employing foreign mercenaries. The native Egyptian troops, being agriculturists in peace as well as soldiers in war, had had a strong interest in the safety of the country, whose independence did not long survive the general substitution of mercenary foreigners for the native soldiers.

quire into the particulars of the injury, that no man might be taxed beyond his ability." This statement probably refers only to that portion of the land which belonged to the king. The privileged tenure of the priests certainly dated much farther back than the time of Rameses II. and the same is probably true in regard to that of the soldiers: and both of these classes were in possession of their lands, as above stated. at a time long after the reign of that monarch. It is quite probable, however, that both before and after that period there were changes of greater or less extent in the distribution of land, both among individuals and classes. Such changes have been common in the history of the world, and would be peculiarly favored in Egypt, by the fact that the whole country had to be resurveyed after each annual inundation, in order to re-establish the boundaries between the different tracts, an operation which would bring the subject of land-tenure under the constant attention of the public, and make it a matter of regular supervision on the part of the authorities. Of the importance attached to the division of the soil in Egypt, an indication is found in the fact that the topography of the country formed the theme of one of the sacred books; and it is in the care of the Egyptians in securing exact surveys that the science of geometry is supposed to have had its origin. If Herodotus may be relied on as to the amount of land assigned to the priests and soldiers, and as to the number of the latter, his statements, in conjunction with other data, will afford the basis for an approximate calculation as to the aggregate amount of land held by each class. According to this historian the number of soldiers, when the population of the military nomes was at its maximum, was 410,000; and, taking six acres as the amount assigned to each, the aggregate amount of land held by the military class would be 3,843\(\frac{3}{3}\) square miles, or a little over thirty-six per cent. of the entire cultivable area (10.666 square miles) as estimated by Colonel Jacotin. But Diodorus (i, 73) states that the priests held the largest share in the threefold division of the soil; and so great was the number of persons of this class, that at some points in Egyptian history this may well have been true. But, taking as the basis of calculation the ordinary number of priests and soldiers, instead of the maximum number, it seems probable that the division of the land between these two classes and the king was originally such as to give exactly one-third of the total area to each of the three parties, an arrangement which probably remained in force, without any very material variation, for several centuries.*

It is worthy of note in this connection that the maximum number of soldiers, as given by Herodotus, (410,000,) would make the military class, including women, children, and old men, about one-third of the maximum population as given by Diodorus, (7,000,000;) for this supposition gives one soldier to every 53 of the military population, which is a reasonable estimate. The maintaining of so large an army would scarcely have been possible, but for the fact that the soldiers, in times of peace, were husbandmen, and so were, in a great measure, self-supporting.

enthorning.

^{*}Herodotus (ii, 141) states that Sethes, a priest of Vulcan, on attaining the throne, treated the military with great contempt and deprived them of their arwa, or fields, which, by way of reward, his predecessors had given to each soldier. Chronologically this prince appears to coincide with the Tirhakah of Scripture, whose reign commenced about 723 B. C., but the character ascribed to him hardly corresponds with that of the latter monarch. The statement of Herodotus is chiefly valuable as showing the existence in Egypt of some record or tradition of such an interference on the part of the king with the land of the military class. After the employment of mercenaries became common, the land of the Egyptian soldiers was probably appropriated gradually by the kings, and their descendants put upon the same footing as other cultivators.



The statement that Sesostris, (or Rameses II.) in his distribution of the land. "assigned to each Egyptian a square piece of ground," can hardly be taken as literally true in any case, since a considerable portion of the population must have been engaged in mechanical pursuits; but it seems clear that the soil in the main was divided into small holdings and that la petite culture was the prevailing form of the far-famed agriculture of Egypt. The sculptures of a remoter period, however, for example those on the walls of tombs of the fourth dynasty, indicate the conduct of agricultural operations on a scale implying larger proprietorships; and, indeed, it is not improbable that during her long history Egypt passed through some phase of land-tenure bearing more or less resemblance to that which prevailed under the feudal system in Europe. But it is not to be supposed that even under the system of small holdings subsequently established each holder personally cultivated his own land. In this labor slaves were doubtless employed to a large extent, especially by the soldiers and priests; while many of the latter probably rented their land to others, and subsisted, in whole or in part, upon the revenues derived from it in this way.*

The king's portion of the land was probably rented, for the most part, in tracts not larger, and possibly even smaller, than those allotted to the priests and soldiers. The amount of rent exacted undoubtedly varied with the condition of the country, the demands upon the royal exchequer, and the personal character of the monarch. Had the annual charge never exceeded one-fifth of the produce, (at which it is said to have been fixed by Joseph,) the condition of the tenants would have been more favorable than that of tenants in most countries where competition rents are paid to private land-owners; but many of the kings, in order to carry out their own ambitions schemes, extended their exactions to such a degree as barely to leave the cultivators the meanest subsistence.

If the system of land-tenure was such as has been indicated above. there could scarcely have been in Egypt a landed aristocracy. there was no hereditary aristocracy whatever, in the ordinary sense of that term. The priests and soldiers were privileged classes, but the majority of these must have been persons of very moderate means, as is implied in the extent of their allotments of land. In both of these classes there were, doubtless, many gradations of rank, to the highest of which, as well as to high government offices, were annexed very large The power of an Egyptian king to reward a favorite official is illustrated by the honors and emoluments showered upon Joseph. later times, especially under the Ptolemies, commerce must have been the source of many large private fortunes. But in all periods there appear to have been great inequalities among the people in respect to wealth and social position. The great affluence of a portion of the community, probably a small portion, is indicated by the representations of their furniture, household utensils, and dress, and by the great quantity of jewels and other objects of embellishment and luxury in use among them, as well as by the magnificent tombs which they prepared for the reception of their remains; while the splendor of the palaces of Thebes, still evident even amid their ruins, sufficiently indicates the magnificence and pomp which surrounded the monarch. The indolence and luxury of the few had their natural counterpart in the ardnous toil

^{*}The produce of their land was certainly not their only source of revenue. Herodotus (ii, 37) says that they were not obliged to consume any part of their domestic property, each of them having "a moiety of the sacred viands, ready dressed, assigned him, besides a large and daily allowance of beef and geese."

and poverty of the many. Such was the fertility of the soil, however, that in favorable periods even the poor probably enjoyed a certain rude abundance of coarse food. Of this an incidental evidence is found in the murmurings of the Israelites in the wilderness, for, notwithstanding that the Egyptians had "made their lives bitter with hard bondage in mortar and brick and in all manner of service in the field." (Exodus i. 14.) they sighed for the days when they "sat by the flesh-pots and did eat bread to the full." (Exodus xvi, 3.) But during the period when the population of the country was at or near its maximum, every deficient or excessive inundation must have entailed a deficiency in the food-supply, and the poorer classes must at times have suffered very serious privations from this cause. As to their clothing, it appears to have been of the simplest description, usually consisting of a single garment, a sort of tunic, with a girdle, and the men, especially when engaged in heavy work, frequently went naked. Their dwellings were slight and temporary structures, in marked contrast with the temples and tombs, which seemed to have been built to endure for eternity. The climate, however, was so mild that scant clothing and poor dwellings rarely involved any serious physical discomfort. In respect to education, the Egyptian working-classes appear to have had no advan-With the great majority of them life was a mere physical existence, more or less painful, and rarely cheered with any hope of amelioration in their condition.

Among the causes of their poverty, one of the most obvious was the support of an immense body of non-producers, particularly the priests, who were more numerous, enjoyed ampler revenues, and exercised greater social and political power in Egypt than anywhere else in the ancient world. Another cause equally conspicuous was the exercise of the arbitrary and irresponsible power of the monarchs in the erection of vast and costly structures, such as temples and pyramids, thus forcibly diverting the labor of the people into unnatural channels, wherein it contributed nothing to their physical comfort, and in no adequate degree

promoted even their artistic and esthetic development.

From the account which Herodotus gives of the construction of the great pyramid (which was doubtless the account current among the Egyptians in his day) it would appear that the king arbitrarily impressed the people into his service "Some he compelled," says the historian, "to hew stones in the quarries of the Arabian mountains, and drag them to the banks of the Nile; others were appointed to receive them in vessels, and transport them to a mountain of Libya. For this service a hundred thousand men were employed, who were relieved every three months. Ten years were consumed in the hard labor of forming the road through which these stones were to be drawn. The pyramid itself was a work of twenty years. Upon the outside were inscribed in Egyptian characters the various sums of money expended in the progress of the work for the radishes, onions, and garlic consumed by the artificers. This, as I well remember, my interpreter informed me, amounted to no less than one thousand six hundred talents. [in round numbers about \$1,600,000.] If this be true, how much more must it necessarily have cost for iron tools, food, and clothes for the workmen, particularly when we consider the length of time they were employed in the building itself, adding what was spent in the hewing and conveyance of the stones, and the construction of the subterraneous apartments." Herodotus adds that for the memory of this monarch and his successor (who also built a pyramid) the Egyptians had so extreme an aversion that they were "not very willing to mention their names."

But it was not alone in the erection of such colossal structures as the pyramids that vast amounts of labor were expended. One hundred and twenty thousand men are said to have been employed in hewing the obelisks of Thebes; and Herodotus mentions an edifice formed out of a single immense stone, which appears to have been used as the portico of a temple, the transportation of which from Elephantine to Sais employed two thousand men for three years. Yet this was only one out of many similar works executed by a single king; and there was scarcely a monarch of any note who did not leave numerous monuments of his ambition to perpetuate his fame, or his solicitude to obtain the favor of the gods by erecting costly temples for their worship.

Thus the industrial servitude of the people resulted in a great measure from that absolute political subjection which enabled a monarch to tax them at his own pleasure, or to command their labor in the service of the most grotesque ambition, the most reckless extravagance, or the wildest caprice. Scarcely anything in history could give one a more exalted conception of the economic value of political liberty to the working-classes of modern times than is conveyed by the spectacle of the hard-ships to which the working-people of Egypt were subjected in conse-

quence of the irresponsible power possessed by their rulers.

LABOR AMONG THE JEWS.

Adjacent to the Egyptians, geographically, and connected with them by strong historical links, were the Jews, or Israelites, who, after their exodus from Egypt, (which probably took place about 1652 B. C.,*) settled in the southern portion of the belt of fertile country which bordered the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea. Their ancient writings, embraced in the books of the Old Testament, in Josephus, and in the Talmud, and other traditional records, not only throw a comparatively full light upon their own life and history, but incidentally afford many important glimpses at those of the nations by which they were surrounded. In their origin the Israelites were a pastoral people; but during their residence in Egypt manyoof them must have acquired considerable mechanical and artistic skill, as is indicated in the fact that they built for Pharaoh treasure-cities, (Exodus, i, 11,) and by the works they executed during the journey through the wilderness in the construction of the tabernacle and its elaborate furniture, including the ark, the golden candlesticks, the cherubim of beaten gold, the "curtains of fine-twined linen, and blue and purple and scarlet, the vessels of gold and silver, and the ephod, inlaid with precious stones." During the earlier centuries of their residence in Canaan their frequent wars with the former inhabitants of the country and with the neighboring nations must have been highly unfavorable to their progress in the arts and in mechanical industry; and, moreover, the Philistines, under whose power the Israelites repeatedly fell, appear to have pursued so jealous a policy toward them that in the early portion of the reign of Saul "there was no smith found through all the land of Israel, for the Philistines said, 'Lest the Hebrews make them swords or spears;' but all the Israelites went down to the Philistines to sharpen every man his share, and his coulter, and his ax, and his mattock." (1 Samuel xiii, 19 and 20.) The period of power and independence enjoyed under Saul and under David were favorable to their progress in the industrial arts, and they also profited by their intercourse with the Phænicians, whose great

^{*}On this subject there is considerable difference of opinion among chronologists.



cities, Tyre and Sidon, were already flourishing places. In the building of the Temple at Jerusalem Solomon appears to have availed himself extensively of the skill of these neighbors, whose workmen were associated with those of the Hebrews* in dressing stones for the foundation of that structure, hewing timber in the mountains of Lebanon, and prob-

ably in many other portions of the work.

In his message to Hiram, King of Tyre, asking assistance in this work, Solomon says, "Send me now, therefore, a man cunning to work in gold, and in silver, and in brass, and in iron, and in purple and crimson, and blue, and that can skill to grave with the cunning men that are with me in Judah and in Jerusalem, whom David, my father, did provide." (2) Chronicles, ii, 7.) Hiram complies with this request by sending "a cunning man endued with understanding," whose mother was "of the daughters of Dan, and his father a man of Tyre." Among the works in metal executed by this artificer was an immense vessel of brass, of which the following account is given in 1 Kings, vii, 23 to 26: "And he made a molten sea, ten cubits from the one brim to the other; it was round all about, and its height was five cubits, I and a line of thirty cubits did compass it round about. And under the brim of it round about there were knops compassing it, ten in a cubit, compassing the sea round about; the knops were cast in two rows when it was cast. It stood upon twelve oxen (three looking toward each of the cardinal points.) it was a hand breadth thick, and the brim thereof was wrought like the brim of a cup with flowers of lilies. It contained two thousand baths." This and numerous other vessels enumerated in the same chapter, and more or less minutely described, are said to have been "of bright brass," and to have been cast in the plain of Jordan, "in the clay ground between Succoth and Zarthan." Further on are enumerated candlesticks, snuffers, lamps, basins, spoons, censers, and various other articles "of pure gold, which were made as a portion of the furniture of the temple. The making of the various vessels and other articles, some of them cast and others wrought, indicates considerable skill in the various processes of metallurgy; but, as this work was directed by an artificer brought from Tyre expressly for that purpose, it would appear that the knowledge of this art possessed by the Israelites at the time in question was quite limited. It may reasonably be presumed, however, that they profited by the lessons received in the execution of these and other works connected with the temple, and that the erection of this building really inaugurated a new era in the development of the mechanic arts among them.

One thing especially noticeable in connection with the building of the Temple is the manner in which the labor was employed. In the seventeenth and eighteenth verses of the second chapter of second Chronicles, we are told that "Solomon numbered all the strangers that were in the land of Israel, * * * and they were found an hundred and fifty thousand and three thousand and six hundred;" and that of these "he set three score and ten thousand to be bearers of burdens, and four score thousand

^{• 1} Kings, v, 6, 13, 14, and 18.

tIn 1 Kings, vii, 13 and 14, the artificer who executed the works in question is spoken of as Hiram, whose mother was a widow of the tribe of Naphtali, and his father a man of Tyre, a worker in brass. It is probable, however, that this is the same person elsewhere spoken of as the son of a woman of the daughters of Dan, for Dan, the ancient Luz, was a city in Naphtali, these two tribes having probably intermingled to such an extent that the distinction between them was in a measure lost.

[†] The Jewish cubit was equal to about twenty-one inches of our measurement.

† In 2 Chronicles, iv, 5, its capacity is stated at three thousand baths. The bath was a liquid measure of a fraction more than 10‡ gallons.

to be hewers in the mountains, and three thousand and six hundred overseers to set the people a work." These strangers were probably descendants of the ancient Canaanites, and as they were a subject people, the King appears to have had no scruple in impressing them into his service. In addition to the "strangers" it appears that Solomon raised thirty thousand men by a levy upon all Israel. These were sent to work in the mountains of Lebanon, "ten thousand a month by courses: a month they were in Lebanon and two months at home." Kings, v. 13 and 14.) The arrangements to secure the aid of Phonician workmen in cutting timber in Lebanon were made with the King of Tyre, to whom Solomon says, "And unto thee will I give hire for thy servants according to all that thou shall appoint; for thou knowest that there is not among us any that can skill to hew timber like unto the Sidonians." King Hiram promises that his servants shall do as Soloman has desired "concerning timber of cedar and concerning timber of fir:" and he further engages to bring them down from Lebanon unto the sea, "and convey them by sea in floats" to the place that Solomon may appoint; which place appears to have been Joppa. In return for these services he tells Solomon, "Thou shalt accomplish my desire in giving food for my household."

The amount of the supplies which Solomon furnished under this arrangement is stated at twenty thousand measures of wheat and twenty

measures of pure oil. (1 Kings v, 6, 8, 9, and 11.)*

It will be observed that the "strangers" impressed by Solomon into his service, as well as the thirty thousand men raised by a "levy" upon all Israel, appear to have been assigned to unskilled labor, and except in the case of Hiram of Tyre, no account is given of the manner in which artisans were obtained for the execution of such work as required a higher degree of mechanical and artistic skill. It is probable, however, that these were mainly free laborers, Jewish and Phœnician, who received regular wages for their services. In later times skilled mechanics were held in high esteem among the Jews, and in some cases, like that of St. Paul, men of learning and of superior talents thought it no dishonor to earn their subsistence by a mechanical occupation. Indeed, the head of every Jewish family was required to have his sons instructed in some trade.

In respect to slavery, the Jews presented no exception to the general practice of the age; but the law, while permitting them to purchase slaves of the heathen around them, or of the strangers sojourning among them, forbade them to reduce a Hebrew to perpetual servitude, except with his own consent in one case mentioned below. In Leviticus, xxv, 39, 40, and 41, it was provided that if a Hebrew were impoverished and sold to another person of his own race, he should not be compelled to serve as a bondservant, but "as a hired servant and as a sojourner," and this only until the year of jubilee, when he should depart, and his children with him, and return to his own family and to the possessions of his fathers. In Exodus, xxi, it was provided that if a Hebrew were purchased as a servant, he should serve six years, and in the seventh year should "go out free for nothing"; that if he were married on coming into servitude, his wife should go out with him; but if his master had given him a wife, and she had borne him sons or daughters, she and her

^{*}This account differs somewhat from that given in 2 Chronicles, ii, 10, in which Solomon is represented as saying to Hiram, "And behold I will give to thy servants, the hewers that cut timber, twenty thousand measures of beaten wheat, and twenty thousand measures of barley, and twenty thousand baths of wine, and twenty thousand baths of oil." The Jewish "measure" was the chemix, containing nearly a quart.



children should be her master's. If the servant elected to remain in servitude rather than leave his wife and children, his master was to take him before the judges and bring him to the door, or to the door-post, and bore his ear through with an awl, in token of his perpetual servitude. If a man struck a servant so that he died under his hand, it was provided that he "be surely punished;" but if the servant lingered a day or two, the master was not to be punished, the theory being that the servant was "his money." If a man struck out an eye or a tooth of his servant, he was to give him his freedom by wav of reparation for the ininry. If a servant escaped from his master, he was not to be delivered "He shall dwell with thee," is the command, (Deuteronomy, xxiii, 16,) "even among you, in that place which he shall choose in one of thy gates, where it liketh him best; thou shalt not oppress him." appears to refer to servants escaping to the Israelites from the countries around them. In reference to the treatment of hired servants, we read (Deuteronomy, xxiv, 14 and 15) "Thou shalt not oppress an hired servant that is poor and needy, whether he be of thy brethren, or of the strangers that are in the land within thy gates. At his day thou shalt give him his hire, neither shall the sun go down upon it; for he is poor and setteth his heart upon it; lest he cry against thee unto the Lord. and it he sin unto thee."

The laws of the Israelites with reference to property exhibit a peculiar regard for the interests of the poor. On taking possession of Canaan they divided the land among them; and although it is not explicitly so stated, the presumption is, that the division was, as nearly as practicable, an equal one, except that Joshua, and probably some other leaders, received shares which were larger than the average allotment. To counteract the tendency of land to accumulate in a few hands, a year of jubilee had been instituted in the law of Moses, which was to occur once in every fifty years, and at this time every man was to return to his possessions.

The land was not to be sold in perpetuity,* but only its usufruct until the year of jubilee. This usufructuary title is clearly indicated in the sixteenth verse of the twenty-fifth chapter of Leviticus, which reads as follows: "According to the multitude of years (until the jubilee) thou shalt increase the price thereof, and according to the fewness of the vears thou shalt diminish the price of it; for according to the number of the years of the fruits doth he sell unto thee." If an Israelite were compelled by poverty to sell the land he had inherited, his kinsmen had the right to redeem it for him by simply paying its usufructuary value until the year of jubilee; or if he, himself, were able to do so, he might redeem it upon the same terms; but if neither he, nor his kinsmen for him, could redeem it, he received it back in the year of jubilee.

A house in a walled city might be redeemed within one year after its sale, but not later; nor was it restored in the jubilee; but houses in the unwalled villages were regarded as the fields of the country; they might be redeemed at any time upon the same terms, and were restored in the year of jubilee. It should be said, too, that this rule applied to the houses of the Levites, even in walled cities, at least in the cities assigned to them; "for the houses of the cities of the Levites were their

possession among the children of Israel." (Leviticus, xxv, 33.)

The year of jubilee had the same relation to personal liberty as to

self should die before the jubilee arrived.



[&]quot;The land shall not be sold forever; for the land is mine; for ye are strangers and sojourners with me."—Leviticus, xxv, 23.

[Idem., verses 25–28.] This rule undoubtedly applied also to his children if he him-

possessions.* If a Hebrew, under stress of poverty, sold himself to a rich stranger sojourning in the land of Israel, his near kinsmen might redeem him by paying for the years to elapse before the jubilee; or if able, he might redeem himself upon the same terms; and in the jubilee he went free without redemption. Of course, all contracts, whether for land or services, must have been made with this understanding; so that the law inflicted no injustice upon purchasers. Its effect was to put it out of the power of a man to sell himself, for some present indulgence, into a perpetual servitude which would involve the servitude of his children, or to alienate permanently, for the gratification of his own extravagance or indolence, a title to landed property, in which he could justly have only a life estate; in other words, it put it out of his power to reduce his children to beggary by selling for his own advantage their natural right to a portion of the land which had been given to the nation as their common inheritance.

The following injunctions from the twenty-third and twenty-fourth chapters of Deuteronomy are in keeping with many others that may be found in the laws of Moses and in other portions of the Old Testament: "Thou shalt not lend upon usury to thy brother, (i. e., to a Hebrew.) Unto a stranger thou mayest lend upon usuryf; but unto thy brother thou shalt not lend upon usury." * * * "When thou dost lend thy brother anything, thou shalt not go into his house to fetch his pledge. Thou shalt stand abroad, (outside,) and the man to whom thou dost lend shall bring out the pledge abroad unto thee; and if the man be poor, thou shalt not sleep with his pledge. In any case thou shalt deliver him the pledge again when the sun goeth down." shalt not pervert the judgment of the stranger, nor of the fatherless, nor take a widow's raiment to pledge." * * * "When thou cuttest down thine harvest in thy field, and hast forgot a sheaf in the field, thou shalt not go again to fetch it; it shall be for the stranger, for the fatherless, and for the widow." * * "When thou beatest thine olive-tree, thou shalt not go over the boughs again." * * * "When thou gatherest the grapes of thy vineyard, thou shalt not glean it afterward; it shall be for the stranger, and the fatherless, and the widow." That these and other humane laws were frequently disregarded, and even flagrantly disobeyed, is evident from the repeated denunciations of the prophets against usury and other oppressive practices. In Nehemiah we read that "there was a great cry of the people, and of their wives, against their brethren, the Jews." Some are represented as saying, "We have mortgaged our lands, vineyards, and houses, that we might buy corn, because of the dearth." Others complained that they had borrowed money upon their lands and vineyards for the king's tribute. "And, lo, we bring into bondage our sons and our daughters to be servants," said they, "and some of our daughters are brought into bondage already; neither is it in our power to redeem them, for other men have our lands and vineyards." Thereupon Nehemiah rebukes "the nobles and the rulers," saying, "Ye exact usury every one of his brother," and calls upon them to restore to their impoverished brethren "their lands, their vineyards, their olive-yards, and their houses," as well as "the hundredth part of the money, and of the corn, the wine and the oil" that they have exacted from them. To this they consent, and he calls the priests to witness their oath that they will do "according to this promise." This appears to have occurred subsequent to

† All interest was formerly denominated "usury."



^{* &}quot;And ye shall hallow the fiftieth year, and proclaim liberty throughout all the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof."—Leviticus, xxv, 10.

445 B. C., when Nehemiah had obtained authority from Artaxerxes to proceed to Judea and rebuild Jerusalem. The captivity of the Jews in Babylon, and the domination of the Persians, Syrians, and Romans must have interfered to a considerable extent with the operation of their own laws; and the oppressive tribute to which they were at times subjected, as well the frequent wars between greater powers in which they were more or less involved, must have reduced them, at times, to a condition of severe suffering.

LABOR IN CHALDEA AND ASSYRIA.

These two countries, the former occupying the lower and the latter the upper portion of the valleys of the Euphrates and Tigris with the intermediate region, may be considered as having formed one nation for a period of several centuries, comprising the best known portion of their history. Their people differed in race and language, and the civilization of Chaldea was of much earlier origin than that of Assyria: but of the history of the old Chaldean empire little is known that could throw any light upon the subject of the present inquiry, beyond the bare fact that there existed great cities and other results of an industry that involved mechanical skill of no mean order. After the fall of Assyria under the power of the Medes, Chaldea (sometimes called Babylonia, after the name of its celebrated capital) again flourished for something less than a century as an imperial power; and during this period occurred the reign of the great Nebuchadnezzar of Scripture. In this later period, as also during the period of Assyrian supremacy,* and probably for centuries before that period commenced, Babylon was celebrated for many of the products of its industry, among which may be mentioned textile fabrics of remarkable fineness, and exquisite The city itself, characterized by Isaiah as "the glory of kingdoms, the beauty of the Chaldees' excellency," is described as one of whose grandeur the greatest cities of modern Europe give but a faint conception. According to Herodotus, it formed a perfect square, each side of which measured about fifteen miles in length, giving a total area of two hundred and twenty-five square miles. Its walls (according to the same authority) were two hundred cubits, about three hundred feet, m height, and fifty cubits, or seventy-five feet, in width. In them were one hundred massive gates of brass. "Its internal beauty and magnificence," says Herodotus, "exceed whatever has come within my knowledge." The Assyrian capital, Nineveh, was scarcely inferior to Babylon in extent and magnificence; and these were but two out of many great cities, of which the extensive region embraced in Chaldea and Assyria still bears numerous traces. The ruins of ancient palaces and temples, as well as accounts and representations in the inscriptions and sculptures found among such ruins, indicate clearly enough the colossal scale and elaborate ornamentation of those structures. Each king appears to have endeavored to eclipse his predecessors in the number, extent, and magnificence of the architectural works executed during his reign; and many of these works apparently had no other use than to gratify the ambition and vanity of the monarchs. Occasionally, however, other works of a more useful character were undertaken. Sennacherib, besides building himself a splendid palace, covering an area of more than eight acres, at Nineveb, and repairing the ancient residence of the kings at the same place, confined the Tigris to its bed

A supremacy not without occasional interruptions.

by an embankment of bricks, constructed a number of aqueducts for the purpose of bringing good water to the capital, and improved the defenses of the latter by erecting towers of vast size at some of the gates. Of the extent of the burdens imposed upon their subjects by the Assyrian kings for the gratification of their mania for great buildings, especially those of the class intended as royal residences, an indication is afforded in the fact recorded by Essarhaddon, one of the monarchs of this line. that twenty-two kings, of whom he gives a list, furnished him with materials for his great palace at Nineveh. In the construction of such works the Assyrians were accustomed to employ the labor of captives takan in war. Among these the skilled workmen were in request to assist in the ornamentation of shrines and palaces, while the great mass of the unskilled were employed in quarrying stone, raising mounds, making bricks, and similar occupations. It has already been stated that Sennacherib brought back to Assyria upwards of six hundred thousand prisoners in three campaigns, and the number of captives made in other successful expeditions was probably on the same scale. In the inscription on the Bellino cylinder this king states that he employed Chaldeans, Aramæans, Armenians, Cilicians, and Quhn (Coans) in the construction of his great works; and to these may probably be added Egyptians, Ethiopians, Elamites, and Jews. Their work consisted, among other things, in raising the vast mounds upon which important edifices were to be erected, in the transport and elevation of colossal bulls, in the molding of bricks, the quarrying of stone, the erection of walls, the excavation of canals, and the construction of em-They worked in gangs, each gang having a costume peculiar to it, which probably marked the nationality of its members. each of these gangs was placed a number of task-masters, armed with staves, who urged on the work with blows, and severely punished any neglect or remissness. Assyrian foremen had the general supervision of the works and were intrusted with such portions as required great skill or judgment. The captives often worked in fetters, which were sometimes supported by a bar fastened to the waist, while sometimes they consisted merely of shackles. *

The bas-reliefs on the walls of the Assyrian palaces and other public buildings exhibit a minute and rigid adherence to reality, which makes them a source of much valuable information as to the life of the people. Rawlinson gives us the following description of a series of sculptures, in which are minutely represented the several processes connected with the carving and transportation of a colossal bull, "from the first removal of the huge stone in its rough state from the quarry to its final elevation on a palace mound as part of the great gateway of a royal residence." The sculpture in question is found on the walls of Sennacherib's palace, and may doubtless be regarded as a veritable portion of the history of the erection of that or some other structure of that monarch's reign. "We see," says Rawlinson, "the trackers dragging the rough block, supported on a low flat-bottomed boat, along the course of a river, disposed in gangs, and working under task-masters, who use their rods upon the * * We then observe the block transferred to slightest provocation. land, and carved into the rough semblance of a bull, in which form it is placed upon a rude sledge and conveyed along level ground by gangs of laborers, arranged nearly as before, to the foot of the mound at whose top it has to be placed. The construction of the mound is most elaborately represented. Brick-makers are seen molding the bricks at its

^{*} Rawlinson's Ancient Monarchies.



base, while workmen with baskets at their backs, full of earth, bricks, stones, or rubbish, toil up the ascent—for the mound is already half raised—and empty their burdens out upon the summit. The bull, still lying on its sledge, is then drawn up an inclined plane to the top by four gangs of laborers, in the presence of the monarch and his attendants. After this the carving is completed, and the colossus, having been raised into an upright position, is conveyed along the surface of the platform to the exact site which it is to occupy."

The absence of labor-saving appliances indicated in the processes represented in this series of sculptures, shows how vast must have been the expenditure of sheer muscular force in the construction of the great buildings of this period. Gangs of laborers take the place of borses to haul the immense stone, not only by water, but also by land; and for the latter portion of the distance a sledge is used instead of a wheeled vehicle. To raise such a structure as Sennacherib's palace at Nineveh, by methods so primitive in their character, must have required a number of workmen which it can be no exaggeration to speak of as a great army. And though this army of laborers may have been composed of captives, the expense of maintaining them while engaged on these unproductive works must have occasioned heavy drafts upon the resources of the Assyrian people, and of the nations under their sway.

The constant and ferocious wars in which the Assyrian kings engaged must have been a source of frightful impoverishment to their own people, and of inconceivable sufferings to the nations against which they waged successful war. It appears to have been their distinct aim in many cases to spread utter ruin and desolation in the countries they had conquered, even to the extent of cutting down the fruit-trees, and thus depriving their victims, as far as possible, of the means of subsistence for the future. According to his own account, as given in one of the inscriptions exhumed at Nineveh, Sennacherib, in the third year of his reign, invaded Chaldea, (which had previously revolted,) and plundered seventy-six large towns, and four hundred and sixty villages; while Sargon, his predecessor, not content with plundering the people he conquered, removed entire populations en masse to distant localities.*

It scarcely needs explicit information to convince one that, under such rulers, the condition of the working classes must have been, in the main, one of extreme wretchedness. Among the Assyrians themselves the ordinary dress of this class and of the common people generally appears to have been a mere plain tunic, with very short sleeves, and confined round the waist by a broad belt or girdle. Nothing was worn by this class either on the head or on the feet. As to their dwellings and fare, these were doubtless in keeping with the scantiness of their apparel.

In agriculture the Assyrians and Chaldeans depended largely upon artificial methods of irrigation; and the elaborate system of canals, reservoirs, conduits, dikes, and pumps, by which they spread the waters of their rivers over the soil, indicates that this branch of industry was carried on with considerable energy and skill. Among a people so war-like as the Assyrians, and especially a people who carried to such an extent as they did the practice of enslaving their prisoners of war, the operations of agriculture, and, indeed, the common and heavy labor in most of their industries, must, to a great extent, have been performed by slaves; but upon this point, as upon most others connected with the daily life of the people, we are obliged to rely mainly upon inference. The important discoveries recently made of inscribed elay tablets and

^{*} This was the king who colonized the cities of Samaria with an alien race.



cylinders, and monumental stones, coupled with the zealous efforts of Mr. George Smith and other cuneiform scholars, will doubtless develop many new and important facts connected with the history of these nations and the condition of their people. It would be interesting to inquire into the history and condition of the working-classes in Persia. which succeeded Assyria and Babylonia as the leading military power of the ancient world; in Syria, including Phænicia, famous for her commercial enterprise, her flourishing colonies, her skillful artisans, and her important agency in the spread of letters and the arts of civilization; in Lydia, Ionia, and other states of Asia Minor, during the period of their independence, as well as in the nations of the farther East. the labor involved in an inquiry of such extensive range would be too formidable to be undertaken as an incident to a work like this, and it must suffice to glance briefly at the more familiar histories of Greece and Rome, so far as they relate to the special subject under consideration.

LABOR IN GREECE.

To no other nation of antiquity has the modern world been indebted for intellectual treasures of such extent and value as those bequeathed to it by ancient Greece. The revival of Greek learning, more perhaps than any other single cause, communicated to European thought that powerful impulse which marks the close of the Dark Ages and the dawn of modern civilization. The thought of Greece has been woven into the texture of modern literature; her philosophy furnished to modern speculation its initial stimulus; her institutions have been a fruitful source of political instruction; her art has kindled the emulation of modern artists, and supplied them with their noblest ideals of grace and beauty. Of her eminence in industrial achievements there are innumerable proofs. The remains of her great edifices attest, not only the genius of her artists, but the skill of her artisans, of which abundant evidence is also found in the rare excellence and fineness of a great variety of her industrial products. The religion of the Greeks was highly favorable to the diffusion of the artistic spirit through their mech inical industries. This was especially noticeable in the working of the precious metals, of which immense quantities were used in the fabrication of images, utensils, and furniture for the temples of the gods. "Occasionally articles of plate of enormous size were manufactured, such as cisterns, or vases, or tripods, or salvers, or goblets, of gold or silver, presented as offerings by whole cities or communities to some divinity. In these cases the workmanship was very frequently so elaborate and exquisite as to be still more costly than the materials. Entire landscapes, including innumerable figures and objects, were sometimes represented on the swell of a vase or goblet. Bacchanalian processions, for example, with whole troops of satyrs and mænades moving along some wooded valley, or desert mountain, or rocky shore, at the heels of the Seileni and Dionysos; groups of nereids, nymphs, and tritons, sporting in the warm sunshine on the unruffled expanse of ocean; and sacrifices, marriages, chariot races, and choruses of youths and virgins moving through the mazes of the dance around the altar of Apollo or Artemis. It is also to Hellenic goldsmiths that we are evidently to attribute those marvelous productions of art reckoned among the most boa ted possessions of the Persian kings, such as that vine of gold,

with its vast grape clusters, imitated both in size and color by the most precious gems, which formed a canopy over the royal couch; or that golden platane tree, and other vine, which rising from behind the throne stretched its branches, tendrils, and leaves of gold aloft over the monarch as he sat in state to give audience to his people."*

The washing and plating of the inferior metals with gold and silver were well understood, and there were many ingenious devices for coloring and frosting the surface, and for inlaying and flowering one metal with another. The cutting, engraving, and polishing of precious stones were carried to a high state of perfection by the Greeks, who in these processes appear to have employed all the finer tools in use at the present day, including the diamond point and the lapidary's wheel. It is at least certain that they engraved figures which for beauty and delicacy have never been excelled. There is reason to believe that they were acquainted with the microscope, or at least that they used magnifying glasses of great power, since their engravings were sometimes so fine that the naked eye could not distinguish their lines. Indeed we find mention of burning glasses as early as the age of Socrates, and very powerful lenses have been discovered among the ruins of Herculaneum.

In the earliest ages of Greece the metal used for arms and for tools of various kinds was brass; but iron and steel were in use in the days of Homer, who speaks of axes and other implements made of iron, steeled at the edge, and describes the process of hardening by immersion in Swords made of steel thus hardened appear to have been extremely brittle, since they are represented as having been frequently shivered to pieces by a blow on a shield or helmet. When greater tenacity was required oil was subsequently used for cooling instead of water. At a later day the manufacture of swords was an object of special attention. They were formed of the finest steel, highly polished and elaborately ornamented. The manufacture of arms and armor of all descriptions was at all times, among the Greeks, one of the most important pursuits, and was carried to a high state of perfection. production of cutlery the Delphians appear to have attained celebrity. and that of the Athenians was, undoubtedly, remarkable for its elegance, if not also for its quality.

The workshop and tools of the smith seem to have had a close resemblance to those of the present day. There were the anvil mounted on a high block; the bellows, formed of thin boards, connected by flaps of cowhide, and expelling the air through an iron nozzle; the hammer, the

tongs, the vise, and other familiar implements.

The metals used by the Greeks were obtained partly by commerce, partly from their own mines. Those at Laurion, in Attica, were important and extensive, but there is little attainable information as to the methods of mining. It is known, however, that the Athenians used both shafts and adits, and that in chambering they employed much timber. To prevent the falling in of the superincumbent mountain, there were left at intervals vast pillars, the cutting away of which was prohibited on pain of death. Among the Greeks, as well as in our own country at the present day, the miner was exposed to great perils from free damp and malaria; at least, this is known to have been the case at Laurion, but whether there were any means of protection against such gases is a matter of uncertainty. The quarrying of marble, granite, free-stone, and tufa, for building purposes, was a flourishing industry. The last-mentioned material, in a powdered state, was often used in conjunc-

^{*} St. John: Manners and Customs of Ancient Greece.

tion with clay, in the manufacture of bricks. Great ingenuity was displayed in the manufacture of cement, of which one variety was so durable as frequently to outlast the materials it was used to unite.

The house-painters of Greece appear to have shared in the artistic tendencies which characterized the nation. They were frequently employed in producing upon the polished surface of one stone the colors and veining of another, while frescoing appears to have been considerably practiced in the ornamentation of the interior of private houses as well as of public buildings. The walls of apartments were sometimes covered with historical subjects, landscapes or the figures of animals, and in the later ages ceilings were painted or inlaid with colored stones, so as to imitate the feathers and hues of a peacock's tail.

In house-building timber appears to have been used to a considerable extent, thus bringing into prominence the trade of the carpenter, whose tools comprised most of those used by the carpenters of the present day, such as saws of various sizes, the plane, the ax, the chisel, the square, the auger, the gimlet, the compass, and various other articles. The timber employed in the construction of houses appears to have been regulated by law, and comprised a number of varieties, such as the sil-

yew, the Euboean walnut, and the beech.

The descriptions of the household furniture in use among wealthy Greeks prove that the trade of the cabinet-maker must have been carried to a high state of perfection, while the craft of the turner yielded them many articles of great elegance. The manufacture of musical in-

ver fir, the elm, cypress, cedar and juniper, the Arcadian and Idean

struments was another industry in which the Greeks excelled.

The potters of Greece, especially those of Athens, Rhodes, and Samos, were famous for the beauty and excellence of their productions. earthenware made at Kolias in Attica from the clay found at that place. and richly painted with figures in minium, appears to have been the most beautiful known to the ancient world. Great skill and taste were displayed in the production of vases, whose light and graceful contour, as well as the exquisite beauty of their decorations, showed that the Grecian potters had cultivated to a high degree the art of design, in which the natural artistic aptitude of the race found fitting opportunities for Among the figures usually painted on such articles its development. were representations of the gods or genii, wreaths of oak leaves and garlands and festoons of flowers. The manufacture of lamps was an important branch of the business of the potter, who also produced artificial representations of fruits, and images of gods, men or animals, which were sold about the streets as plaster of Paris images sometimes are at the present day. An idea of the prices of these images is obtained from the fact that a figure of Eros sold for a drachma, or about 19 cents.

The manufacture of glass was carried to a high degree of perfection by the ancients, who were familiar with the processes of blowing, cutting, engraving, and staining it. In the latter process they could imitate the colors and the brilliancy of the most precious gems, from the ruby and

the amethyst, to the turquoise and the beryl.

Of this material, it is said, they also fashioned "jars, bowls, and vases, exhibiting all the various hues of the peacock's train, which like shot silks and the breast of the dove, displayed fresh tints in every different light—fading, quivering, and melting into each other as the eye changed its point of view."

In the quality of their textile fabrics the Greeks, as well as various other nations of antiquity, appear to have been fully equal to the manufacturers of modern times; but owing to the absence of labor-saving

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machinery these fabrics, especially the finer ones, could only be produced in comparatively insignificant quantities, and the clothing worn by the masses of the people was not to be compared with that which they are

able to wear at the present day.

To the Greeks is attributed the invention of the upright and horizontal loom, though these appliances were probably improvements upon somewhat ruder machines used elsewhere for the same purpose. Achaen city of Patre was celebrated for the fineness of its fabrics. the spinning and weaving of which appear to have been chiefly carried on by the women, who in that city were twice as numerous as the men. The supply of flax used in the finer linens manufactured there was obtained from the plains of Elis, where the plant attained a perfection which made it, in respect to fineness, the rival of the best grown in India. and for whiteness its superior. The finest linens made from it were considered worth their weight in gold. The island of Amorgos was also celebrated for a species of fine flax, cultivated there, as well as for the exquisite texture and beautiful purple dye of the linens which the inhabitants of the island manufactured therefrom. Very superior cloths were also manufactured from hemp, and a variety of garments, including a sort of mantle for ladies, were made of hair, either woven or plaited. The rearing of silk-worms and the weaving of silk were practiced at an early age in the island of Cos, the fabrics of which were universally admired. Their fineness and transparency were such as to allow the entire form and color of the body to be distinguished through The silk-worms of Cos were fed on the leaves of the pine, ash. and oak, and the silk obtained from them was quite different from that produced by worms fed on the leaves of the mulberry. Another kind of silk was procured from the floss-like beard of the pinna marina, or silk-worm of the sea, which was found on the coasts of Asia Minor, Sicily, and the Balearic Isles.

In the manufacture of carpets the Greeks displayed their usual taste and skill, both in respect to their quality and the elegance of their patterns, in which were represented trees, flowers, the figures of animals.

and other objects.

The trade of the shoe-maker appears to have been a thriving one at every period of Grecian history, and the work-shops of this class of artisans were neatly furnished, their lasts, paste-pots, pincers, awls, and other implements being kept in a sort of cabinet, sometimes furnished with double folding-doors and four or five deep shelves, and ex-

tremely elegant in form.

In the art of dyeing the Greeks not merely equaled, but probably excelled, the people of the present age. Their purple, a color also produced with great success by the Phœnicians and other ancient peoples. was often spoken of by Greek and Roman authors with an admiration bordering on rapture. This dye was obtained from several kinds of shell-fish found in the Mediterranean, the best being those taken near the island on which was built New Tyre. According to Aristotle there were several varieties of the purple fish, varying in size as well as in the color of the liquid they produced. This liquid was contained in a white vein about the neck, the only part of the fish that was of any value. The coloring matter having been carefully collected and macerated in salt for three days, was then mixed with a certain quantity of water, and boiled for ten days in leaden boilers over a slow fire, when the wool, previously well washed, was dipped in the dye and left to soak for five hours. It was then taken out to be dried and carded, after which it was thrown back in the dye and left there until it absorbed the whole of the liquid. Several varieties of the fish were usually mixed together, differences of shade being obtained by altering the proportions, as well as by the introduction of other ingredients, among which was a kind of moss, found in abundance on the rocky shores of Crete. Three distinct colors seem to have been included under the general name of purple, viz, a deep violet, with a black or dusky tinge, which was the amethystine shade which Pliny describes as so magnificent; the purple of Tyre and Tarentum, which was of a deep scarlet or crimson; and a tint resembling the dark blue of the Mediterranean Sea, when it begins to be ruffled by the winds.

A brilliant scarlet dye, which was greatly admired, was made of kernes, or cochineal. This was found in various parts of Greece, and appears to have been in use there from the remotest antiquity. Many other colors were produced in great perfection by the Greek dyers, such as bright flame and saffron color; pink, green, and russet gray; deep

and sky blue, produced by woad, and red produced by madder.

In respect to the number of persons employed, and the value of their products, the fisheries of Greece ranked among the most important of her industries, while their effect in training a skilled and hardy race of seamen contributed greatly to the superiority of the Greeks in naval warfare

The importance of agriculture, and the high esteem in which it was held among the Greeks, will give interest to a few particulars in regard to it. In Attica many of the owners of estates resided in the city, but rode out to their farms every day to superintend the labors of their workmen, who were usually slaves. Agricultural labor commenced with daylight. The meals were generally cooked and eaten in the open air, and the labor was often carried on amid rustic songs, especially during the harvest and the vintage, which were seasons of universal rejoicing, and were followed by joyous festivities in honor of the rural gods.

In order to procure the necessary implements and utensils of the farm at a cheap rate, smiths, carpenters, and potters were kept upon the land, or in its immediate neighborhood, by which means the master avoided the necessity of sending the farm-servants too frequently to the neighboring town, where they were supposed to be liable to contract bad Wagons, carts, plows, and harrows were, therefore, constructed habits. on the farm. Among other implements used by the Greek farmers may be mentioned winnowing-fans, scythes, sickles, pruning-hooks, fern or bracken scythes, hand-saws, (used in pruning or grafting,) spades, shovels, rakes, pick-axes, hoes, mattocks, and grubbing-axes. engaged in cutting down thickets, or clearing away underbrush, the rustics were booded skin cloaks, leather gaiters, and long leather gloves In choosing a plowman it was customary to take care that he should be tall and muscular, in order that he might be able to thrust the share deeper into the ground, and wield it with greater facility. was also preferred that he should not be under forty years of age, since it was desired that he should be very steady and attentive to his work. When in particular haste to complete his task, the plowman often carried a long loaf under his arm, which, like the French peasants, he ate as he went along. In breaking sod oxen were commonly employed, but in other plowing the preference was given to mules.

In Athens it was the custom for such persons as desired employment in harvesting to range themselves in bands in the Agora, or marketplace, whither the farmers resorted to secure such help as they needed for the busy harvest season. Arrived in the field with sickle in hand, it was common for the reapers to commence at opposite ends of the piece of grain to be cut, the members of each party striving to reach the middle of the field before their rivals. On other occasions they took advantage of the wind, moving in the same direction with it, and thus having the straw conveniently bent to their hand. In many parts of Greece the women joined in this labor, though the custom was not general. In cutting wheat the sickle appears to have been always used, but barley and other inferior grains were usually cut with the scythe. There were a variety of ways of separating the grain from the straw, of which the most common appears to have been to arrange the sheaves in a circular form to be trampled by oxen, horses, or mules, whose movements were directed by a driver standing in the center. A species of harrow, or toothed sledge, was sometimes used for the same purpose, and the flail was occasionally employed, especially in the case of grain which was laid up in the barn to be thrashed during the winter.

After these brief notices of a few of the leading industries pursued among the Greeks, it may not be amiss to reproduce an alphabetical enumeration of occupations which is given by Fosbroke in his "Treatise on the Arts, Manufactures, Manners, and Institutions of the Greeks and Romans." Omitting a few unimportant details, the list is as follows: Bottle-makers, (or makers of leathern bottles;) bankers, (money changers or usurers;) barbers, some of them females, and barber-surgeons; basket-makers, blacksmiths and brasiers, butchers, of whom there appear to have been none at the time of the Trojan war, since the heroes of Homer are represented as cutting up their own meat; capon cutters. carpenters, and cooks—the latter being men, who were sometimes hired by the day at a high price; coppersmiths, cotton manufacturers and dealers in cotton goods, couriers, dyers, enamelers, factors, farmers, feltmakers, fishermen, fish-mongers, flax-dressers, founders, fresco-painters, fullers, gilders, glass-manufacturers and globe-makers, the globes being made of glass; glue-makers, goldsmiths, and gardeners, the latter understanding the art of grafting; grooms, hair-cloth manufacturers, horse-breakers, joiners, market-clerks, (who attended to the weights, measures, and qualities of the goods,) midwives, mountebanks, oilmen, painters, paper and parchment makers, pastry-cooks, perfumers, pilots, (a profession held in high esteem,) porters, potters, poulterers, prisonkeepers, quack doctors, readers, (whose office was to read to their masters during dinner, at night when they could not sleep, and at other times.) shepherds, tanners, tutors, watchmen upon towers, wax-chandlers, and weavers.

In respect to the condition and mode of life of the people by whose abor the various industries were carried on, the information afforded by the ancient writers is comparatively scanty. There were doubtless many freemen of the poorer class who worked with their own hands in carrying on mechanical and other industries in a small way on their own account, as did the spinners and weavers of Lancashire, England, and the shoe-makers of Massachusetts, before the application of machinery to their respective industries. In the agricultural districts there were also peasants, such as the Thetes of Attica, who cultivated small tracts of land, for the use of which they paid the proprietors a share-according to Bœck, one-sixth-of the produce. These peasants, as well as many of those who carried on small mechanical industries on their own account, probably often worked for wages. Indeed, the Thetes are sometimes referred to as a class of hired laborers. In many cities, and especially in Athens, there were a considerable number of resident aliens who worked for hire, chiefly perhaps in the mechanical trades;

and after the Peloponnesian war Athenian citizens who had previously enjoyed comparative affluence were obliged to support themselves by

working at any sort of manual labor for daily wages.

It appears to have been a special object of the polity of Solon, whose archonship commenced in 594 B. C., to increase the number of artisans and the amount of the manufactures of Athens. For this purpose he prohibited the exportation of any of the products of the soil, with the single exception of olive oil, which was extremely plentiful. He also forbade the granting of citizenship to immigrants unless they had forever abandoned their former abodes, and came to Athens for the purpose of carrying on some industrial occupation. The senate of Areopagus was directed to keep watch over the lives of citizens generally, and punish all who had no regular occupation to support them; and if a son had not been taught some art or profession by his father the laws of Solon relieved him from the obligation of supporting that father in his old age. It was the wish of this lawgiver that the exports of Athens should consist of the products of artisan labor rather than the produce of the land. This policy probably had much influence in promoting the success of Athens in manufactures and increasing the number of her free artisans.

Respecting the rates of wages it is necessary to depend mainly upon occasional indications, such as the incidental mention of wages paid in particular occupations. Lucian states that in the age of Timon (about 420 B. C.) the daily wages for garden or field labor was 4 oboli, or about 13 cents; but Beck appears to think it probable that this author refers to earlier what really belongs to later times. The same sum is mentioned by Aristophanes as the wages of a porter, and also as that of a day-laborer, who carried manure. The philosophers Menedemus and Asclepiades are said to have earned 2 drachmas (about 39 cents) a night by grinding corn in a mill; but this appears to be quite an exceptional rate of pay. The crew of the Paralos, one of the two sacred triremes belonging to the Athenian state, always received 4 oboli (13 cents) a day. although this vessel was usually kept in port. It may be remarked that the members of the crew were all freemen. The pay of the soldiers varied between 2 oboli and 2 drachmas a day, but the larger amount included the allowance for subsistence to a hoplite (a heavy armed soldier) and his attendant. The pay of a hoplite was never less than 2 oboli per diem, with an equal amount for subsistence. This was the customary rate in the time of Demosthenes, who calculates the cost of the subsistence of a hoplite at 10 drachmas, (60 oboli,) and that of a cavalryman at 30 drachmas (about \$5.85) a month. At the beginning of the Peloponnesian war each of the hoplites engaged in the slege of Potidea received 2 drachmas a day for himself and his attendant; and the same pay is mentioned by Aristophanes as having been asked by certain Thracian mercenaries, subsistence in each case being included in the sum named. The troops of the Athenian army operating in Sicily received 1 drachma a day, of which one-half was for subsistence, and the archers who formed the civic guard of Athens were paid at the same rate. After the destruction of Mantinea, the cities in alliance with Sparta furnished money in lieu of troops at the rate of 3 Eginetan oboli* per diem for each foot-soldier, and 12 for each cavalryman. From the instances given it will be seen that the pay of the cavalry was twice, thrice, or even four times as much as that of the infantry. Among the Athenians it was usually three times as high, and the same rule held good among the Romans.

It is said that a soldier could maintain himself sufficiently well for 2 or 3 oboli (61 to 92 cents) a day, especially as living in many places

^{*} Three Egineton oboli were worth 5 Attic oboli.

where he had to serve was much cheaper than in Athens. The allowance for subsistence was usually equal to the pay. Out of the latter the soldier had to provide clothing and arms, and after doing this he commonly had a surplus left, which, when opportunity favored him, he frequently augmented by plunder. In this way a soldier would often amass quite a little fortune. Theopompus says that with a daily pay of 2 oboli a soldier could maintain a wife, and that with 4 oboli his fortune was complete, by which he evidently means so much pay independent of the allowance for subsistence.

The earnings of professional men, including musicians and actors, in Athens were, at least in some instances, very large. The celebrated physician, Democedes of Croton, being invited to Athens, received from the state a salary of 100 minas, or a little less than \$2,000 in gold, which for that age (540 B. C.) was a large amount. Flute-players sometime obtained almost incredible prices for their services, and distinguished actors equally large amounts. Thus Palus, or Aristodemus, is said to have earned a talent (nearly \$1,200 in gold) in one or two days. The teachers of philosophy and rhetoric, or sophists, were also a well-paid class. Protagoras, of Abdera, the first who taught for money, charged a pupil 100 minas for his complete course of instruction, and Georgias exacted the same amount; but in later times, when the number of these teachers had multiplied, the rates of tuition were considerably reduced.

The cost of the necessaries of life in ancient Greece was comparatively low, especially in the early period of Grecian history. In the time of Solon, (that is in the early part of the sixth century before the commencement of the Christian era,) the medimnus of grain (about a bushel and a half) was sold at Athens for a drachma, or about 19 cents. From that time to the time of Demostheres there was a gradual rise in breadstuffs, as well as in most other commodities. In the days of Socrates barley-meal was worth an obolus for 4 chemices, or 2 drachmas the medimnus. Diogenes, the cynic, mentions about the same rate as having prevailed in his day, though, in the opinion of Beeck, this could only have been true in regard to the years when the price was lowest. The author just named infers from a passage in Aristophanes that about the ninety-sixth and ninety-seventh Olympiads (396-392 B. C.) wheat was worth about 3 drachmas a medimnus, which corresponds very well with the price of barley as just quoted; but in the time of Demosthenes, at least during periods of scarcity, 5 drachmas the medimnus, or about 65 cents a bushel for wheat, was considered a moderate price. Even barley must have sold as high as 6 drachmas the medimnus for a considerable period, as 18 drachmas, an extravagantly high rate, are referred to in the speech against Phoenippus, as being three times the former price. In other Grecian states the prices do not appear to have differed very much from those which prevailed at Athens. For example, it is stated in the second book of the Economics, attributed to Aristotle, that barley-meal at Lampsacus sold at 4 drachmas the medimnus, or about 52 cents a bushel; but that the state on one occasion fixed the price at 6 drachmas, in order to make a profit on the difference. During the siege of Athens by Sulla wheat was sold as high as 1,000 drachmas the medimnus, the inhabitants being reduced to the necessity of subsisting on shoes and leathern bottles. The price of bread among the Greeks appears to be unknown. Indeed, it is probable that this commodity was usually, if not always, made at home by the women of the family or the female slaves; for though Greece, or at least Athens,

was noted for the excellence of her bread, it is not clear that there were any professional bakers who manufactured that commodity for sale.

In early times the price of meat in Greece must have been very low, as in the days of Solon an ox, probably one selected for a sacrifice, was sold at Athens for 5 drachmas, or about 97½ cents. A sheep at the same period was worth only a drachma, or about 19½ cents. During the Peloponnesian war, a sucking-pig sold at Athens for 3 drachmas, or about 58½ cents. A small sheep selected for a sacrifice is estimated in Menander at 10 drachmas, or about \$1.95; and in one instance a lot of fifty-five sheep seem to have been estimated at a value of 1,000 drachmas, or about \$3.90 per capita. If these two rates be assumed to indicate that the price of sheep in the flourishing period of Athens ranged from 10 to 20 drachmas, the price of oxen may be supposed to have ranged from 50 to 100 drachmas, or from \$9.75 to \$19.50.

The price of wine in Greece was extremely low. At Athens common wine sold at 4 drachmas the metretes, which is at the rate of about 7½ cents a gallon; and an agreement is mentioned in Demosthenes in which 3,000 casks of Mendæan wine supposed to have contained a metretes each were valued at 6,000 drachmas, or at the rate of only 2 drachmas the metretes, which is less than 4 cents a gallon; yet Mendæan wine (of which, however, there may have been various qualities) was used by the Macedonians in their most sumptuous entertainments. But even in those days some wines were quite expensive. Thus the Chian wine, in the days of Socrates, sold for a mina the metretes, or

nearly \$2 a gallon.

At Athens, and probably in most of the Greek cities, fish, especially the smaller kinds, were abundant and very cheap, and were a favorite article of food. Of aphuas, which were very small, a great quantity could be bought for an obolus, or 31 cents. The larger varieties brought a better price, and such as were scarce and were sought for by the rich as delicacies were quite high. Thus a copaic eel in the time of Aristophanes cost 3 drachmas, or about 581 cents. At Athens salted provisions, more particularly fish, were imported in large quantities, and could be bought cheap, but they were chiefly consumed by the poorer people of the country. Vegetables, such as cabbage, are said to have been cheap. chenix of olives, about a quart, sold for a quarter obolus, or 3 of a The best honey cost as much as 5 drachmas the cotyla, or nearly a dollar a pint, probably an exceptional price. The warm beverage which the ancients used instead of tea cost a chalcus, or 1 of an obolus a cup, and a piece of dressed meat, prepared for eating, could be bought, according to Aristophanes, for half an obolus.

Judging by the price of houses, rents among the Greeks must have been quite moderate. The orator Isæus mentions a small house, the value of which he estimates at 3 minas, or about \$59; another at Eleusis worth 5 minas, (about \$97,) and a dwelling-house at Athens worth 13 minas, or somewhat over \$250. Demosthenes mentions a house belonging to poor people, which was pledged for 10 minas, (\$194,) and a lodging-house in the country valued at 16 minas, or about \$311. A house behind the Acropolis at Athens was valued at 20 minas, and others respectively worth 30, 44, 50, 100, and 120 minas are mentioned by various writers. The mina being equal to about \$19.44, gold, the reader can easily reduce these amounts to their equivalents in United States money. The highest price mentioned is only \$2,332.80; but as the Greek writers only mention the value of houses in an incidental way, it would not by any means be safe to infer that this sum was really the price of a house of the most expensive class. It is well

known that the Athenian houses generally were of a very inferior kind, as might naturally be inferred from their values as given above. The only precise statement on the subject of house-rent occurs in Isæus, according to whom a house at Melite worth 30 minas, and one at Eleusis worth 5 minas, together produced 3 minas a year, or 84 per cent.; but, in the opinion of Bœck, this must have been below the general average, as it is considerably below the ordinary rate of interest.

In this connection it may not be amiss to refer to the value of land, which in Attica is estimated by Bæck at 50 drachmas the plethron, or about \$43 an acre. But of course prices must have varied greatly according to locality, and must also have undergone frequent changes in the course of history, increasing with prosperity and a rapid increase of population, and diminishing when war depopulated the country, or ren-

dered the operations of agriculture insecure.

Fuel in Athens appears to have commanded a comparatively high price, 2 drachmas, or 39 cents, being in one case mentioned as the ordinary price of such a load of wood as could be brought into the city on the back of an ass. Charcoal was extensively used, and being lighter

than wood, would cost proportionately less for transportation.

Of the price of clothing only an imperfect idea can be obtained. Socrates, according to Plutarch, considered an exomis cheap at 10 drachmas, or \$1.95. This was an upper garment worn by the common people, and had only one sleeve, the arm on the other side being left bare. The same philosopher mentions purple as selling at Athens for 3 minas, or a little less than \$60, and by this he is supposed to have meant an expensive upper garment of that color. Garments made of the byssus, which grew in Achaia, were sold for their weight in gold. A pair of Sicyonic women's shoes could be bought for 2 drachmas, or 39 cents. Eight drachmas, or \$1.56, is once mentioned as the price of a pair of men's shoes; but this is supposed to refer to some ornamental kind much dearer than those commonly in use.

In regard to the aggregate cost of living, Bœck estimates that at Athens the poorest family, comprising as many as four free adults, if they did not live on bread and water, must have spent, upon an average, from 390 to 400 drachmas, or from \$77 to \$79 a year; and he thinks that "if, in the time of Socrates, four persons could live upon 440 drachmas a year, they must have passed a very wretched existence." Elsewhere he says that "in the flourishing times of the state one person could live but moderately upon 2 or even 3 oboli a day;" so that a workingman, who had to support a family on 4 oboli a day, must have earned but a scanty subsistence. Allowing two hundred and fifty working days to the year, 4 oboli a day would amount to only 1662 drachmas a year, which is less than half the sum which Boeck thinks necessary even to "a very wretched existence."*

But the number of wage-laborers in Greece was comparatively small, a great majority of the working people being in the condition of slaves or serfs. In war the life of the prisoner was considered as forfeited, and if the captor spared him it was usually to devote him to a life of servitude, a fate which often befell persons who, in their own country,

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^{*}In this connection it may not be amiss to notice the conclusion of the able French author, Dureau de la Malle, who, after a review of the prices of commodities, the rates of wages, and the pay of troops in Greece and in Asia, remarks that the value of the precious metals in ancient times, as compared with military service, labor, and subsistence, was much smaller than has generally been supposed. "For example," says he, "the 3 oboli allowed for the subsistence of a hoplite are within 4 centimes (four-fifths of a cent) of the amount now allowed for the subsistence of a terrace-maker, a mason, or a carpenter in two-thirds of the departments of France."

had occupied stations of honor and influence. Many persons were also sold into slavery by kidnappers, who practiced their nefarious trade along the shores of the Mediterranean, as similar miscreants in modern times have done on certain portions of the African coast. As luxury increased among the Greeks the demand for slaves was such that a regular commerce in these unfortunate beings was kept up, the enterprise of the slave-traders leading them to distant parts, particularly to the southern shores of the Black Sea, where slaves could be had in great numbers. The first Greeks who engaged in this trade are said to have been the Chians, who also pursued the infamous business of making eunuchs for the eastern market. A just retribution ultimately fell upon them, when Mithridates, of Cappadocia, having conquered the island, delivered them up to their own slaves to be carried away captive into Colchis.

In Sparta the Helots outnumbered the citizens by about five to one, and Bæck estimates the ratio of slaves to citizens in Attica at very nearly four to one.*

According to an enumeration made during the archonship of Demetrius Phalerus, about 309 B. C., there were 21,000 citizens, 10,000 resident aliens, and 400,000 slaves. Beeck, however, supposes, apparently with very good reason, that this number of slaves includes women and children, whereas the number of citizens and of resident aliens includes only adult males. "This number of slaves," says the author just cited, "cannot appear too large, if the political circumstances of Attica are taken into consideration. Even among the poorer citizens it was common to have a slave for the care of household affairs. In every moderate establishment many were employed, such as grinders, bakers, cooks, tailors, errand-boys, or to accompany the master and mistress, who seldom went out without an attendant. Any one who was expensive and wished to attract attention took perhaps three attendants with him. We even hear of philosophers who kept ten slaves. were also let out as hired servants. They performed all the labor connected with the care of cattle and agriculture; they were employed in the working of the mines and furnaces; all manual labor and the lower branches of trade were in a great measure carried on by them; large gangs were employed in the numerous workshops for which Athens was celebrated; and a considerable number labored in merchant-vessels and in the fleet. Not to enumerate many instances of persons who had a smaller number of slaves, Timarchus kept in his workshop 11 or 12; Demosthenes' father 52 or 53, besides the female slaves in his house, and Lysias and Polemarchus, 120 each. Plato expressly remarks that the free inhabitants had frequently 50 slaves, and the rich even more. emonides had 300, Hipponicus 600, and Nicias 1,000 slaves in the mines alone. These facts prove the existence of an immense number of slaves."

It is stated by Timæus that Corinth once had 460,000 slaves, and Aristotle is authority for the assertion that the small island of Ægina had contained as many as 475,000. That the Corinthians really possessed a very large number of slaves is indicated by the fact that they were sarcastically called "chænix-measurers"—an appellation based on the common practice of measuring out grain to the slaves by the chænix, which contained a fraction less than one quart.

Among the Locrians and Phocians it is said slavery did not exist in early times, but at a later day Mnason, a Phocian, and a friend of Aristotle, is reported as having purchased a thousand slaves for his own

^{*} Public Economy of Athens, book i, chap. vii., p. 36.

His course, however, did not meet the approbation of his countrymen, who accused him of lavishing upon his slaves what would have

supported an equal number of free persons.

In Sparta the citizens were forbidden to practice any trade, and, indeed, the discipline imposed by the laws of Lycurgus would have left them little time for any other occupation had they been permitted to follow it. There were, however, several classes of free inhabitants who could carry on commerce or industry, but the agricultural labor in the country throughout Laconia, as well as the menial service in the households of the city of Sparta, was left to the Helots, whose ancestors were probably Achaian Greeks who occupied the Laconian territory previous to its conquest by the Spartans, by whom they were reduced to servitude.

The following sketch of this class is taken from Grote's History of

Greece:

The Helots of Laconia were coloni, or serfs, bound to the soil, who tilled it for the benefit of the Spartan proprietors certainly—probably of Periœki* proprietors also. They were the rustic population of the country, who dwelt not in towns, but either in small villages or in detached farms, both in the district immediately surrounding Sparta, and around the Perickic Laconian towns also. Of course, there were also Helots who lived in Sparta and other towns, and did the work of domestic slaves, but such was not the general character of the class. We cannot doubt that the Dorian conquest of Sparta found this class in the condition of villagers and detached rustics; but whether they were dependent upon pre-existing achean proprietors, or independent, like much of

were dependent upon pre-existing across in proprietors, or independent, like much of the Arcadian village population, is a question which we cannot answer.

The distinction between a town and a village population seems the main ground of the different treatment of Helots and Periœki in Laconia. A considerable proportion of the Helots were of genuine Dorian race, being the Dorian-Messenians, west of Mount Taygetus, subsequently conquered and aggregated to this class of dependent cultivators, who, as a class, must have begun to exist from the very first establishment of the invading Dorians in the district events.

of the invading Dorians in the district around Sparta.

The Helots lived in the rural villages as adscripti glebæ, cultivating their lands, and paying over their rent to the master at Sparta, but enjoying their homes, wives, families, and mutual neighborly feelings apart from the master's view. They were never sold out of the country, and probably never sold at all; belonging not so much to the master as to the state, which constantly called upon them for military service, and recompensed their bravery or activity with a grant of freedom. Meno, the Thessalian of Pharsalus, took out three hundred Penestee of his own to aid the Athenians against Amphicia. These Thessalian Penestæ were in many points analogous to the Helots, but no individual Spartan possessed the like power over the latter. The Helots were thus a part of the state, having their domestic and social sympathies developed, a certain power of acquiring property, and the consciousness of Grecian lineage and dialect—points of marked superiority over the foreigners who formed the slave populalation of Athens or Chios. They seem to have been no way inferior to any village population of Greece; while the Grecian observer sympathized with them more strongly than with the bought slaves of other states; not to mention that their homogeneous aspect, their numbers, and their employment in military service, rendered them more conspicuous to the eye.

The service in the Spartan house was all performed by members of the Helot class; for there seem to have been few, if any, other slaves in the country. The various anecdotes which are told respecting their treatment at Sparta, betoken less of cruelty than of ostentatious scorn, a sentiment which we are no way surprised to discover

among the citizens at the mess-table.

The well-known hatred and fear entertained by the Spartans towards their Helots, has probably colored Plutarch's description of the Krypteia, so as to exaggerate those unpunished murders which occasionally happened into a constant phenomenon with

Such is the statement, that Helots were compelled to appear in a state of drunkenaces in order to excite in the youths a sentiment of repugnance against intoxication.

[&]quot;Periœki" literally means "dwellers around," and appears to have been used to designate the free proprietors residing in the Laconian towns outside of the city of

t Kleomenes the Third offered manumission to every Helot who could pay down five Attic minæ; he was in great immediate want of money, and he raised by this means five hundred talents. Six thousand Helots must have been in a condition to find five minæ each, which was a very considerable sum.

express design. A similiar deduction is to be made from the statement of Myron of Priene, who alleged that they were beaten every year without any special fault, in order to put them in mind of their slavery; and that those Helots whose superior beauty or stature placed them above the visible stamp of their condition, were put to death; while such masters as neglected to keep down the spirit of their vigorous Helots were punished.

The manumitted Helots did not pass into the class of Periœki—for this purpose a special grant of the freedom of some Periœkic township would probably be required—but constituted a class apart, known at the time of the Peloponnesian war by the name of Neodamôdes. Being persons who had earned their liberty by signal bravery, they were, of course, regarded by the ephors with peculiar apprehension, and, if possible, employed on foreign service, or planted on some foreign soil as settlers. In what manner these freedmen employed themselves we find no distinct information; but we can hardly doubt that they quitted the Helot village and field, together with the rural costume (the leather cap and sheepskin) which the Helot commonly wore, and the change of which exposed him to suspicion if not punishment, from his jealous masters. Probably they, as well as the disfranchised Spartan citizens, (called Hypomeiones, or inferiors,) became congregated at Sparta, and found employment either in various trades or in the service of the government.

In making the statement that Helots were the property of the state, and were never sold out of the country, Grote is at variance with some other authors, who, on this point at least, appear to have been equally well informed. St. John, in his Manners and Customs of Ancient Greece, vol. iii, p. 39, says:

They [meaning the Helots] were the property of individuals, but the state reserved to itself the right of enfranchising them and preventing their emancipation, lest persons should be found who, like Marcus Porcius, Cato, and the Dutch at the Cape, would sell or give them their liberty when too old to labor. But to sell them out of the country, says Mr. Miller, "was not in the power even of the state." It is true there was an ancient law prohibiting the exportation of the Helots, but the same authority which enacted that law could have abrogated it. Had Sparta then chosen to convert her Helots into an article of traffic, who or what was to prevent her? Since she arrogated to herself the right of beating, maiming, and putting them to death, though completely innocent, is it to be supposed that, had it suited her policy, she would have heaitated to sell them? And after all, are we quite certain that these unhappy people were not frequently sold into foreign lands? On the contrary, we find that a regular trade was carried on in female Helots, who were exported into all the neighboring countries for nurses. Thus it appears that the state both had and exercised the power to convert its serfs into merchandise.

That the males also were not exported like cattle, than which they were far worse treated, was owing simply to the calculation that it would be more profitable to retain them; for as the Spartans possessed estates which personally they never cultivated, the Helots, who equally belonged to them, were stationed throughout the country upon those estates, which it was their business to till for the owners. To live it was of course necessary that they should eat, and therefore a portion of the produce was abandoned to them—according to Tyrtæos, the half, a division which must have borne very hard upon them, since their numbers were five times greater than those of the Spartans.

The following is a portion of Plutarch's passage in relation to the Crypteia, to which Mr. Grote alludes with an appearance of incredulity: According to this ordinance the rulers, selecting from among the youths those most distinguished for ability, sent them forth armed with daggers, and furnished with the necessary provisions to scour the country, separating and concealing themselves in unfrequented places by day, but issuing out at night and slaughtering all such of the Helots as they found abroad. Sometimes, indeed, they fell upon them while engaged in their rural labors in the fields, and there cut off the best and bravest of the race. In "The Laws" of Plato a Spartan is reported as saying, "There is also among us what is called the Crypteia, the pain of undergoing which is scarcely credible. It consists of going barefoot in storms, in enduring the privations of the camp, performing menial offices without a servant, and wandering night and day through the whole country." The omission to mention here the slaughter of Helots as the object

of these wanderings and their attendant privations, affords no reason to doubt the accuracy of Plutarch's statement, since a Spartan, speaking on this subject, would naturally look at it from a Spartan stand-point. and would be very likely to keep the more odious features of the Crypteia in the background. The extreme jealousy, and even barbarity, of the Spartans toward the Helots is attested by a number of the Greek writers, including Plato, Isocrates, and Aristotle, as well as Plutarch. Myron of Priene, in a work preserved by Atheneus, says: "The Helots perform for the Spartans every ignominious service. They are compelled to wear a cap of dog-skin, to bear a covering of sheepskin, and are severely beaten every year without having committed any fault, in order that they may never forget they are slaves. In addition to this, those among them who either by their stature or their beauty raise themselves above the condition of a slave are condemned to death, and the masters who do not destroy the most manly of them are liable to punishment." Grote himself, while throwing doubt upon Plutarch's account of the Crypteia, gives, without questioning its accuracy, the account of the infamous massacre which occurred in the eighth year of the Peloponnesian war, when upward of two thousand of these bondmen fell victims to the same jealous policy to which the Crypteia is attributed. In order to select from the ranks of the Helots those whose bravery might render them most dangerous to the state, a proclamation was issued offering emancipation to such as had most distinguished themselves in battle, and calling upon those who thought themselves entitled to it to come forward and claim the promised boon. Upward of two thousand presented themselves, were crowned with garlands, and escorted to the temples as if to complete the ceremony which was to make them free; but they never emerged, nor has the fate which overtook them ever been revealed.

Among the Athenians the treatment of slaves appears to have been comparatively humane. There was a law under which a slave could indict his master for assault and battery. Demosthenes has preserved a law which empowered any Athenian not laboring under legal disability to denounce to the Thesmothetæ the person who offered violence to man, woman, or child, whether slave or free; and there are numerous examples of men who suffered death for crimes against bondmen. Athenian slaves, moreover, enjoyed the privilege of purchasing their own freedom, whenever they could save enough out of the peculium, allowed them by law, to offer their owners an equivalent for their services. Yet even in Attica the slaves were at best subjected to many petty tyrannies and humiliations. Thus they were not allowed to wear long hair, or a garment with two sleeves; to drink wine except at the festival of Pithægia; to anoint themselves, as in the gymnasia, or to be present at certain religious ceremonies in which freemen could par-The Athenian slaves were also liable to corporal punishment, sometimes in the form of whipping at the cart tail by order of a magistrate, but often also at the discretion of their owners. The slaves in the mines are said to have worked in fetters, but this may have been a temporary punishment consequent upon a revolt. The right of asylum n the temples of Theseus and the Eumenides was one of the defenses which the Athenian slave enjoyed as against the tyranny of a cruel This right, however, is supposed to have extended only from the time of the slave's flight until the next new moon, when the slave auction was held and the refugee had the chance of being purchased by a more humane master.

In regard to the price of slaves, there is a passage in the Memorabilia

of Xenephon, from which it appears that some were hardly worth half a mina, (\$9.87;) others would bring as much as 2 minas, while others sold for 5 or 10 minas; and Nicias, the son of Niceratus, is said to have paid a talent (\$1,184.62\frac{1}{2}\) in gold) for an overseer of the mines. The slaves employed as laborers in the mines and those who worked in the mills had the lowest value, ranging from a mina to a mina and a half, or approximately in our money from \$20 to \$30. The price of ordinary house slaves was but little higher. Demosthenes mentions a valuation of two such slaves at \$2\frac{1}{2}\) minas each as being too high, and in one place alludes to the sale of a slave of this kind for 2 minas. The father of this orator had thirty-two or thirty-three iron-workers, or sword-cutlers, the poorest of whom were worth over 3 minas, and the best from 5 to 6 minas. He had also twenty chair-makers, whose aggregate value was 40 minas, or an average of 2 minas each.

The difference of value between slaves who could perform only common labor and those who were skilled in some trade, probably corresponded in the main with the difference between the amounts which these classes respectively could earn for their owners. A slave in the mines yielded a profit of only one obolus (about 3 cents) a day: a workman in leather yielded 2 oboli, and a foreman of a workshop, 3 oboli per The thirty-two or thirty-three iron-workers or sword-cutters of Demosthenes' father were worth an aggregate sum of 190 minas, and annually yielded a net profit of 30 minas, or 1518 per cent. on their value; while the twenty chair-makers, worth 40 minas, are said to have yielded a net profit of twelve minas, or 30 per cent. per annum. It is probable, however, that this disparity was exceptionally large, and was due to temporary causes affecting the relative activity of the two trades in question. Speaking generally, the profit on the labor of a slave must have reached a high percentage on his value, because the owner would expect to be compensated for his capital at the customary high rates of interest, and moreover would require indemnity for the danger of loss by the death, decrepitude, or superannuation of the slave. or of his escape from servitude. Of this last there was especial risk in time of war, particularly in the case of slaves that were with the armies: and this led to the institution of an insurance system first established by a Macedonian grandee named Antigenes, who, for a yearly contribution of 8 drachmas, undertook to guarantee to the owner the price of any slave who was in the army, in case he should escape.

There were at Athens two classes of slaves, those belonging to the state and those of private individuals. The former were employed as vergers, messengers, apparitors, scribes, clerks of public works, inferior servants of the gods, and in other services considered unworthy of freemen. Most of the temples of Greece, like the ecclesiastical establishments of Europe in the early part of the Middle Ages, possessed a great number of slaves or serfs, who cultivated the sacred domains, performed various humbler offices of religion, and generally executed the bidding of the priests. Among the Athenians, the slaves of the republic, who were generally captives taken in war, received a careful education, and were sometimes intrusted with important duties. of their number were selected the secretaries who in time of war accompanied the generals and treasurers of the army, and made exact minutes of their expenditure, in order that when on their return these officers should come to render an account of their proceedings, their books might be compared with those of the secretaries.

The vocabulary of servile relations among the Greeks was very copious. There was a special name for a slave bought with money, one for a male

slave born in the house, and another for a female; one for a slave born of a slave, and another for a slave born free. Besides these there were many names denoting the particular employment to which a slave was

assigned.

When a newly-purchased slave was first brought into the house he was placed before the hearth, where his future master, mistress, and fellow-servants poured baskets of ripe fruit, dates, figs, filberts, walnuts, &c., upon his head to intimate that he was come into the abode of plenty. He then joined with his fellow-slaves in feasting on the bounties thus showered upon him, and the occasion was converted into a

general merry-making.

The food of slaves, as might be expected, was usually of an inferior quality. Thus the dates grown in Greece, which ripened but imperfectly, were appropriated to their use, and if wine was given them, it was a kind made of the husks of grapes, which after they had been pressed were laid to soak in water and then pressed again. The indignities to which slaves were sometimes subjected is indicated by the practice of some parsimonious masters, who compelled them, while employed at the kneading-trough, to wear a broad collar like a wheel, which prevented them from eating the dough by rendering it impossible for them to bring their hands to their mouths.

Among the employments of female slaves were included the turning of the mills, carrying water, and sometimes the still more laborious work of cutting wood, besides the ordinary domestic occupations. A male slave usually attended his master upon a journey to carry his baggage, both traveling on foot. Some masters went accompanied by two such slaves.

but this was considered a mark of luxurious habits.

There are some instances of communities, by express stipulation, entering formally into a state of slavery, but with the reservation of certain rights. Thus the Maryandinians submitted to the citizens of Heraclea, to be their perpetual serfs, stipulating only that they should always be furnished with the necessaries of life, and never be sold out of the country. The penestæ of the Thessalians also appear to have assumed their servile status by a formal compact which reserved to them important privileges, among which was that of owning property. Many of them attained considerable wealth, and, according to Euripides, they

were sometimes of very ancient families.

In Crete the serfs or slaves were divided into several classes. Those of the cities were called Chrysonetæ, or "bought with gold;" those of the country were called Aphamiotæ, from their being bound to the Aphamiæ, or estates of the landed proprietors. The latter are supposed to have been the descendants of the aboriginal inhabitants of the island, whom the Dorian invaders had reduced to servitude, and were sometimes called Clarotæ, either from the fact that they had been divided among the conquerors by lot, or else from being located on the lots of the citizens, which were called Claroi. The Mnoi or Mnoa were bondsmen belonging to the state, and cultivated the public lands. They were compelled to furnish the body of the citizens a certain sum of money, as well as a portion of their flocks and herds and agricultural produce. They were prohibited from carrying arms, and excluded from the gymnasia.

In the Cretan city of Cydonia, during certain festivals of Hermes, the slaves were left masters of the place, and had the right to chastise with whips any free citizen who intruded himself among them. In other parts of Crete customs prevailed similar to those of the Roman saturnalia, the masters waiting upon the slaves as domestics, while the

latter caroused and took their ease in the enjoyment of the Hermæan festival. On the whole, it seems probable that the treatment of slaves

in Crete was milder than in any other Doric state.

The serfs of the Syracusans were called Killicyrii, and were so numerous that the expression "more in number than the Killicyrii" passed into a proverb. They appear to have lived in the country, cultivating the land like the Cretan Mnoa, until at last their numbers inspired them with courage, when they assaulted and drove out their masters, retaining possession of Syracuse.

The Katanocophori were kept in bondage by the people of Sicyon, who compelled them to assume a mean and squalid appearance, and to wear skeepskin cloaks, in order that they might be deterred from entering the city by the ridicule of the rabble, to which this uncouth cover-

ing would expose them.

The serfs of the Arcadians were called Prospelatæ, and are said to have numbered about three hundred thousand. Their treatment appears to have been more lenient than that of persons of the same class in many other parts of Greece, since they are found at public festivals sitting at table with their masters, eating of the same food and drinking from the

same cup.

Speaking in general terms, the life of a slave in Greece would appear to have formed no exception to the general experience of mankind as to the condition of a servile class. Sir William Gell's account of the residence of a wealthy Greek, "surrounded by the stable and ranges of low buildings, occupied by the servants and cattle," recalls to mind the rows or clusters of negro shanties near the spacious mansions of the wealthy southern planter; and the practice of measuring out to the slaves a daily or weekly allowance of food, which was followed upon many southern plantations, had its counterpart among the Greeks, whose white slaves were probably less liberally fed than the colored slaves of According to Beeck, their diet consisted almost wholly of grain, (chiefly barley,) of which the usual allowance was a chemix, or a little less than one quart per diem. Aristophanes says that the male domestics of a Greek household had one common sleeping apartment, called the koiton, and the beds of servants generally consisted of mats made of rushes, broom, and the down of reeds. As in our own Southern States, so in Greece, slaves occasionally lived apart from their masters, working on their own account, and paying to their master a portion of their earnings, and sometimes they were able to save enough to purchase their freedom. The aggregate number of freedmen in Greece was probably much greater in proportion to the population than in the South, where the barrier of race distinction was added to the ordinary obstacles to the elevation of the subject class.

One of the most remarkable events in the history of the working classes of Greece is the memorable measure of Solon, known as the Seisachtheia. When the great Athenian lawgiver came to the archonship in the year 594 B. C., he found the majority of the rural population of Attica weighed down with debt and despondency. The rich were proprietors of the greater part of the soil, which the Thetes cultivated as dependent tenants, paying the proprietors a stipulated part of the produce. In these payments they had fallen greatly in arrears, and thus, as well as through loans of money, had sunk so deep in debt that it was not possible for them to extricate themselves. The law gave the creditor power over the body of the debtor, as well as those of his minor sons and daughters, and thus large numbers of the Thetes were falling from freedom into slavery. At the same time a great number of the smaller

properties of Attica were heavily mortgaged, and marked by stone pillars. inscribed with the name of the lender and the amount of the loan. These mortgages were in many instances foreclosed, and not only were the mortgaged lands taken from their proprietors, but the latter themselves, together with their families, were frequently reduced to slavery. On some this unhappy lot had fallen through the unjust decisions of corrupt judges, and the conduct of the rich in all their dealings with this class of people is described as having been thoroughly unprincipled and rapacious. To such a pitch had this evil arisen just before Solon became archon, that the law could no longer be enforced. It was under such circumstances that the celebrated lawgiver resorted to the "The relief which it afforded." says Grote. measure above named. "was complete and immediate. It canceled at once all those contracts in which the debtor had borrowed on the security of either his person or of his land: it forbade all future loans or contracts in which the person of the debtor was pledged as security; it deprived the creditor in future of all power to imprison or enslave or extort work from his debtor, and confined him to an effective judgment at law authorizing the seizure of the property of the latter; it swept off all the numerous marked pillars from the landed properties in Attica, and left the land free from all past claims: it liberated and restored to their full rights all those debtors who were actually in slavery under previous legal adjudication, and it even provided the means—we do not know how—of repurchasing in foreign lands, and bringing back to a renewed life of liberty in Attica. many insolvents who had been sold for exportation. And while Solon forbade every Athenian to pledge or sell his own person into slavery, he took a step further in the same direction, by forbidding him to pledge or sell his son, his daughter, or an unmarried sister under his tutelageexcepting only the case in which either of the latter might be detected in unchastity."

One of the most beneficent provisions of the above law was that which forbade all future loans or contracts in which the person of the debtor was pledged as security; but although this remained in force in Attica, the lending of money upon the body of the debtor continued to be practiced in other Grecian states; while even the pledging of agricul-

tural implements was forbidden.

An interesting subject to treat in this connection would be the provision made for the poor in the Grecian states. It will be sufficient, however, to say that in Athens, at least, the habit of depending on the state for assistance appears to have been one of the first decided symptoms of the decay of the commonwealth; while there, as well as elsewhere, and particularly in Sparta, the concentration of wealth in few hands, and a great increase in the number of the dependent poor, were quickly followed by a decline in the old manly qualities of the people, and diminished at once their ability and their disposition to defend their civil liberty and their national independence.

LABOR IN ROME.

What has been said as to the condition of the industrial arts in Greece will apply in the main to their condition in Italy during the history of ancient Bome. From the rude state in which they are found in the early days of the city, they progressed in the course of centuries to shigh development; and if the Romans themselves possessed in a very inferior degree the artistic faculty for which the Greeks were so distin-

guished, they enjoyed in industry and art, no less than in philosophy and letters, the assistance of Hellenic genius.

It is impossible to treat of labor and the condition of the workingclasses among the Romans, without referring to the political status of the plebeians, the history of whose struggles for a humane law of debtor and creditor, for a fair division of the public lands, and for the prerogatives of citizenship, is virtually the history of the early

struggles of the working-people of Rome for the rights of men.

The members of this class probably comprised the descendants of conquered tribes originally inhabiting the district in which Rome was founded, as well as those in the surrounding region, who at a somewhat later date voluntarily placed themselves under the powerful protection of that city; and in early times, particularly under the kings, they were doubtless subjected to severe oppression. They were admitted to no share in the government, or in the social and religious rights which belonged to the privileged order; but, from the earliest times of which we have any account, they were distinguished from the slaves of a Roman household by the possession of personal freedom, the right to hold property, and the liberty (which was denied to the aristocratic order) to exercise handicraft trades for their own benefit. Their immunities, however, were at first secured to them, not by law, but by the protection of the patricians, toward whom they occupied, individually, the position of Thus every plebeian was originally the client or dependent of some patrician; but gradually they acquired recognized civic rights, and the status of "client" was transferred to subjects of more recent acquisition, to whom no rights of citizenship had as yet been accorded.

The sixth of the kings, Servius Tullius, is said to have divided the lands which he had won from the Veians and Etruscans among the plebeians, whom he also sought to elevate politically by the creation of a new general assembly—that of the centuries, in which both classes should be comprehended. The plebeians, however, do not appear to have acquired any material increase of political power from this measure. In the early years of the republic the patricians generally figure as men of family and civic honors, residing in the city, but holding domains in the territory belonging to the state, which at this period appears to have been monopolized by the patrician order. The plebeians at the same time appear to have been small farmers and tradesmen, mechanics, &c., while they also, as in earlier times, contributed their full quota to the armies of the state. Their poverty often reduced them to the necessity of borrowing from their patrician superiors, whose incomes were in many cases largely derived from usury. The creditor had the power to enslave, imprison, scourge, starve, or even take the life of the debtor who failed to meet his obligations; and if there were several creditors of one person, they could, if they chose, divide his body among them. Instances of extreme cruelty, such as beating, imprisonment in loathsome dungeons, and slow starvation, were not infrequent, while many unfortunate debtors were sold into slavery or reduced to servitude under their creditors. The harshness of the law, and of the manner in which it was enforced, seemed all the more outrageous in view of the fact that the inability of the debtor to meet his engagements often arose from his having to neglect his own affairs while performing military service for the state in wars which the patricians had provoked. It was a case of this kind which formed the immediate occasion for the secession of the plebeians to the Mons Sacer, sixteen years after the expulsion of the kings; that is, A. U. C. 260. A veteran who had served his country with honor and lost his property in the wars, having been scourged by

his creditor, exhibited his gory back to the populace, whose indignation first found vent in the summary release of those who were enslaved for debt, and then in the manner above indicated. At the point mentioned, which was distant two miles from Rome, at the confluence of the Tiber and the Anio, the plebeians, who had chosen themselves generals, and marched out under arms, threatened to settle and found a new city. The patricians were at first disposed to set them at defiance, but in the end listened to wiser counsels, and decided to make terms with them rather than allow the commonwealth to be split asunder. It is believed that on this occasion was founded the Tribunate of the Plebs, the people acquiring the right of nominating two tribunes annually, who were to have a veto upon the decrees of the senate and to protect the personal liberty of the commons, for which purpose they were to keep their houses open day and night to receive every application for assistance.

According to Livy and Cicero, this secession did not result in a remission of debts or in a change of the law of insolvency; yet it is noticeable that the relation of debtor and creditor no longer forms the chief subject of contention between the two orders, from which it seems probable that some amelioration in the condition of the former class was secured. Nearly half a century later a law of the Twelve Tables provided that the debtor should be allowed thirty days within which he might, through the help of his friends, or the pity of the populace. acquire the means of meeting his obligations. At the end of this period. if he had not succeeded in obtaining the required amount, he was delivered to the creditor, who put him in chains and brought him before the prætor on three consecutive market days, the amount of his debt being published, in the hope that some rich spectator would take pity on him and discharge his debt. In the absence of such relief he was sold into slavery, or his head might be exacted as the forfeit of his poverty. Gradually, however, the extreme severity of the law was relaxed, and in the year of the city 424 it was decreed that in future the person of no Roman citizen should be liable to slavery, but that his property alone should be subject to seizure. The debtor might, however, be committed to prison, and to avert this fate many voluntarily became the slaves of their creditors, though, probably, with certain reserved rights obtained by special stipulation.

The distribution of land, which in all places and times has had the most intimate relation to the well-being of the working classes, was long the subject of flerce contention between the patricians and plebeians at Rome; and the members of the former class did not scruple to resort to the most extreme measures in defense of their monopoly. As the republic extended her dominions a portion of the territory of each conquered tribe was colonized by Roman citizens, who were thus bound by their interests, as well as inclined by sentiment, to defend the new acquisition. Considering how circumscribed was the original territory of Rome, this mode of disposing of her surplus population must have contributed much to the industrial prosperity of her people, at the same time that it formed a most important element in the polity by which she consolidated her growing power. The following account of the manner in which the Romans disposed of the lands acquired from the conquered is taken from Fosbroke's "Treatise on the Arts, Manufactures, Manners,

and Institutions of the Greeks and Romans:"

These lands were not gratuitous; if the colonist had not sufficient money to purchase the portion which fell to him he farmed it for the benefit of the commonwealth, or of some superior tenant. But this regulation regarded the cultivated lands; those which were waste, or which lay on an exposed frontier, were generally gratuitously



conferred: yet like the rest they were subject to the burdens of the state: thus they annually yielded one-fifth of the produce of the trees, one-tenth of the grain, and a certain tax for cattle. The quantity of this public land in each colony varied accordcertain tax for cattle. The quantity of this public land in each colony varied according to the conditions on which the colony was originally secured. If the natives had voluntarily submitted, two-thirds of the territory were generally left to them, one-third only being divided among the victors. In no case, however, do the people appear to have possessed more than seven jugera each; where the territory was much circumscribed, only two; the surplus remained at the disposal of the state, and was either farmed for its benefit, or, if more defenders were necessary, it was assigned to new settlers. In general, however, there was always a considerable portion unassigned. For what follows, the reader will be prepared. This surplus was soon engrossed by the patricians, who farmed the revenues arising from it, viz, who offered so much for the produce of the soil for fire years the period for which the public so much for the produce of the soil for five years, the period for which the public lands were invariably let; at the end of the five, they had only to renew the contract. If to this we add that by judicial forfeiture, in default of issue, and through other causes, the portions of many among the resident coloni would devolve to the state, we shall not be surprised that the territory which the patricians took such care to engross was greatly augmented. In the same degree we shall be prepared to expect the diminution of the allotments originally made to the coloni. As the members of each family multiplied, as the children were admitted to co-inheritance, the portion originally held by each (it was two jugera in the immediate vicinity of Rome, and seven in the more distant colonies) would be split until the multiplied portions would be inadequate to the support, not merely of a family, but of an individual. We cannot, therefore, wonder at the complaints which, from the third century after the foundation of Rome, were so loudly uttered, that the patricians held most of the public land, while the plebeians were generally reduced to utter destitution. Nor was this the worst. The patricians, as the heads of government, showed a shameful partiality the worst. The patricians, as the heads of government, showed a shameful partiality to their own order by exempting their lands from the burden of the one-tenth to which they were liable, while those of the plebeians remained subject to it. "Among the agri (public lands) there were many distinctions corresponding to their nature and uses. The ager campascuss was the common or pasture land to which we have alluded; the ager decumanss was the titheable land, that is, the public land subject to the annual tenth of produce required by the state. All Sicily was in this predicament. "Omnis ager Sicilia decumanus est," says Cicero. The ager effatus was the place where the Augurs unfolded the fates. The ager occupatorius, which was vacant, whether in virtue of default by inheritance or by revocation, or by judicial forfeiture, might be occupied by any one who farmed it from the state, or to whom the state conceded it. In fact the highest bidder was generally preferred at the end of a lustrum, and would indeed always have been preferred had not the more powerful nobles combined to intimidate other bidders, and, consequently, to obtain it on their own terms. The ager vestigalis was the land which paid money-rent, on the condition of receiving the produce in kind; the tenth of the corn, the fifth of the orchards, trees, cattle, wool, &c. Any one who offered at a public auction the highest price trees, cattle, wool, &c. Any one who offered at a public auction the highest price during five consecutive years for the produce of a district comprised in the limits of the agrarian law, was, under ordinary circumstances, the successful bidder. He paid in money for the produce yielded by the land, and for the privilege of disposing of it at pleasure; and he always gave sureties for the punctual fulfillment of his engage-

In the year of the city 269, the first agrarian law was proposed and carried by Spurius Cassius, but its execution was thwarted by the patricians, who ultimately wreaked their vengeance on its author by an accusation that during his consulship he had made too favorable terms with the national enemies, and had sought to make himself tyrant of his native city, upon which charges he was declared guilty, scourged, and beheaded. The tribune Genucius (A. U. C. 286) made an effort to secure the same end-a more equitable distribution of the public landsand presented an impeachment against the consuls for having frustrated the provisions of the law; but he, too, appears to have fallen a victim to patrician malice, being suddenly found dead in his bed. In the account which Livy gives of the agrarian agitation of this period, he represents the tribunes as proposing a series of laws, all of which were successfully resisted by the patricians, whereas Dionysius of Halicarnassus states that during the consulship of Spurius Cassius the senate passed a general law for the division of the public lands, but that the



successive consuls would never carry it into effect. He represents that a solemn compact between the senate and the plebeians was broken, and that the efforts of the tribunes were exclusively directed toward procuring the execution of the existing law. It is evident, however, that the plebeians continued to gain strength, and in the year of the city 377, (B. C. 377,) the tribunes, Licinius and Sextius, were able to carry an agrarian law by which it was provided that no citizen should hold (or farm the revenues of) more than 500 jugera (about 320 acres) of the public lands. From those who held more than this quantity the ædiles were to take the surplus and divide it among the plebeians at the rate of seven jugera to each family. The same law limited the number of slaves who might be employed on the lands so divided, and enjoined on the holders of land the employment of Italians and freemen. It also enacted that no citizen should turn into the common pasture more than one hundred head of cattle, or five hundred of sheep, &c., each to be subject to a certain tax payable to the public treasury.

It was during the same year that the plebeians achieved the great charter of their liberties in the decree that one of the consuls should always be a member of their order; but it was not until the year 388 that a plebeian consul was formally appointed, Sextius himself being the first to hold the office. The triumph of the plebeians became still more complete in the year 415, when the plebeian dictator, Publilius Philo, carried enactments making the decrees of the popular assemblies (comitia of the tribes) obligatory on the whole people,* permitting both of the consuls as well as the prætors to be plebeians, and requiring that

the censors should be chosen, one from each class.

From this time the two orders were substantially merged into one; but as the dominion of the republic was extended over adjacent states, the newly-conquered Italians fell into a position somewhat analogous to that which the plebeians had formerly occupied, though distinguished from the latter by very marked differences. Indeed the military necessities of the state dictated a policy calculated to consolidate the inhabitants of the peninsula into one nation, and inclined the Romans to

advance them gradually to a participation in civic rights.

The three centuries intervening between the secession of the Plebs to the Mons Sacer, (A. U. 260,) and the entrance of the legions into Asia eleven years after the close of the second Punic war, embrace the finest portions of Roman history, when considered with reference to the virtues of the people. During this period there were, indeed, instances of luxury and extravagance, but labor was held in honor, and poverty was often dignified with the highest stations. "If, on the one hand," says Durny, (Histoire des Romains.) "a Rufinius must be degraded from the senate, (B. C. 275,) notwithstanding his two consulships, a dictatorship, and a triumph, for possessing ten pounds of silver plate when he was allowed no more than eight ounces; if the consul Posthumius compelled 2,000 legionaries to reap his corn, or to clean his woods; Attilius Serranus, on the other, received the consular purple behind his plow; Regulus, though twice consul, possessed no more than one little field in the barren district of Pupinia; and Curius, like Fabricius and Æmilius Papus, prepared his simple meal with his own hands, in wooden vessels. The same Curius refused the gold of the Samnites; Fabricius that of Pyrrhus; and Cineas, (the ambassador of the latter,) introduced in the

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It is held by some authorities that these decrees or plebiscita did not acquire the full force of laws until the adoption of the Lex Hortensia, in the year 466, or B. C. 288; and it is at least evident that this measure either gave to the plebiscita increased weight, or enlarged the number of objects with reference to which they might be adopted.

senate, imagined that he saw before him an assembly of kings. * There was union because there was equality; because an aristocracy of blood was no longer recognized, nor was more honor paid to that of fortune." Cincinnatus, once consul and twice called to the dictatorship. after delivering his country from her enemies, retired to his little tract of land, (only four jugera in extent,) upon which he maintained himself by the labor of his own hands. Fabricius, consul and victorious general, cultivated his one little field without the assistance of slaves: and Manius Curius, the conqueror of Pyrrhus, refused the share of booty and the fifty juggra of land offered by the people in gratitude for his great services, deeming such liberality excessive. He thought it a reproach to a senator, an ex-consul, or even a victorious general to whom a public triumph had been accorded to possess more than fifty jugera of land. and regarded as dangerous to the state that citizen for whom even seven jugera would not suffice. Accordingly the latter quantity was all he would himself accept, this being the amount of land then assigned to each plebeian family. In the year of the city 496, Regulus, then commanding the army in Africa, wrote to the senate, asking for his recall, on the ground that the manager of his seven ingera at Pupinia was dead: that the hired man had run away, carrying the farming-implements with him, and that unless his farm was cultivated he would be unable to support his wife and children. The senate ordered his land to be tilled. and his farming implements to be replaced at the expense of the state. which also assumed the responsibility of providing for his family, leaving him in Africa to conquer a peace with Carthage. "In those happy times," says Pliny, "the earth, exulting to see herself cultivated by the hands of triumphant victors, seemed to make new efforts, and to produce her fruits in greater abundance."

From such instances as have just been given, coupled with the minute division of the soil which is known to have prevailed during the period under consideration, it may be inferred that although there were slaves and hired laborers among the Romans at that time, the labor of the country (especially in agriculture) was mainly performed by free citizens working on their own account. Their labor may have been severe and their mode of living far from luxurious, but in their enjoyment of personal independence the men among whom the conquering legions of Rome were recruited must have occupied a position vastly superior to that of the proletariat of modern times. the year of the city 575, the cultivation of the soil was almost exclusively performed by proprietors and free laborers. This is positively stated by Cato the elder, who in the same connection, says: "Our fathers, when they wished to designate a good citizen, were accustomed to refer to him as a good colonist (one settled on the public lands) and a good farmer; for these are the laborers who furnish the bravest and most robust soldiers. The profit which is derived from the cultivation of the earth is the most honorable, the most durable, and the least calculated to give cause for censure or excite envy." Cato himself is represented as having worked in the fields with his men, with whom he also sat at table, eating of the same food and drinking of the same

But in the later years of his life (which terminated A. U. 605) the simple habits of Cato were a protest against the incoming tide of luxury and corruption rather than an indication of the manners of the period. The severe and protracted struggle with Carthage, (the second Punic war,) which closed A. U. 553, was quickly followed by the wars with Philip, Artiochus, and Perseus. Greece, Asia Minor, and Syria were

speedily brought under the sway of Rome, and poured their wealth into her lap. The small homesteads whose proprietors had fallen on distant fields were rapidly merged into larger properties and monopolized by the moneyed aristocracy of Rome, who replaced the free cultivators of former times with slaves purchased in foreign markets, or brought in by victorious commanders as a part of the spoils of war. Throughout extensive districts, particularly in Southern Italy, this substitution was all but complete; while in other sections of the country the competition of the great landholders and their hordes of servile laborers drove thousands of small proprietors from an occupation which they no longer found profitable to seek a subsistence by "petty merchandise and handicrafts, by the sportula,* or by the distributions, wholly or in part gratuitons, of bread, wine, and oil, made regularly by the state, and enhanced occasionally by magistrates, or candidates for the magistracy."

It was under such circumstances that Tiberius Gracchus, traversing the plains of Etruria, and observing with dismay the decline of agriculture, the substitution of pasture for arable land, and the frequent abandonment of fields and farms, conceived the idea of obtaining the passage of a new agrarian law. Elected tribune in the year of the city 621, he succeeded in this design, but was killed, together with three hundred of his adherents, in the tumults precipitated by the effort to carry the law into execution. His younger brother, Caius, was for a time the successful leader of the popular party, and succeeded in obtaining important reformatory legislation; but he, too, fell a victim to the vengeance of the Roman plutocracy, and in the course of fifteen years the

measures of the Gracchi were formally repealed.

That the lapse of the half century ending about this time witnessed a very great change in the industrial organization and social condition of the Roman people admits of no doubt. The splendid military organization of the republic still remained, but it was destined soon to become the master rather than the servant of the people. Within a century and a half from the entrance of the legions into Asia, Rome received her first emperor, and thenceforward the ascendancy of the military over the civil power became only the more firmly established as time wore More than once in the course of succeeding centuries the senate, which in the eyes of the embassador of Pyrrhus had seemed an assembly of kings, meekly accepted the ruler selected by the prætorian cohorts, while at a later day armies recruited from distant provinces, and serving perhaps on the remotest frontiers of the empire, competed for the honor of dictating to the "mistress of the world" the wearer of her imperial purple. Under Augustus and Tiberius the empire was indeed great, prosperous, and in the main well governed. After a long eclipse its glory was restored under Vespasian and Titus, to be again obscured

the przetorians were a body of troops instituted by Augustus to protect his person, and called by that name in imitation of the pratoria cohors, or select troop, which attended the person of the prator or general of the Roman army. Their original number was nine or ten thousand, which was subsequently increased to sixteen thousand. Their favor was courted even by the most powerful of the emperors, many of whom were their own creatures, and liable to be deposed or put to death at their pleasure.

This was a gift of victuals made daily, usually in the morning, by the rich to a certain number of dependents. In one of the satires of Juvenal may be found a lively description of a great man's vestibule crowded with dependents, each attended by a slave bearing a portable kitchen to receive the viands and keep them hot while they were carried home. If the sketches of the satirist are not too highly colored, we must conclude that in his time great numbers of the lower classes derived their whole subsistence from this source, while even the high-born did not scruple to increase their income by taking advantage of the ostentatious profusion of the rich and vain.—(Anther's Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities.)

1 The prætorians were a body of troops instituted by Augustus to protect his person,

under Domitian, shine out anew under Nerva, and remain undimmed throughout the long and illustrious reigns of Trajan, Hadrian, Antoninus, and Aurelius. But the ancient freedom of the people existed no longer, and the character of the government depended mainly on the personal qualities of the sovereign.

SLAVERY IN ROME.

That this great change in the political condition of the Roman people was largely promoted by the increase of slavery and the concentration of wealth there is no room for doubt. It is probable, however, that the number of slaves was never so large as the language of a majority of writers on Roman history would lead one to infer. In the earlier centuries of the republic the number was comparatively small, as has already been indicated. It is estimated by Dureau de la Malle, in his "Political Economy of the Romans," that in the year of the city 529 the free population of that portion of Italy corresponding to the duchies of Modena and Lucca, the grand duchy of Tuscany, the States of the Church, and the late kingdom of Naples, (exclusive of Sicily,) was to the slaves, freemen, and percerini* combined as 26 is to 23. Varro, writing fully a century later, and after the number of slaves had been largely increased. states that "all the lands are cultivated by freemen, or slaves, or a mixture of these two classes. The freemen cultivate their lands either with their own labor or that of their children, (as is the case with most of the small proprietors,) or by the employment of hired men and daylaborers during the busy seasons, such as having, harvest, and the vintage, or by using the labor of operarii, (persons who sold their services for a stipulated time in payment of debt.) • I say of all the lands in • I say of all the lands in general," continues Varro, "that it is more profitable to cultivate the unhealthy districts with paid workmen than with slaves, and that even in healthy localities the heavier labors of the country, such as the harvest, the gathering of fruits, and the vintage should be committed to wage-laborers." A law of Julius Cæsar required stock-raisers to employ free inhabitants of the country to the number of one-third of their shepherds and herdsmen, the object being to arrest the decline of the free population, which was probably more rapid and more noticeable in the grazing districts than in other portions of the country. It has already been said that the substitution of slaves for free laborers and small proprietors was at first most extensive in the southern part of the peuinsula; and it appears from the testimony of the younger Pliny that in cisalpine Gaul, at least in that portion adjacent to Lake Como, slavelabor was not commonly employed, even in the time of Trajan. Indeed, the statement of Pliny is that the use of slaves in agriculture was absolutely unknown in that part of the country. In the towns and cities they were largely employed by capitalists in carrying on trades and manufactures, one citizen of Rome having had as many as five hundred employed in the various trades connected with the erection of buildings. The domestic service in Roman households, as well as in those of the other cities of the peninsula, was performed almost exclusively by persons of this class, from the ancilla or personal attendants of a wealthy mistress to those engaged in the coarsest drudgery. In thrifty families the domestic work included a large amount of spinning and weaving, as well as the making of garments—labors which were superintended, and to some extent shared, by the mistress herself.

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^{*}The peregrini embraced those classes of free residents who were not Roman citizens.

Among a people who, at one period of their history, gave to the creditor the power to imprison, starve, scourge, or even take the life of his debtor, it was not to be expected that the laws would afford any systematic protection to the slaves. Cases there were in abundance where slaves were treated with kindness, and even pampered in luxury, but the class, as a rule, were subject to severe oppression and hardship. We read of their working in the field in chains, guarded by armed retainers of the great proprietors, their owners, while at night they were huddled in crowds into buildings which were at once dormitories and This close guard was, perhaps, most common in the cases of large gangs of slaves who had been recently imported. Speaking of the general treatment of this class. Dureau de la Malle says: "The masters imposed on their slaves a rigorous celibacy, and they were never permitted to enter into matrimonial relations with the free classes. The moderate price of adult slaves made it more profitable to buy them than to bring them up. Considered as beasts of burden or of draught, they were either used or abused at the pleasure of their masters. The inhuman calculation of avarice found profit in destroying, by excessive labor, an animated machine, which it was sure of being able to replace at a small Very often (horrible thing to contemplate!) they were profitable to their masters in proportion to the pitiless severity of their servitude." In the same connection he describes them as being "ill clad, ill lodged, ill fed, and condemned to work in the mines, to grind wheat and other grains, (by hand,) and to perform the severest and most unhealthy labors, in the marine, in manufactures, and in the various processes of industry." In the time of Varro the custom of forbidding marriage among the slaves appears to have been somewhat modified. "As to those who tend the flocks in the mountains and in the woods," says this author, "many proprietors have thought it advantageous to assign them wives, who follow the flocks, prepare the meals of the shepherds, and render them more attentive to their duties. But it is necessary that these women should be robust, of good constitutions, and equal to men in their power of enduring labor."

Among the Romans, as well as in more recent times, the prices of slaves of course varied according to the relation of demand and supply, and according to the age, sex, health, strength, beauty, intelligence, and disposition of the slave; but the medium price of a slave adapted to agricultural labor, or the practice of one of the common mechanical trades, is all that need be here considered. In the following sentence Pliny indicates the usual price of slaves in his time, and also that of a slave valet of a soldier of the Legion of Honor. "So, then," says he, "they sell a bird at the price of a slave, and even for more than the price of a valet, for a white nightingale is sold at 6,000 sesterces," (about \$227.) Plutarch states the average price of a slave employed in agricultural labor in the sixth century of Rome at 1,500 drachmas, or about \$296. Pretroneus and Fortunatianus mention 1,000 denarii, or say \$150, as the reward offered at Rome for the return of a fugitive slave; but this only shows that the value of the slave, for whom the reward was offered, was considerably in excess of \$150, and is all the more indefinite from the fact that the occupation of the slave is not mentioned. The price of a slave in the time of Antoninus and Commodus is indicated by the following expression of Scævola: "Si debeas decem millia (H.S.) ant hominem;" which implies that 10,000 sesterces, or, say, \$380, was about equal to the price of a man. Juvenal appraises a fisherman at 6,000 sestarces, and Horace estimates the value of a burnisher at Tibur at 8,000 sesterces. A law of Honorius and Theodosius, dated in

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the year 409, provided that Romans sold as slaves who desired to recover their liberty, should either pay to the purchaser the price he had given for them, or else should give five years' labor. From this Dureau de la Malle infers that the price of a slave was then equal to five years' labor; but as the purchase of a slave ordinarily implied the purchase of all his labor to the end of his life, the law in question must have been intended to prevent the perpetual enslavement of the class of persons referred to. Such a law would necessarily limit the price of slaves entitled to its benefits to the equivalent of five years' labor; but the inference that this was the ordinary market price at the time the law was enacted, is contrary to probability.

Allusion has already been made to the enfranchisement of slaves, which frequently took place in the ancient world. In Rome, during the first three centuries of the republic, the number of enfranchisements appears, however, to have been somewhat limited. Dureau de la Malle estimates the number of freed people in the year 529, in a total population of nearly 5,000,000, at 50,000; but with the increase in the number of slaves there came an increase in the number of enfranchisements; and in the latter days of the empire, especially after the adoption of

Christianity, the number of freed-people was very large.

FREE LABOR.

It has already been shown that in the best days of the republic the labor of agriculture was in great part performed by small proprietors, working on their own account, many of whom were among the most eminent citizens of the state. In the mechanical trades the case was different, such occupations being forbidden to those who enjoyed full

citizenship, and left to the slaves, freedmen, and percerini.

The data from which to determine the wages of free labor in the earlier period of Roman history are very meager; but some idea of the prevailing rates may be gathered from what is known as to wages among the Greeks, and in the Greek colonies of Southern Italy at this M. Dureau de la Malle reaches the conclusion that from the close of the Peloponnesian war, (B. C. 404 and A. U. C. 350,) the price of a day's work for a hod-carrier, farm-hand, gardener, miller, carpenter, or mason, was scarcely one third less than the average price of the same kind of work in France at the time he wrote, or, say, between 1830 and 1840. The wages of miners in the year of Rome 710 have been estimated at about 91 cents a day; this estimate being based upon a passage of Polybius, in which that author states the product of the labor of 40,000 men employed in the silver-mines of Carthagena, in Spain, at 25,000 drachmas a day. An inscription found at Eskihissar, in Asiatic Turkey, (supposed to be the ancient Stratoniceia,) preserves an edict* issued by the Emperor Diocletian in A. D. 301, or, according to some authorities, in A. D. 303, which established a schedule of prices for a large number of articles, as well as for various kinds of labor, and forbade any person to charge more than the fixed rates on pain of death. The denomination of the money in which the various prices are stated is expressed by the sign *, which has been decided to represent the denarius. It is evident, however, that this cannot be the denarius of silver, which between A. U. C. 485 and 707 varied from 311 to 15 cents: and Dureau de la Malle, agreeing with the learned Italian antiquarian, Count Borghesi, is undoubtedly correct in believing it to be the denarius

^{*}A portion of the same edict was found by Mr. L. Vescovali, of Rome, on a stone in the possession of a gentleman residing at Aix, in Savoy.

of copper, of which the first mention occurs in the works of Flavius Vopiscus, who lived at Rome at the time of Diocletian and Constantine Chlorus. The value of this coin was about half a cent in our money, and it is at this rate that the prices of labor fixed in the edict referred to are converted in the following table:

To the agricultural laborer, per diem	8 0	12
To the stone-mason	-	25
To the laborer on inside work in houses		25
To the maker of mortar		25
To the worker in marble		30
To the worker in mosaic		30
To the wall-painter		35
To the figure-painter, per diem		75
To the coach-maker		25
To the ironsmith		25
To the baker		25
To the shipwright on sea-vessels		30
To the ship wright on river-vessels		25
To the driver of a camel, an ass, or a mule of burden, with food		$\tilde{10}$
To the shepherd, with food		ĩŏ
To the sheep-shearer, with food		õĭ
To the brazier for work on hard brass, by the pound		$\tilde{04}$
To the brazier for work in copper, by the pound		03
To the maker of plastic images, with food, per diem		35
To the water-carrier, with food, per diem		12
To the scavenger, with food, per diem		12
To the armorer for restoring the edge to a sword		12
To the armorer for polishing a helmet		12
To the armorer for repairing an ax		03
To the tailor for lining a fine vest		03
To the tailor for an edging on a coarser vest		02
To the master appointed to teach letters, for each boy, per month		25
To the arithmetician, for each boy, per month		37
To the librarian or antiquary, for each scholar, per month		25
To the Greek or Latin grammarian, and to the geometrician, for each scholar,		~~
per month	1	ഹ
To the orator or sophist, for each scholar, per month	ĩ	ÕÃ
to the advocate or lawyer for an application to the court	ī	25
to the same at the hearing of the cause	ιō	$\widetilde{00}$
To the servant attending at the public baths and taking care of the clothing of		
the bathers, for each bather.		01

A passage of Plantus indicates that previous to A. U. C. 536, the pay of an infantry-man in the Roman army was three ases per diem; but it is believed that the real amount was 3\frac{1}{3} ases, or 100 ases per month. The as originally contained a Roman pound of copper, (about .72 of a pound avoirdupois;) but for thirty or forty years prior to A. U. C. 536. its weight had been two ounces, and hence it is probably the as of this weight to which the author above named refers. This coin was subsequently reduced to an ounce, and still later to half an ounce, but the pay of the soldier was maintained at one-third of a denarius, or about 5 cents per diem. Polybius, who wrote his history in the early part of the seventh century of Rome, (thirty or forty years before the Papirian law reduced the weight of the as to half an ounce,) states that the daily pay of the Roman soldier was then 5 ases. This would be five-sixteenths of a denarius, but the actual pay was probably one-third of a denarius, or 51 ases, the writer having fallen into the common practice of neglecting to give the fraction. Suctonius makes the statement that Julius Cæsar doubled the pay of the troops, and the rate fixed by this ruler appears to have been maintained at least until the death of Augustus, when, according to Tacitus, the pay of infantry-men was 10 sees or five-eighths of a denarius per diem. Their pay was further raised

under Domitian to 13\frac{1}{3} ases or five-sixths of a denarius a day, which was equal to 25 denarii. or about \$3.75 per month.

These successive augmentations of pay were due to various causes, among which may be mentioned the depreciation of money in consequence of its increased abundance, the decay of agriculture, and the falling-off in the free population. In the latter days of the empire the increasing disinclination of the citizens to engage in the military service made it necessary to pay still higher rates, but as these rates had little relation to the wages of labor it is not necessary to inquire into them.

In regard to the cost of the chief necessaries of life, the information afforded by Roman authors is scarcely more abundant or satisfactory than that which relates to wages. The price of wheat, however, is given for various epochs. Thus Pliny states that in A. U. C. 298, 327, 345, and 504 wheat was furnished to the people by the authorities at 1 as per modius: but up to the year of the city 485, if not later, the as was one Roman pound of copper, or about .72 pound avoirdupois, whereas between that date and A. U. C. 665 it was gradually reduced to half an ounce, or one twenty-fourth of its original weight. From this it results that the prices sometimes mentioned as having prevailed in early times seem much lower than they really were. The modius being a measure of very nearly one peck, the cost of a bushel of wheat would be about 2.88 pounds of copper, which is equivalent in weight to about 120 of the copper cents of the United States, such as were coined under the act of January 18, 1837; its value in silver or gold could only be determined by ascertaining the relative values of the three metals at the dates mentioned.

In the Oratio Frumentaria Cicero states that the price of wheat in Sicily, in the times of Verres, fluctuated between 15 and 18 sesterces the medimnus, or from 37½ to 45 cents a bushel; the sesterce then being equivalent to about 3½ cents, and the medimnus to 1½ bushels. In the next century (A. U. C. 818) the rate of three sesterces the modius, or, say 45 cents a bushel, is referred to as a very poor price. Adopting an average price of 4 sesterces the modius, or about 60 cents a bushel, as the basis of calculation, M. Dureau de la Malle estimates that in the later days of the Roman republic the ratio of a given weight of wheat to the quantity of silver, which was its equivalent in value, was 1704 to 1.

Under the emperors the price of grain was greatly augmented, and famines were not infrequent. Of these public calamities several occurred during the reign of Augustus, and that of the year 759 was especially severe; while under Tiberius the dearth of breadstuffs was almost continuous, and their prices very high. Tacitus states that in the year of Rome. 772, this emperor fixed a maximum price upon wheat sold to the poorer classes, and re-imbursed the merchants for their loss by adding 2 sesterces the modius, or about 30 cents a bushel, to be paid out of the imperial exchequer. After the burning of Rome under Nero, at a time when public charity appeared to be the only means of averting insurrection, the price of wheat was put down to 3 sesterces the modius, or 45 cents a bushel. Tacitus refers to this as an act of extraordinary munificence, showing that the rate in question was probably very far below that of the market. From figures furnished by Pliny the elder, who died in A. D. 79, it appears that in his day common unbolted wheat flour or meal was worth at the rate of about 41 cents, coarse bolted flour about 5 cents, and flour of the finest quality about 10 cents per pound. These figures appear to warrant the conclusion of Mr. Jacob that "the price of bread in Rome when Pliny lived seems to have been nearly the same or a little lower than it usually is in our day in Loudon."

Reference has already been made to the prices fixed by the edict of Diocletian. as preserved in the inscription of Eskihissar, (or Stratoniceia.) The edict sets forth that the prices of commodities have exceeded all bounds: that the frenzied desire for gain is not moderated by plentiful harvests, or an abundance of provisions; that in towns and cities, and even upon the highways, the spirit of pillage everywhere pursues the armies of the empire, and that the soldier is sometimes deprived of his entire pay, as well as of the imperial largesses, by the engrossing of a single article. "Moved by these considerations," continues the edict, "we have deemed it our duty to fix for our entire empire a scale of prices, which in years of scarcity may restrain avarice within proper limits."

The inscription contains a long list of articles, of which the most important are embraced in the following table, the Roman measures being converted into their nearest American equivalents, and denarii reduced to our currency at the rate of half a cent to the denarius:

Windows and willow	•	01
Vinegar, per gallon	Φů	21
Sait, per bushel	1	36
Pork, per pound f		081
Deri, Der Double		uə y
Goat's flesh, or mutton, per pound		054
Lerd heat anglity her hanna		11 }
The best bacon-ham of Westphalia, or the Cerdagne Fresh sausages of beef, per pound Seasoned and smoked sausages of pork, per pound		13 §
Fresh sausages of beef, per pound		06] [
Seasoned and smoked sausages of pork, per pound		114
Seasoned and smoked sausages of beef, per bound		0617
A fatted cock pheasant	1	25
A fatted hen pheasant	1	00
A wild cock pheasant		621
A fatted cock pheasant A fatted hen pheasant A wild cock pheasant A fat goose	1	00
Chickens	_	30
Ducks		20
Hare		7 5
Rabbit		20
Flesh of the wild boar, per pound		11 1
Flesh of the stag, roe or doe, per pound		081
Cooking his now nound		111
Tamb or bid now nound		081
Date of Rid, per pound.		111
Dutter, per pound		161
Sucking pig, per pound. Lamb or kid, per pound. Butter, per pound Sea-fish of the best quality, per pound. Second-rate sea-fish, per pound.		111
Second-rate sea-nan, per pound		081
Second-rate river-fish, per pound		
Second-rate river-iish, per pound		05 §
Salt fish, per pound		041
Oysters, per 100		50
Dry cheese, per pound		081
Lettuces, the best, 5 for		02
Lettuces, second rate, 10 for		02
Cauliflowers, the best, 5 for		02
Canliflowers, second rate, 10 for		02
Beet-roots, the largest, 5 for		02
Beet-roots, second rate, 10 for		02
Green onions, the best, 25 for		02
Green onions, second rate, 50 for		02
Cucambers, the best, 10 for		02
Cucumbers, second rate, 20 for		02
Melons, large, 2 for		02
Melons second rate, 4 for		02
Watermelons 4 for		02
Kidney-beans, (in the shell.) 25 pods for		02
Watermelons, 4 for Kidney-beans, (in the shell,) 25 pods for Garden asparagus, per bundle of 25.		03
	_	
The execution in this case is denoted by the sign V M which is believed to represent a m	~414~	See as

*The quantity in this case is denoted by the sign F. M., which is believed to represent a modius and half. F being substituted for F through an error of the engraver.

The quantity used in the inscription is the Italian pound, which has been proved by Père Secohi te the same as the Roman pound, and is, therefore, equal to about .72 pound avoirdupois.

Eggs, 4 for	\$ 0	02
Parsnips (largest size) per bundle of 25	•	03
Eggs, 4 for Parsnips (largest size) per bundle of 25. Apples, the best Mattian, or * * * Apples, second rate, 20 for Smaller apples, 40 for		02
Apples, second rate, 20 for		02
Smaller apples, 40 for		02
Yellow plums, the largest, 30 for		02
Yellow plums, second rate, 40 for		02
Pomegranates, the largest, 10 for		04
Pomegranates, second-rate, 20 for		04
Figs, the best, 25 for		02
Figs, second-rate, 40 for		02
Dates, the best, 8 for		02
Dates, second-rate, 16 for		02
Palmula. (smaller dates.) 25 for		02
Dried figs. 25 for		02
Dried figs, 25 for	`3	00
A pillow of the softest and largest kind	3	00
Caliage (boots) for muleteers or field-laborers, of the best fashion, without		
nails Shoes for patricians, called calcei A senator's caliga		60
Shoes for patricians, called calcei		75
A senator's caliaa.		50
A pair of women's caliga.		30
A pair of women's caliga. A pair of rustic double-soled gallica, (Gallic shoes) for men		40
A pair of single-soled ditto		25
Gallion for women, with double ox-hide sole		25
Gallice, for women, with single ox-hide sole.		15
Gallics, for women, with single ox-hide sole	2	50
A bridle for a horse	~	50
A bridle for a mule		60
A pack-saddle for a mule	1	75
A pack-saddle for an ass	ī	25
A pack-saddle for a camel	î	75
Wheat, (inscription partly defaced.)	•	
Des (innerinties next) defeard	•	
Bruised millet, per bushelt	1	02
Whole millet ner hushel	-	5129
Pania new hushal		5149
Time and was highel	1	00.3
Informand collad search as herbal	•	02 13 30 19
Bruised beans, per bushel	1	02
Whole beens now bushel	•	6111
Whole beans, per bushel Lentils, per bushel	1	0215
Bruised peas, per bushel	i	0219
Whole peas, per bushel	•	$02\frac{3}{13}$ $61\frac{1}{13}$
With now hishel		3018
Oats, per bushel Kidney beans, dry, per bushel	1	054
Linseed, per bushel	1	23.4
Sesamum, per bushel	ត់	04
Hemp-seed, per bushel	L	21.7
Foloration wine near collen	1	51 1 y 05
Falernian wine, per gallon Old wine of the best quality, per gallon	1	84
Old wine of secondary quality, per gation		
Old wine of secondary quality, per gallon. Rustic wine Barley wine of Attica		56 92
Donlar wine of Atties		28
Darriey willo Ut Abutch		84
Beer called camus		14
Zythus, (Egyptian beer)		07

While these figures afford some indication of the actual market price of the commodities named, it is well known that the rates fixed by Diocletian were as a rule much too low. The result, as might have been anticipated, was to check production and produce scarcity; and after many persons had suffered capital punishment for violations of the edict, it was ultimately found necessary to abandon the effort to enforce it.

It is unfortunate that the inscription in relation to wheat, barley, and rye is partly effaced, but their probable price may be approximately in-

⁴ The inscription here, as in many parts, is imperfect. † The modius castrensis, which was double the ordinary modius, was equal to about .49 of a bushel.

ferred from that of spelt, a bearded grain sometimes ranked as a variety

of wheat, but of a rather inferior quality.

The average price of wheat under the reigns of Constantine, Constantius, Julian, and Valentinian, A. D. 306 to 375, was fixed at one solidus of gold per ten modii, or from \$1.23 to \$1.20 per bushel, according to the value of the solidus. This price was an average derived from data covering a considerable number of years.

THE ROMAN TRADES UNIONS.

Among the most interesting of the facts which tend to throw light upon the condition of the working classes of Rome must be included those which relate to the trade-unions. The "History of the working and burgher classes," by M. Adolphe Granier de Cassagnac, contains an interesting sketch of these organizations, of which the following is a condensation:

It is related by Plutarch, in his life of Numa, that this king established at Rome the corps of craftsmen. From that epoch the corporations in question passed through three successive periods, of which the first ended about the time of Vespasian, the second about the time of Constantine, and the third with the overthrow of the empire. of these periods comprises the formation of the trade-unions, which originally was spontaneous, and not the result of authority. of the same craft came together, agreed upon certain fixed points to regulate their relations, and elected officers to judge and decide in regard to cases arising under their rules. It was one of the enactments of the Twelve Tables that these rules should conform to the general laws of the state, with which they had sometimes been found to conflict. This enactment, however, to a certain extent created a monopoly in their favor, by prohibiting an unrestrained competition, and enriching the existing unions at the expense of all those who could not organize such associations.

As the number of slaves and the concentration of property increased, the work of private citizens came to be chiefly performed by mechanics of that class, and the trade-unions depended more and more on the employment furnished them by the government in the execution of its enormous public works, such as temples and other public buildings, aqueducts, and those admirable roads, bridges, and other works which, not only in Italy and the East, but throughout Spain, Gaul, Germany, England, and the north of Africa, remained as indestructible monuments of Roman civilization. The trade-unions were thus drawn into closer relations with the state, were subjected more and more to its regulation, and finally became its regular functionaries—not merely executing its works, but also collecting its revenues, or at least that part of them which was paid in kind.

It was by the aid of the trade-unions that the government organized its administrative service. There were trade-unions charged with the collection of the revenues, others supplied Rome with provisions, others took care of the edifices, others clothed the soldiers, others armed them, others supplied the interior and domestic wants of a city full of riches and devoted to all kinds of pleasures. The trade-unions then were the

framework of bone that supported the great Roman body.

The Roman trade-unions were of two sorts, the commercial and industrial unions, and bore the name of corporations. The principal commercial corporations of the empire were the sailors' union, the bakers', butchers', limeburners', weavers' and tailors' unions, the shell-fish gath

ers', silk-dyers', carriers', wine-merchants', and lumbermen's unions. and many others, including the respectable corps of sworn measurers of grain at the warehouses of the port of Ostia, (Mensores portuenses.) The port of Ostia was the great entrepôt of Rome. Hither the corporations of watermen were required to bring the revenues of the lands of the public domain, which were immense. Moreover, there is reason to believe that each commercial union collected the tax in kind which appertained to its specialty; that is to say, the bakers received from the lands of the domain the rent in grain; the wine-merchants the rent in wine; and so of the rest. The butchers, by agents, collected the rents in hogs and cattle from the farmers of certain provinces. union, for a fixed charge for freight, transported the revenues in kind to the warehouses of the port of Ostia. The bakers' union located at Rome became, in a measure, responsible for the grain as soon as it was They had it measured before admitting it into the in the warehouses. warehouses by the experts of the measurers' union, and they had it transported to Rome by another union, that of the coasters, of the Tiber.

The interior organization of the Roman trade-unions appears to have been very simple. Those of the same trade, for example, the bakers, who were scattered throughout the empire, were divided into groups in the different provinces and cities. A law of Honorius and Theodosius fixes the maximum of each of these local unions at 563 members. Each of these unions elected annually officers who bore the name of patrons. These patrons were also called syndics in most of the unions, and there were at least four for each local union. One of these patrons or syndics was named for five years, by the entire corporation, administrator-general of the interests of the society. This officer bore the title of prior, and had charge of all the property of the association, movable and immovable.

The industrial unions, in relation to which the documents are not always so clear or so abundant, were formed upon the same general model. A law of Constantine, of the year 337, mentions the following, some of which it is not easy to recognize, either because the text has been altered, or because the specialties of these organizations have perished in the wreck of ancient civilization: Architects; carvers in plaster; a kind of roofers called albarii; carpenters; doctors; lapidaries; chasers in silver; masons; veterinary surgeons; stone-cutters; furbishers; scasores, (believed to be pavers;) painters; sculptors; pearl-dressers; joiners; statuaries; decorative painters; gravers on copper; blacksmiths; marble-cutters; gilders; founders; dyers in purple; pavers in mosaic; goldsmiths; looking glass makers; wheelwrights; water-carriers; glaziers; workers in ivory; fullers; potters; plumbers; furriers. Besides these thirty-five unions there were a number of others, including one of fortune-tellers, mentioned in a law of Honorius and Arcadius of the year 412 as corpus nemesiacorum.

It has been said that the Roman trade-unions passed through three periods. During the first of these periods, which terminated about the time of Vespasian, they possessed the right to organize at their own pleasure, though subject to being suppressed if they violated the general laws of the state. This freedom of initiative they appear to have possessed for more than seven centuries. The precise time when it was taken from them is not known, but they possessed it as late as the reign of Nero, whereas, thirty years after the death of that tyrant it had been taken away from them, and it was then necessary to obtain the permission of the government before a union could be organized. A

case in point is found in the request made to the Emperor Trajan by Pliny the younger, for permission to establish a union of blacksmiths in Nicomedia, a request which this emperor refused. It seems probable, therefore, that the first period terminated, as has already been stated, about the time of Vespasian. During the reign of Severus edicts were issued authorizing slaves to form associations with the consent of their masters, but on condition of having a curator who should act for them, and of not meeting oftener than once a month. Nothing of especial importance, however, in relation to the unions, occurred until the middle of the fourth century or a little later.

Up to this time the different corps of craftsmen had indeed been absolutely dependent on, and under the direction of, the government. Africa they were subject to the jurisdiction of the vicar of the province; in Italy, of the prefect of subsistence, or of the prefect of Rome; in the East, of the proconsul or other dignitary of the palace. As to their duties, they were subject entirely to the will of the emperors. bakers' union was required to furnish bread to the cities; the sailors and wagoners to furnish transportation; the masons to furnish a sufficient number of hands for the public works; in a word, the corps of craftsmen were strictly instruments of the administra-tion, and, in many respects, even a part of the administration itself. But thus far the different members of these corps were perfectly at liberty to enter or leave them, to pass from one to the other at will, and in all cases to keep their patrimony entirely free, separate, and personal. carrying it with them into any union with which they might affiliate. and retaining the power to sell, give, or bequeath it. This is expressly stated in a law of Constantine of A. D. 319, relative to the bakers' union. This power, however, was taken away by a law of Valentinian II, and of Valens, (A. D. 364,) which only permitted gifts to sons and grandsons; and five years later another law of Valentinian II absolutely forbade the alienation of any of the property of the members of the unions.

Thus was inaugurated the third period in the history of these organi-The relations of the unions to the government remained as before, but the individuals composing them contracted new and unheard-of obligations. In fact, from this epoch no member of a union could leave it and enter another upon any pretext whatever. More than this, the son was obliged to enter into the union to which his father belonged, and so also was the legatee obliged to enter the union of the The same rule was subsequently extended to sons-in-law, who, if not already members of other unions, were obliged to enter the union to which the father-in-law belonged. In short, the trade-unions imperatively claimed all who, either by gift, purchase, or inheritance, were found in possession of property that had belonged to one of their members; and they also claimed a pro-rata share of the property itself. the stringency of this rule there was an exception in the case of priests, who could sever their connection with a union by surrendering to it their patrimony, as provided in a law of Honorius and Arcadius, A. D. There was also another exception in favor of those who could find acceptable substitutes; but this, of course, left the member dependent on the assent of the union for the sundering of the ties by which he was

These regulations, oppressive as they apparently were, were not entirely without their compensations, chief among which was the guarantee of obtaining subsistence in case of need out of the social funds of the union. These social funds, derived from immense domains which were

inalienable and constantly augmented, served for the support of the members, as the property of the monasteries in the Middle Ages served for the support of the monks. The wealth of the unions was derived from several sources, the chief of which were endowments received from the government, the profits obtained from the state and from individuals in the prosecution of their specialties, and, lastly, the property of their members who died intestate.

So long as the prosperity of the trade-unions lasted there was no lack of candidates for admission to them; but there came a time when it was necessary to bring back their fugitive members by force, and to seek recruits among those, who, at an earlier period, would have been excluded from their ranks.

The misfortunes of the unions were mainly traceable to the causes by which the empire itself was undermined. The commercial unions were responsible for the public revenues, and when the rents which they collected from the public domain were inadequate, the government seized upon their own property to make good the deficiency. Again, in the latter days of the empire there were frequent dearths of provisions. owing, in a great measure, to the insecurity of industry. Indeed, it is impossible to recount the passages in Saint Ambrose, Symmachus, Libanius, and even in the laws of the emperors, in which it is related that the magistrates repeatedly drove off without pity the fugitive slaves and beggars who flocked to Rome from all parts of the empire, when famine invaded Italy and surprised the capital of the world in the midst of the ruinous luxury, feasts, and fancies of her emperors. It may readily be conceived that before resorting to these terrible extremes the treasuries of the unions were exhausted, and that when senators had one plate less at their tables the members of the trade-unions did not dine at all. was, however, the unbounded luxury of the emperors which probably contributed most to the ruin of the trade-unions. The extravagance of these masters of the world was simply incredible. On a banter made to him, Caligula constructed a bridge 3,600 paces in length, and having the width of the Appian way, from the port of Baia to the mole of Pute-On this costly structure he made two triumphal marches, after which it was permitted to fall into decay, since it was absolutely without use. Claudius, curious to see the bottom of Lake Fucinus, had its waters drawn off by means of a canal cut through a mountain, the excavation of which is said to have cost the labor of 30,000 men for eleven Nero assigned to a pet monkey a palace in Rome, and a castle and lands in the country. The two thousand mules which drew him and his cortege when he went to contend for the prize in the Olympic games were shod with silver, while his three or four thousand lackeys and coachmen were clad in the finest stuffs of Italy. Heliogabulus, who died at eighteen, probably spent in one day more than all the others in paving the court of his palace with all the diamonds, emeralds, and other precious stones that could be found in Italy.

By such excesses was brought about that state of exhaustion which so crippled the empire in its latter days, and in great part these excesses were paid for by the trade-unions. On these, in great measure, fell the expense of the mistresses, the eunuchs, minions, and lackeys, the lions, panthers, parrots, and monkeys of the emperors, for it was they who were called upon to replenish the imperial treasury. Their task grew more and more difficult of performance, and from the middle of the fifth century they were completely disorganized, their members seeking to escape by flight or voluntary exile the burdens which weighed them down.

short, step by step, with the empire, they fell to pieces.

CONDITION OF THE PEASANTRY.

In regard to the condition of the agricultural laborers in the latter days of the empire, an idea may be formed from the state of the Gallic peasantry of that era, as described by M. J. Benoit in his "Histoire des Paysans et de leur condition à travers les siecles." This author states that they were confined to the fields in company with the animals, and their implements of toil, and prohibited from leaving the estates on which they were employed, approaching the cities, or bearing arms. At this period the proprietors of the soil, and of its cultivators, did not reside in the country, but in Rome, or in the great cities of Gaul, and had no personal relations with their peasants, who were superintended by overseers, such as were formerly employed on large plantations in the South to superintend the labors of negro slaves. Previous to the grave events which took place about the fifth century, by which the Roman laws and institutions were overthrown, the masters of the soil were—

1st. The great Roman and Gallic families.

2d. Chiefs of native tribes to whom the Roman government had made concessions of land.

3d. The fiscal officers of the state.

4th. The clergy.

5th. The small proprietors.

The entire body of peasants, excepting those of the class last men

tioned, who were not numerous, were in a state of slavery.

All the historians agree in describing the country, at this period, as presenting a picture of the greatest desolation, the immense domains of the clergy and of the wealthy proprietors being almost wholly uncultivated, and yielding the most meager returns in spite of the oppression to which the slaves were subjected.

The peasants were divided into two classes: Those belonging absolutely to the proprietor, who could sell or exchange them, like his oxen or horses, and those appertaining to the land, who could only be sold

or exchanged with it.

Those of the first class were on the same level as the domestic animals, whose companions they were, being considered inferior to all other men, not excepting the slaves in the cities, who were legally subject to the same conditions as themselves; for the latter, living with their masters, of whose families they formed a part, could not fail to acquire a certain amount of intelligence and culture through their daily intercourse with persons of superior condition. The other class, on the contrary, were unknown to the master, who required nothing from them but physical strength, good health, and abundance of work.

The peasant who was attached to the soil might own the tatters in which he was clad, and the animals which formed a part of his family. The other could possess nothing whatever. The great agricultural estates to which persons of this class were confined, were provided with all that was deemed necessary to life, in order to take away from them

every pretext for absenting themselves therefrom.

The overseer, who filled the place of the master, provided for all their necessities, as well as for the cultivation of the domain. The food was of the coarsest and most simple kind, consisting chiefly of barley reduced to a pulp by boiling. Each estate was also provided with a prison, and all the facilities for the infliction of punishment upon the slaves. The overseer was the supreme authority in everything which concerned their discipline and punishment. When at work they were commonly

divided into groups more or less numerous, each of which had a superintendent who made use of the whip at his pleasure. When the work was finished on an estate the laborers were often hired out to other proprietors, who provided them with food and paid to the master such compensation as might be agreed upon. Their clothing was simply of a character to protect them from cold or rain, consisting chiefly of skins and a sort of hooded cloak. To this they had no recognized right, and if furnished it was only because the master considered it his interest to keep his human property in good condition.

The peasants who were attached to the soil could never be legally removed from the land to which they belonged even for an instant, and in no case could they obtain their liberty. The children of this class belonged to the estates on which they were born, and formed a part of the inventory of the effects connected therewith, except when it happened that the father and mother belonged to different estates, in which case the children were divided between the proprietors, who could, at their own pleasure, separate wives from their husbands, and children

from their father or mother.

It will readily be seen that under such a state of things the family could have no existence. The proprietors did not consider marriage to have been intended for this kind of people, regarding their peasants as they did their cattle, and looking upon the reproduction of their kind simply as a means of increasing their own wealth. In the eyes of the master the peasant was a species of enemy, and was treated with all

the rigor of a state of hostility.

The oppression of the master was aggravated by the exactions of the government; for, beside the price which the peasant had to pay to the former for the land which he occupied, he had also to pay the land-tax, a tax for pastures, a capitation tax, and various exceptional assess-Moreover, he was obliged to work on the roads, to furnish horses to postal agents, to pay octroi duties in the cities, and to bear his quota of the expense connected with replenishing the ranks of the army.

In collecting these taxes and enforcing these various dues, the fiscal agents of the government proceeded with such unheard-of rigor that even the small proprietors, as well as the slaves and the peasants who were attached to the soil, were reduced to the necessity of abandoning the lands they cultivated and flying to the forests, in order to escape at the same time from the masters and the tax-collectors, who were rob-

bing them of all their resources.

A priest of this epoch, named Salvien, has left us a terrible picture of the miseries and sufferings which the peasants endured, and by which

they were driven to rise in insurrection against the ruling class.

"What else," says this historian, "but to give themselves up to brigandage, could be done by these unhappy people, ruined, as they were, by incessant public exactions; menaced continually by crushing and unremitting proscriptions; compelled to abandon their homes to escape torture, and to exile themselves in order to avoid punishment? The enemies of the country were less terrible to them than the tax-collectors, and they sought refuge among the barbarians to escape the violence inflicted or threatened by these officials. Their condition, hard and inhuman as it was, would have been less cruel if all had suffered equally in common. But what rendered it more intolerable was that the burden was not equally distributed; that the tribute of the rich was shifted to the shoulders of the poor, and that the feeble bore the burdens of the strong. Thus oppressed and impoverished, nothing was left to these people but to choose between brigandage and refuge among the enemies of their country. Thus," says Salvien, "they emigrated, pell-mell, to the Goths, the Bagaudi, or other barbarians, preferring to live free, under the appearance of captivity, to leading the life of slaves with the appearance of liberty. For this reason the name of Roman citizen, which was formerly held in so high estimation, is to-day voluntarily repudiated."

Such injustice and cruelty naturally and inevitably led to acts of insubordination and insurrection. The malcontents organized themselves into a league, and their number being rapidly augmented by new recruits, they gave themselves up to brigandage and to insurrection

against the Romans.

"Despoiled by bad and cruel judges," says Salvien, "tortured or put to death, after having lost the liberty guaranteed by their Roman citizenship, they renounced the honor of this name; and yet, after this, we are so unreasonable as to impute their misfortune to them as a crime. and stigmatize them with the name of Bagaudi, which we have compelled them to assume. We call them rebels and brigands, when it is ourselves who have driven them to revolution. Is it not our injustice. the sentences of iniquitous judges, their proscription, their robberies; those who divert to their own profit the product of the taxes; those who, like voracious beasts, have devoured the people whose interests have been given them to protect; those, less humane than brigands, who are not contented with despoiling their victims, but tear the fiesh and regale themselves with their blood? Who can wonder that men thus treated should become barbarians, when they were no longer permitted to remain Romans! Having completely lost their liberty. nothing was left them but to defend their lives."

Thus, according to Salvien, who lived at this period, it was only indolence and a lack of courage which could induce the peasants to continue their agricultural labors, and prevent them from joining their companions in revolt under the name of Bagaudi. Their headquarters and center of operations was the confluence of the Seine and the Marne, near Paris, in a place which they had strongly fortified, and whence they could defy the Roman power. From this point they spread themselves over all the other portions of Gaul, appealing to all the peasants of the country to enroll themselves under the flag of independence, and strike for their liberty. Their first revolt occurred about A. D. 270, under the lead of one Victoria, who was called by the soldiers the mother of legions. They besieged and captured Autun. They were temporarily quelled by Claudius and Aurelian, who, by remission of the taxes in arrears, and, by granting them a general amnesty, made peace with them.

Under Diocletian they again rose in insurrection about A. D. 280, massacred their masters, and ravaged with fire and sword multitudes of cities and villages. The emperor sent a force against them under Maximian, who prosecuted his warlike operations with so much vigor that, although the Bagaudi were superior in numbers, they were soon compelled to capitulate. Two of their leaders, Ælianus and Amandus, who

had assumed the title of emperor, were killed in battle.

From this period they existed chiefly as small bands of brigands, infesting the forests and fastnesses of Gaul until the end of the western empire.

LABOR IN EUROPE UNDER THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

The overthrow of the Roman power in Italy and Western Europe by the northern barbarians was followed by the institution of a new order

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of society, an order which grew out of the relations of the conquered to the conquerors, out of the character and habits of the latter, and out of the turbulent state of society which marked the times. Italy the barbarian conquerors found the soil, for the most part, in the hands of large proprietors and cultivated by slaves. In some districts they seized the entire territory, and divided it among them according to their humor and their interests. In other cases they divided the land. in proportions arbitrarily fixed according to their own will, between themselves and the former proprietors. But in all cases the peasants were excluded from a share in the possession of the soil, and compelled to labor for the new masters just as they had done for their predecessors. The system of slavery had existed among the barbarians as well as under the Romans, but in a somewhat milder form, owing to the family and tribal organization under which the former lived. Among them the slaves belonging to the domain of a chief formed a part of his family: and as they were always under the master's eye there grew up between them and him a certain sympathy which was conducive to their well-Among the Romans, on the contrary, as well as in the Roman provinces of Western Europe, the landed proprietors were addicted to living in the cities and towns, and were rarely, if ever, seen by the slaves who tilled their fields. The new masters, bringing with them into the Roman provinces the manners of their own country, took up their abode on their domains in the midst of their peasants. The Roman villa gave way to the less elegant but more formidable castle of the rural chief, which was a fortress as well as a dwelling. The rude tastes of the conquerors, coupled with the waste and destruction incident to a long struggle for mastery and a constant necessity for defense against aggressive neighbors, almost destroyed the demand for the products of the more advanced industrial arts, led to a steady decline in the population of the cities and towns, and made the castellated dwellings of the nobles the centers of industrial life and the nuclei of social organization. It was a state of society established at the point of the sword, and the same weapon was for several centuries the principal source of law. Violence and depredation were the order of the day, and there could be no security for any one save as a member of some considerable community capable of united action in mutual defense. In such a state of things it was impossible for small landed proprietors to maintain their independence: and they generally gave in their allegiance to some powerful noble or placed themselves under the protection of the church, in either case surrendering their land and paying certain rent or service dues in consideration of its usufruct. Everything else was sacrificed to military organization and efficient leadership, and isolated independence became impos-Hence, ontside of the walled towns, which in those days were few and feeble, all the detached elements of society necessarily gravitated to the seignorial castle, and there grew up, rather than was instituted, that form of society known as the feudal system, with its gradations of vassalage, its villeins, and its serfs.

It has been remarked that in this new form of society, and in the transition state by which it was preceded, it was found impossible for the small proprietors to maintain their independence. It should be said, however, that efforts were made by the kings to protect them from the

aggressions of the nobles and the dignitaries of the church.

On this subject a statute of Charlemagne, the master of an empirewhich embraced the whole of France, a portion of Spain, more than onehalf of Italy, and nearly all of Germany, contains the following:

The poor allege that they have been despoiled of their property, and they complain equally of the bishops, the abbes, and their patrons, and of the nobles and their subordin-

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ate military commanders. They also say that when a poor freeman shows himself unwilling to give up his heritage to the bishop, the abbe, the count, the judge, or the military official, these persons avail themselves of every occasion to treat him with harshness, and never fail to send him to the army, so that when completely ruined he may sell them his property on their own terms.

This statute bears date A. D. 811.

At a later day one of the sons of Charlemagne was constrained to come to the defense of the same class. "As to the precautions," says he, "which should be taken in favor of the poor, the care of whom is devolved upon us, it has pleased us to forbid the bishops, abbes, counts, magistrates, judges, and all other persons to purchase or take by force the possessions of the poor and the feeble. For this reason, any one wishing to purchase anything from them is required to do so publicly on court days before two credible witnesses and upon equitable terms. Any such contract made under other circumstances shall be null and void."

Nothwithstanding the good sentiments expressed by various kings in regard to the small proprietors, the cupidity of the bishops, abbes, and other members of the ruling classes, was stronger than the edicts, and they did not pause in their career of spoliation until they had completely stripped the poor of their heritage, and reduced them to the condition of serfs.

Of the serfs there were three principal classes. They were all alike bound to the soil, but there were certain differences in the degree of their servitude. And this was also the case with respect to subdivisions of the three classes.

Thus among the ecclesiastical serfs there were two distinct degrees, involving different services. Those of the first degree, who were everywhere superior to the serfs of the laity, had to pay certain dues in labor, which consisted in the cultivation of a definite extent of ground, and in other stated work. Each serf was required to sow and fence in and reap for the bishop, or for the convent, a piece of ground 400 feet long and 40 feet wide, to assist in getting in the harvest, and to mow and gather the hay from an acre of meadow-land.

There were also other dues for the fields and pastures, and certain

contributions in poultry and eggs.

The ecclesiastical serfs of the second class were required to work three days in the week for the bishop or the abbe, and three days for themselves, and to furnish the teams and implements necessary for various kinds of farm-work.

If, on the contrary, the master furnished the oxen and implements, be could exact so much the greater amount of personal labor. Their services also comprised the furnishing of work-horses, hauling produce, &c., a distance of fifty leagues,* carting in the hay, grain, and wine of the master, and various other duties, a failure in which exposed them

to punishment.

These two classes of ecclesiastical serfs belonged more especially to the great dignitaries of the church, who enjoyed sufficient power and consideration to enable them to contend successfully with the kings and the great military chiefs of that warlike epoch. As to those who belonged to the less powerful ecclesiastics, whose authority was always contested by the secular lords, and whose expenses were comparatively heavy, their condition resembled that of the serfs belonging to the nobility.

In other respects there was, in those rude times, nothing definitely

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settled, the arbitrary will of the master alone deciding the degree of servitude to be exacted from the serf.

There were, however, certain general rules established in assemblies of the nobles which were held at intervals, and these rules were accepted as laws by those who took part in the framing of them. But it must be remembered that only one of the parties interested was present in these assemblies.

In distributing lands among the peasants the more extended and fruitful domains lying nearest to the seignorial dwelling were usually assigned to the most robust and active of the serfs, and to those having large families, to assist them in their labors; while to such as from physical feebleness, or any other cause, lacked the requisite conditions for the advantageous working of their allotments, it was the custom to

assign lands of inferior quality and of smaller extent.

From the former class were exacted prestations in money and grain, war taxes, or tribute, a large amount of teaming, and many feudal tasks. The burdens imposed on the latter class were lighter in appearance, but in reality more oppressive; for, if instead of wheat and timber, they were only required to contribute small grains and faggots; if, instead of the work of the plow, they were only required to give that of their hands, it must be added that in lieu of the more valuable services which they were unable to render, they were required to perform the humblest and most menial drudgery, such as to grind the corn, perform guard duty around the castle, load and unload manure, &c. In short, one may gain an adequate idea of the services that they were obliged to render to the lord from the fact that they were required to give him

five days' work per week.

The imposts levied by the church, and known as tithes, unknown under the Romans, had been introduced by the priests, and in the ninth century were regularly enforced by the laws and sanctioned by the habits of the country. A formal decree of Louis the Pious contains the following provision: "As to him who has neglected to cultivate the dominical lands, in order to avoid the payment of the ninth and the tenth part of its fruits, and who, with this object in view, has taken the lands of others to cultivate, it is our will that he pay, according to law, the ninth part for three years." To invest this impost with still greater sacredness, the clergy excommunicated and anathematized such as failed to pay it. The tithes were levied not only upon all the products of the field, but upon farm animals. For a drove of mares every tenth colt was exacted; or if there were only a few, a penny was charged for each It was the same in respect to cows and calves. Every tenth cheese was also exacted, or else the milk of the cows for every tenth day. It was the same with butter, eggs, and all other products. enforce these various dues it was often necessary for the ecclesiastical authorities to resort to vigorous punishments.

The exactions to which the peasantry were subjected, however, did not stop here; for, besides the dues already mentioned, they were required to render military services, and to pay a poll-tax, a tax for mast in the forests, and tolls on the highways, the rivers, and in the cities. Each feudal chieftain was required to contribute to the army in war onetenth part of his peasants under pain of heavy penalties, and sometimes

even of confiscation.

The tolls on the highways, &c., were not only heavy but inconvenient and irritating in their character, being levied according to the number of the wheels of the vehicle, the load which it carried, and other conditions imposed by cities and by powerful nobles. The peasants were not permitted to testify in courts of justice; and if a man murdered one of them, he was not prosecuted for the crime itself, but simply for the damage occasioned to the proprietor. For this reason the life of a free peasant was considered of no value, while that of a serf attached to the soil was estimated at 45 sous. The Ripuarian law inflicted the same penalty upon him who had murdered a free man as upon him who had

stolen a dozen mares, or one she-ass, six sows, or one boar.

The punishments inflicted on the serfs varied according to locality, and the disposition of the proprietor; thus, the code of the Visigoths prohibited the killing or the mutilating of a serf, and established the terms upon which a settlement might be made for a wound inflicted upon one of them by another than the proprietor. In the case of the latter it was considered that the injury he inflicted fell upon himself, and therefore he was not held to account. The bishops and their agents could cause peasants guilty of any misdemeanor to be punished without trial, and the number of blows which they inflicted was determined

by their own estimate of the gravity of the offense.

It is not necessary here to speak of the mutilations and other cruelties to which fugitive peasants were subjected; suffice it to say that they were at the mercy of their masters, who very often abused their power. And the choice which the masters had of selling or exchanging their serfs, shows that the ties which bound the latter to the glebe had been relaxed for the benefit of their masters rather than their own advantage. All the serfs, even those who cultivated land on shares, were considered as belonging to the soil, from which they could not be detached except by the will of the proprietor. The latter had always the right to oppose the marrage of the serf, when it was to be contracted with one not living on the estate. And the children of such unions, being the property of two masters, were liable to be divided between them without reference to their own wishes or those of their parents.

The oppressions which have been narrated did not fail to produce resistance. Associations were formed, known in history by the name of the Ghildes, which quickly extended their ramifications over a large territory, though it was in Normandy and the Isle of France that they

chiefly flourished.

These associations had a triple object: 1st, conviviality; 2d, mutual

assistance; 3d, political and civil reform.

An idea of the rules which governed them may be obtained from the penalties that were pronounced against them, as well as from their own statutes, published at a later day in the districts where they were permitted to exist. As early as A. D. 779 they were prohibited by a statute of Charlemague, and another statute of the same monarch ordained certain penalties proportioned to the gravity of the case. "First," says this statute, "any one who shall commit an offense in consequence of his membership in a guild shall be put to death. In the second place his accomplices shall be compelled to flog each other, and cut each other's nostrils; and, thirdly, members who are not guilty of any specific crime shall scourge each other, and cut each other's hair."

These associations, whose efforts were principally directed against the tyranny of the nobles, were never able to organize themselves into an army as the Bagaudi had done. But toward the end of the tenth century the peasants attempted to assemble and unite their efforts for common action. Upon this important fact in the history of labor, Guil-

laume de Jumieges makes the following statement:

The peasants forming themselves into secret societies in the different counties of Normandy, adopted resolutions to the effect that they would live according to their

own pleasure, and submit to no established laws in regard to the use of the forests and of the waters, except such as they chose to make for themselves. From each local assembly two men were chosen to carry these resolutions to an assembly convoked at a central point in the interior, in order to have them confirmed. When the duke (of Normandy) became aware of this movement, he sent a body of troops under the conduct of Count Rodolphe to chastise the boldness of the peasants and disperse the central assembly above mentioned. The count at office seized all the deputies and some others who were found in their company, and having cut off their hands and feet, sent them back thus mutilated to the local assemblies whence they came. The peasants, overrawed by this summary treatment, quickly abandoned their assemblies, and thus for the time being ended their efforts at organization and their projected struggle for independence.

During the period extending from the tenth to the fourteenth century the class of serfs who belonged personally to the lord almost entirely disappeared, and the serfs attached to the soil made slow but steady progress toward personal liberty, although they were still the victims of most onerous exactions on the part of both the lords and the church. In conceding lands to the peasants, the feudal proprietors weighed the advantages and disadvantages of serfdom, and they gradually found that free labor yielded them the larger revenue from their estates. Under this system the implements of husbandry, the cattle, and the teams were at the account and risk of the peasant, who was thus stimulated to use them with proper care. The lord ceded his land in consideration of certain dues and services, and gave himself no further trouble except to see that the dues were paid and the services performed.

The dues attached to the occupation of land were paid by the tenants in several forms: First, in money; secondly, in grain and wine, thirdly, in cattle and poultry; fourthly, in articles of consumption; fifthly, in timber and fire-wood; sixthly, in various prestations and tasks. dues in money were of two kinds, the one fixed and the other contingent, and known respectively as the "censes" and the "ventes." The "cense" was the tax which was paid in money at a specified time, usually at the festival of some saint. It was most frequently the price paid for the use of the meadows. There was also another "cense," which was paid either at the death of the lord or at that of the tenant. "ventes" consisted of a tax paid to the seigneur for the alienation of lands dependent upon the "seigniorie," or estate, and varied considerably in its form. The heaviest of the dues paid by the peasants was undoubtedly that which was levied upon grain, for this was the one in respect to which the lords could most readily enforce their exactions. The sheaves could be counted in the fields, or the grain measured on the thrashing-floor or in the barn, preparatory to hauling away the share which belonged to the lord.

The exactions of dues for oxen, cows, and horses having been recognized as injurious to the working of the land, was abandoned; but instead of these, there were assessments upon hogs, sheep, lambs, goats, and calves, which served for the consumption of the lord's family and that of his numerous retainers. Certain payments in poultry were exacted from each family as a mark of dependence, and, in addition to these, it was customary to require large contributions of cocks, capons, pullets, geese, &c.—a custom which was not entirely discontinued in France until after the revolution of 1789. There were also dues paid in cheese, butter, oil, wax, soap, &c., Easter and Christmas presents to the lord, the obligation to furnish faggots, vine-poles, staves, hoops, &c. There were still other exactions equally burdensome and vexatious, such as the requirement to furnish lodging for the seigneur and his suite, to feed him and his dogs, and to furnish hay and grass for his horses. It is true that the right of lodging was purchased, but in many localities

the seigneurs imposed a special tax for their dogs. They also imposed a tax on marriages, another on deaths, and a capitation tax, which was collected in particular cases, most frequently when the seigneur knighted his son, gave his daughter in marriage, departed for the Holy Land, or was taken prisoner. The same usage was followed by the church, only her demands were for the Pope, for religious services, and for the entertainment of the king and his retinue when traveling through the country. In this time of continual strife between rival nobles, the peasants owed their masters military services, and accompanied them to war in the capacity of infantry. It was they also who constructed and kept in repair the fortifications of the castle and performed the teaming necessitated by this work. Lastly, they were required on certain days and in times of danger to perform guard duty around the castle for the security of the seigneur and his suite. Although at this period the distinction between the free man and the serf was beginning to be observed. this distinction really amounted to little in the presence of the overshadowing power of the seigneurs. "Each estate," says Mably, "was a veritable prison for its inhabitants, and these pretended free men could not dispose of their property, either by will or by their own act, while the seigneur was regarded as their heir in default of children domiciled in his fief. Within this limit he did not permit them to dispose of their property, whether movable or immovable, except to a small amount; and even at this time they could not marry without having purchased his permission. Burdened everywhere with fatiguing tasks, humiliating duties, and ruinous contributions, they were constantly in fear of some penalty, some arbitrary tax, or the total confiscation of their goods. The seigneurs tenaciously clung to the idea that everything belonged to them, and that the laborer did not possess even his own habitation save in a precarious manner, dependent on their liberality." eignty was so united to property that the peasants were practically given up to all the haughty and fantastic caprices of the proprietors under whose jurisdiction they lived; and it might truly be said that justice was nothing more than the will of the baron.

A tronbadour of the twelfth century has left us, in the "Roman de Rou," a statement of the wants and aspirations of the laborers of the times. "Peasants and the inhabitants of the cities." says he, "the people of the forest as well as the people of the plain, have held assemblies to the number of twenty, thirty, or one hundred persons, meeting in obscure places, many of them having sworn to each other that they would never willingly tolerate either a seigneur or a patron of the church. 'The seigneurs,' say they, 'do us nothing but injury, and we cannot obtain from them either right or justice. They possess everything, take everything, eat everything, and compel us to live in poverty and suffering. So many are the services, the taxes, the provosts, and the bailiffs that we have not a single day of peace. Why do we submit to such oppression? Are we less men than they? We have the same members, the same stature, the same power of endurance; all we lack is courage. Let us bind ourselves together by oath, and present a united front in defence of our possessions. It is not so very difficult to fight; there are thirty or forty able-bodied peasants to each noble. Let us learn to conquer, and no one will then exercise dominion over us. shall then be able to cut trees, catch game in the forests, and fish in the rivers, and to use, at our own pleasure, the meadows and the waters."

Such were the thoughts which agitated the peasants of that day.

From the eleventh to the fourteenth century terrible insurrections broke out in France and in other parts of Europe, the peasants organ-

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izing themselves into army corps, and declaring war against the nobles, and other possessors of the soil. In the thirteenth century hundreds of thousands of them took up arms; and from Flanders, where the organization had its birth, they threw themselves into other provinces of France, gaining new recruits each day in their progress through the country. They were ultimately vanquished by the discipline and union of the nobles, but for more than two hundred years the débris of these organizations infested the country, and unhappily their depredations were not confined to the castles of their oppressors, but often extended to the villages and defenseless cities.

In 1358 occurred the revolt known as the Jacquerie riots. After the disastrous defeat of the French at Poictiers there was, for a short time, such anarchy that all the ties which bound the vassal to his feudal chief were broken, each man obtaining almost complete independence. nobility, whose merciless oppression had already driven the peasantry to desperation, now gave themselves up to the most fearful acts of crn-Assembling their troops, they fell suddenly upon the cities and villages, which they pillaged and burned, after slaughtering all who offered them resistance. When they captured any of the peasants they burned off their feet, and subjected them to the most horrible tortures. in order to compel them to disclose such treasures as they were supposed to have concealed. "The peasants," says Michelet, "could no longer sleep. Those who lived on the banks of the Loire passed their nights on the islands in the stream or in boats anchored in the middle of the river. In Picardy the population dug themselves holes in the ground, in which women and children rotted for weeks and months. while the men timidly crept to the tops of the steeples to survey the country and see if the neighborhood was clear of armed bands. armed the population; there was no longer anything to eat, save in the castles, and to the castles the peasants made their way. Thus began that terrible war known as the Jacquerie riots. Each peasant, inspired by vengeance and by want, as much as by hatred, attacked the castles as the famished wolf attacks a sheep fold. This insurrection, like that of the Bagaudi, took its rise in the Isle of France, and spread over the northeastern provinces. For six weeks, say the historians, the peasants pillaged and ravaged the chateaux, committed the greatest cruelties, and gave themselves up to the most fearful excesses. In this, however, they only imitated the example of the seigneurs, and even their worst excesses could not exceed the limits of a just retribution. Their very frenzy, however, was one of the chief causes of their defeat: for. being without discipline or unity of action, they could not withstand the military organization with which they were opposed by the nobles. Their chief, Guillaume Caillet, was taken prisoner by Charles the Bad, of Navarre, who had him crowned with a red-hot tripod of iron and A few weeks later the Captal de Buch and the then beheaded. Count of Foix slaughtered seven thousand of these peasants in the vicinity of Meaux, and thus brought the insurrection to an end.

What has been thus far said in regard to labor under the feudal system refers chiefly to France, and is confined to the labors of the peasantry; but, as has already been pointed out, the finer industrial arts were almost unknown at the period under consideration, the town and city populations were very limited, and the work performed on the rural estates really comprised the great bulk of all the work for which, in that rude age, there was any occasion or demand. The condition of the serfs and peasants on the rural estates was therefore at that time the condition of the rest moierity of the leaving people ties.

tion of the vast majority of the laboring population.

THE FEUDAL PERIOD IN ENGLAND.

It is now time to glance briefly at the history of our English ancestors during the period of Saxon supremacy, and in the centuries immediately succeeding the Norman conquest. In the former period two-thirds of the people are said to have been either slaves, or in a state of bondage approaching slavery, to the remaining one-third. They might be put in bonds and whipped; they might be branded, and on one occasion are spoken of as if actually yoked. Cattle and slaves, in fact, formed a common measure of value under the denomination of live money, and were a medium of exchange in which the prices of commodities were computed.

The operatives and handicraftsmen of this period, as well as the agricultural laborers, were mostly slaves. The clergy and nobility employed as domestic servants persons of this class who were qualified to supply them with such things as were then considered the necessaries of life.

Hence in monasteries we find smiths, carpenters, millers, illuminators, architects, agriculturists, and fishermen. Smiths and carpenters were the most numerous and important as ministering to the chief secular

pursuits of the time, both in war and husbandry.

Great as were the political effects of the Norman invasion, it did not materially alter the condition of the masses of the people. Their services were as necessary to the new masters as to the old, and the terms on which these were rendered could hardly have been made more onerous than they had been. In order to maintain more firmly the ascendency of the invaders the feudal relations were enforced with somewhat greater strictness than before, but no changes were made in the chain of subordination which had already been established.

Hence for a long time after the conquest the Saxon subdivisions of society were maintained, and the inhabitants of the country continued to be divided into the two great classes of freemen and serfs or slaves. Except the baronial proprietors of land and their vassals, the free tenants and socmen, the country people were depressed in servitude which was uniform in this respect, that no one who had either been born in, or had fallen into bondage, could acquire any absolute right to property. Aside from this, however, there were distinctions in the degrees of servitude. One class of villeins, or villagers, though bound to the most servile offices of rural industry, were permitted to occupy small portions of land to sustain themselves and families.

Other ranks of men, equally servile, are noticed in the ancient records, particularly the bordars and cottars. The former, in consideration of being allowed a small cottage, were required to provide poultry, eggs, and other articles of diet for the lord's table; and the latter were employed in the trades of smith, carpenter, and other handicraft arts, in which they had been instructed at the charge of their masters. Inferior to these were the thralls, or servi, principally employed in menial services about the mansion.

Their lives were professedly protected by law, and with the consent of their owners they were allowed in some cases to purchase their freedom; but, in other respects, they were in the lowest degradation, so much so as to be considered mere chattels and regular articles of commerce.

Giraldus relates that the number of them exported to Ireland for sale in the reign of Henry II was so great that the market was absolutely overstocked; and from William I to the reign of John there was scarcely a cottage in Scotland but possessed an English slave.

In the details of the border wars mention is frequently made of the

number of slaves taken prisoners as forming a principal part of the booty. It is not easy to ascertain from writers of this period the precise immunities of the several classes of bondmen mentioned: the chief differences in their condition arose probably from the relative utility of their occupations: the servi, or serfs, as least valuable, being a more ordinary article of traffic and transfer than the bordars and cottars, who had been trained to useful arts or obtained a fixed habitation. All, however, alike appear to have been denuded of the substantial attributes of freemen: the law recognized in none the uncontrolled right to property or change of place without the consent of a superior; the lord had the absolute disposal of his bondmen; they might be attached to the soil or transferred by deed, sale, or conveyance from one owner to another: in short. they were slaves in the strictest sense of the word-men under an obligation of perpetual servitude, which the consent of the master could alone dissolve, and in all probability they enjoyed less legal protection from the ill-usage of their oppressors than the humanity of modern legislation has extended to the brute creation.

Attempts have been made to determine the relative numbers of the several classes of the population at the close of the Anglo-Saxon period, but with no great pretensions to accuracy. In thirty-four counties the burgesses and citizens are set down at 17,105, the villeins at 102,704, the bordars at 74,823, the cottars at 5,947, and the serfs or thralls at 26,552. The remaining population consisted of freemen, ecclesiastics,

knights, thanes, and landowners.

The final extinction of slavery in England was a slow and gradual The first blow which the system received was in the disuse of the ancient practice of reducing prisoners of war to the condition of bondmen, a step which was probably due to the humane teachings of Christianity, and which certainly marks a decided advance toward the sentiments appropriate to a higher and kindlier civilization. eleventh century the Pope formally issued a bull for the emancipation of slaves, and in 1102, in the great council of the nation held at Westminster, it was declared unlawful for any man to sell slaves openly in the market, which had previously been the common custom of the coun-It was not until several centuries later, however, that slavery was finally and entirely abolished in England. An attempt to extinguish it, made in 1526, proved unsuccessful, and even Cromwell did not scruple to send the Scottish prisoners, taken at Dunbar in 1650, to the West India colonies as slaves. The system was finally abolished by statute in the reign of Charles II, but even so late as 1775 certain Scottish colliers were so far from being free that their services were bought and sold with the estates to which they were attached, and to which they could be brought back by summary procedure before a magistrate if they ventured to leave and seek employment elsewhere.

But though slavery in the British isles, as well as on the continent, maintained a feeble spark of life until a comparatively recent period, the process of enfranchisement, both personal and political, had been going on for many centuries, and had gradually changed the face of society. One of the chief agencies in effecting this great change was the growth of the incorporated towns and cities. During the turbulent and lawless period which resulted in the development of feudalism the warlike and predatory habits of the age left little security either for industry or commerce; and from this fact, coupled with the absence of any demand for the finer products of industry, to which reference has already been made, it resulted, both in England and in continental countries, that from the fifth to the eleventh centuries there was no tendency among the population

toward urban life. Under these circumstances there was scarcely any growth of new towns or cities, and even those which Roman civilization had left were steadily declining in population, wealth, and influence. So great, in fact, became the preponderance of rural population and power, that the cities were included in the domains of adjacent feudal lords, who often appointed their magistrates, exercised arbitrary authority in various ways, and frequently exacted tribute which amounted to little less than pillage and spoliation. Thus we find the second Earl of Leicester exacting from one of the burgesses of the town of the same name the sum of 500 marks, and from other burgesses sums which were probably as large in proportion to their wealth, in order to make a journey to Rome and purchase a dispensation for his wife, whom he had married in violation of the canons of the church.

But with the complete establishment of feudalism and that rude equilibration of the discordant elements of society which the event involved. there came into existence wants and tendencies which at once formed the germ of a new order of things, a new form of society. Thus there gradually arose a demand for the products of various industries which before had scarcely had an existence. These industries tended to concentrate in the towns and thus to attract population to these centers. Another circumstance which, in the opinion of Guizot, contributed materially to the early growth of the towns, was the right of asylum which the churches gave to fugitives, even at a time when the towns themselves had neither charters nor fortifications, and could not have afforded such protection. It was not merely serfs and villeins who thus sought and found refuge within the precincts of the churches situated in the "The chronicles of the times," says Guizot, "are full of examples of men lately powerful, who, upon being attacked by some powerful neighbor, or even by the king himself, abandoned their dwellings, carrying away all the property they could rake together, and entering some city, placed themselves under the protection of a church. These men became citizens, and while the capital they brought with them gave a desirable impulse to industrial and commercial enterprise, the spirit of resistance to baronial or kingly authority which they also imported was not less useful in promoting the progress of the cities toward civil independence. As the opportunities for industry and trade increased the burgesses felt more keenly the exactions of their feudal lords, by which they too frequently saw the reward of their energy and enterprise swept away. The consciousness of what they could accomplish, if secure in their rights, stimulated them to organization, and each new injustice kindled their resentment, while the feudal lords themselves, by their conduct toward each other and toward their king, furnished the burgesses a perpetual example of the value of resolute will and energetic resistance. How many were the fruitless, and, because fruitless, unrecorded, struggles of the cities for liberty, we shall never know; but during the eleventh and twelfth centuries we find them with arms in their hands, resisting baronial or kingly power, and as a consequence we find large numbers of them obtaining charters by which a liberal share of municipal independence was guaranteed to them." opinion of Hallam, such corporations existed earlier in Spain than in The charter of Leon, granted in 1020, makes menany other country. tion of the common council of that city as an established and long existing institution. The earliest charters in France, those of St. Quentin and Amiens, were granted by Louis VI, during whose reign, and the reigns of the two succeeding kings, (1108 to 1223,) the principal towns of France acquired the privileges of incorporation. The charter of London was granted by Henry I, in the year 1100, but it is not clear that any other corporate towns in England possessed the right of internal jurisdiction before the reign of Henry II, who ascended the throne A. D. 1153.

There are not wanting evidences of the services rendered by the cities when once they attained municipal independence in undermining serf-dom and villeinage, and, indeed, the feudal system itself. Thus a chronicler of the twelfth century relates that Louis VII of France founded under his protection a multitude of new cities, which he complains did great wrong to the monasteries and seignors in their vicinity, whose slaves came thither for refuge. In like manner the English proprietors in the fourteenth century are found complaining to Parliament of the wholesale absconding of villeins, and above all of the support afforded to these fugitives by the tribunals and the towns. It was almost impossible, they alleged, to reclaim a villein who had escaped to another county or to London.

By thus affording a refuge and employment for fugitive serfs and villeins, the cities did much to bring about a general substitution of free for servile labor. Not only did they afford occupation for a large and growing class of paid laborers and handicraftsmen—a class that was steadily re-enforced by accessions from the serfs, villeins, bordars, and cottars of the country—but they also had a strong influence upon the relations of these classes of rural laborers to their manorial lords. latter, finding that their subjects had opportunities of escaping from their service, were fain to treat them with greater leniency, and to secure their adhesion by allowing them increased privileges and immunities. In the first two centuries succeeding the Norman conquest, a villein could be subjected to unlimited service by his lord. They differed from the thralls, or personal serfs, in the fact that they were employed in agricultural work, while the latter were assigned to the menial or domestic service of the manor; but so similar was the condition of these two classes that the term "villani," or villeins, came to be indifferently applied to either.

In short, according to Bracton, one of the most minute and thorough of the juridical writers who have treated on early English law, the agricultural serfs, or villeins proper, were entirely at the disposition of their lords' pleasure. It is true that they occupied and cultivated for their own subsistence a portion of the lord's estate, but this, at least in the beginning, appears to have been a matter of custom and convenience, rather than the consequence of any recognized right which they possessed. The first step toward their emancipation was the substitution of fixed and specified services for services subject directly to the lord's command. Such a division of their time must indeed have been demanded by the lord's convenience, no less than that of the villeins themselves; but at first he had a right to interfere with this arrangement at his own pleasure, and could command extra services whenever he chose. Moreover, the fixed services themselves were

then exceedingly onerous.

As a rule, a man of each virgata* worked for the lord three or four days a week from the first of August to Michaelmas, and two or three days a week for the rest of the year. "Beside this," as we are informed by Nasse in his able and learned work on The Agricultural Community

^{*}The virgata, or virgate, of land has been said to be only twenty-five acres, but in some calculations it has been rated as high as forty acres, and Mr. Rogers, in his history of English agriculture, expresses the opinion that both of these figures are below the mark.



of the Middle Ages, "the peasants plowed sometimes one day weekly, (except during frost and harvest time,) sometimes a definite extent of one acre for the sowing of winter or summer grain, and also as a rule for the fallow; they harrowed and sowed the plowed land, sometimes furnishing the seed themselves. They rendered further extraordinary service in the hay and corn harvests, being obliged to turn out on the farm two or three times a year with their whole households, the housewife usually being alone excepted" To this must be added the occasional hauling of wood from the forest and corn to the market-town, as well as messenger duty, &c., and a variety of other services. Beside these services they were liable to numerous dues in kind and moneytaxes.

It has been already stated that the charter of London was granted in the year 1100, and that other English cities were incorporated during the progress of the twelfth century. In the records of the thirteenth century we find evidences of the substitution of money-rents for personal services. This is the case with the landed estates of the monastery of Worcester and those of St. Paul's church. In many land registers of this period there is a statement of dues and how they shall be paid in work or in kind, and side by side with this statement the amount of money-rent which would be accepted as an equivalent for these services. In the Hundred Rolls (English land records) are found clear traces of the gradual change of service into rent, the words ad voluntatem domini (at the will of the lord) often found in connection with the specification of the money value of certain labor, indicating that the lords at first reserved to themselves the right of returning to the system of payment

in personal services.

Mr. J. E. Thorold Rogers, in his history of agriculture and prices in England, refers to the marked contrast between the social condition of England in the reign of Henry II, (1153 to 1189,) and the condition which prevailed during the latter years of the reign of Henry III. is Mr. Rogers' opinion that during the long reign of the latter monarch, (1216 to 1272,) the mass of the English people passed from the condition of serfs, perhaps even slaves, to that of freemen, a small money-rent or a fixed and invariable amount of service for the occupation of land having been substituted for the right which the lord had previously enjoyed of commanding the services of his dependents at his own pleasure. robber barons, who, like social beasts of prey, had kept the country in a state of terror, had disappeared; the influence of established laws, with something like a regular administration of justice had begun to be felt, and habits of order were becoming diffused among the people. Rogers presents a mass of interesting facts bearing upon the condition of the English villeins during the century and a half ending with the year Although they were subject to restraints and liabilities which in our eyes must appear as outrageous violations of personal freedom, he holds that during the period under consideration the services and incidents to which they were liable were determinate, and in no case precarious, as they had been at an earlier period. And degraded as their lot may have been, Mr. Rogers believes that "it was not so grievous as the expressions used about their condition suggest, or inquirers into the state of our forefathers have concluded." In some cases persons of this class held positions of considerable responsibility. Thus Robert Oldman, a villein of Cuxham manor, one of the estates belonging to Merton College, was bailiff of that estate, in which capacity he must not only have superintended the operations of the farm, but also have marketed the produce and kept the accounts of the place. A serf on the estate just

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mentioned, holding half a virgate of land, paid one-quarter of seedwheat at Michaelmas, a peck at Martinmas, four bushels of oats, three fowls. and two pennyworth of bread. The average value of these payments is estimated by Rogers at 7s. 6d. a year. In addition to this, he had to cultivate a rood of land and work six days in harvest on the manor farm, the value of which labor is estimated at 2s. 6d. The total annual rent was, therefore, equivalent to about 10s., which, supposing a half virgate to have contained twenty acres, was only 6d, an acre—"a rate," says Rogers, "which, considering the general goodness of the land in Cuxham, as is evident from the comparative rate of production in that parish, cannot be considered excessive." The services exacted from the tenants in villenage at Farley, another manor belonging to Merton College, were all commutable for specified sums of money. "Thus, Hugh, the son of Chrispian at Haghe, held a messuage and a quarterium of land, (which may probably contain the same quantity as a virgate,) under the following conditions: he pays one shilling a year rent. He is bound to carry dung at a payment of a half-penny a day. or to give three halfpence in lieu of the service; to plow and be fed, or pay sixpence for the year's work; to gather nuts for three days, or forfeit three halfpence; to supply one man in harvest or pay two shillings, in case the lord assents to such a commutation; to plow half an acre for winter and half an acre for lent-corn, or pay seven pence; to wash and shear sheep and lambs, or pay a half penny a day during the time: to hoe and be fed, or forfeit three farthings a day; to collect stubble for three days before dinner, and receive a half-penny, or forfeit three halfpence; to give a hen of the value of two pence or a cock of the value of three halfpence, and find a help for the thatcher or forfeit three farthings." Ten other tenants on the same manor held their land upon Other villein tenants, holding from eleven to fourteen similar terms. acres, pay a much smaller rent, their duties being mainly confined to harvest labor.

The rent-roll of the manor of Thorncroft, (Leatherhead in Surrey,) supplies the following facts for the year 1334: Twelve freeholders occupied each a virgate or more, the rent of a virgate varying from 1s. 6d. to 6s. Four held half a virgate, each lot being described as a messuage and thirteen and a half acres of land. Others held quantities varying from seven acres down to half an acre of meadow. One place containing thirteen and a half acres was held on condition of paying a wreath of reason on midsummend down.

of red roses on midsummer day.

The same manor had one tenant in villenage holding a messuage and a virgate of land and paying five shillings a year, besides which and the liability to pay heriots, the following labor-rents were exacted:

I. To carry dung with cart and two horses and a man for two days; to receive on the first day a farthing's worth of bread, and on the second days are report.

ond day a repast, worth three halfpence.

II. To gather stubble four and a half days, at no pay.

III. To plow one acre in winter and another in Lent, with a repast

worth three pence each time.

IV. To harrow winter-seed with one horse for half a day, but receive no pay, and oats, with one horse, when they are sown, the lord supplying two other horses.

V. To find one person to assist the thatcher, when the service is needed,

at no pav

VI. To find one person to hoe the lord's corn, at a farthing every other day.

VII. To find one person to turn and cock the hay, the lord being bound to scatter it.

VIII. To find one person to carry the hay in one particular field.

IX. To find one person to dig in the garden half a day, and to thrash half a day gratuitously.

X. To find one man to drag straw from the grange to the hay-rick.

XI. To find one woman to wash and shear sheep and lambs, and to do this for nothing.

XII. To find a man and woman to reap and bind corn all the autumn.

to receive two repasts a day, but no drink besides water.

XIII. To find four persons at the lord's bidding in the time of harvest called "Alebedripe," (he himself coming the first hour,) to bind the sheaves and make stacks (hulae) of them, and to have two repasts and sufficient beer.

XIV. The day after he shall find four persons to reap and bind the

corn, and have two repasts without beer.

XV. He shall find a cart for one day, and shall be fed on that day.

XVI. He shall reap, bind, and stack (hullare) an acre of wheat at his own cost.

XVII. He shall present a cock and two hens at Christmas.

Five other tenants held half a virgate, and were charged with analogous obligations and services. "These services," says Rogers, "are rather onerous, and represent more considerable liabilities than I have found elsewhere. But I do not think that, including the rent, the burdens laid on the tenant amounted to as much as fifteen shillings annually." On the same estate there were nine coterells, or cottars, each holding a cottage, and most of them an acre of land, and paying from one to two shillings a year, besides performing slight services of the

same character as those rendered by the tenants in villenage.

Beside the services to which he was liable, the villein was subject to numerous restrictions. He was under the necessity of petitioning the lord for a license to marry, for which he was required to pay a sum of money varying in amount, and a breach of this regulation incurred a pecuniary mulct. He had also to pay for the privilege of sending his children to school, while the fine exacted for permanently quitting the manor was an obstacle to the selection of any other pursuit than husbandry, to which a legal impediment was added by a statute passed in the twelfth year of Richard II. It may be doubted, however, whether the statute was very effective, while the fact of its enactment is indicative of the increasing tendency of the villeins to bring their children up to mechanical trades and other non-agricultural occupations. The chief ambition which they entertained appears to have been that of sending one son to school, or rather to the university, with a view to his taking orders in the church, a desire which was looked upon with great suspi-As early as A. D. 1164, the practice had aroused opposition. since one of the constitutions of Clarendon was directed against it, and more than two centuries afterward the Parliament of Richard II petitioned the king that villeins should be prohibited from sending their children to school to advance them in the church.

The villein was also restrained from purchase or manufacture, except at the lord's discretion. Thus the tenant on the estate of Merton College, at Cambridge, was required to buy his scythe at Chesterton, and at Pentrek a millstone could not be made in the bailiwick without a license from the lord of the manor. It is believed, too, that the use of the village mill, owned by the lord of the manor, was compulsory upon all such inhabitants as owed him suit and service. Thus the records of

the manor court of Kibworth, in Leicestershire, for the year 1331, show that on one occasion the entire village were fined for not having ground their malt at the lord's mill, as they were bound to do. Other cases mentioned in the records of the same manor illustrate the social dependence of the villeins at that time. Thus Robert Goodyer prays the lord of the manor for a license for his daughter Emma to marry, for which he pays eighteen pence; and Matilda Godwene having married without the lord's permission, Alice Godwene (probably her mother) subsequently pays a fine of twelve pence. Nicholas Harcourt pays two shillings for a license to make his son a monk, while Hugh Harcourt, in the following year, (1331,) obtains the same privilege for twelve pence. For two shillings John Scolasse obtains a license to betroth Alice, daughter of William Brown, and "to go and return according to his will whithersoever he wishes, with his chattels and all his goods, movable and immovable."

It is not difficult to understand the influence which the towns and cities would have in relaxing the restrictions and lightening the burdens to which the villeins were subject. A man ceases to be a slave the moment it becomes impracticable forcibly to hold him in a state of slavery. And so when the lords found their serfs had refuges to which they could fly, and from which it was difficult, if not impossible, to bring them back, and that oppressive treatment drove many of them to seek these refuges, they were induced, by self-interest itself, to relax the bondage in which they had held them. At first they were led to refrain from demanding any labor beyond certain regular fixed services, such as those already specified, attached to their "tenements" or holdings of Then these fixed services themselves were gradually diminished in amount, and finally, as already stated, they were made commutable into money-rent. The commutation, like the service which it replaced. was fixed in amount, but at first the lord could exact the service instead of its pecuniary equivalent, while the tenant, according to Rogers, could also insist upon giving the service, instead of the money, if he chose to do so. In course of time, however, the payment of money-rents became an established custom, and it is believed that in the latter half of the fourteenth century the number of tenants in villenage who paid rent by service was very small. It may be remarked here that this change occurred much earlier in England than in continental countries, and, coupled with the rulings of English law courts, was perhaps one of the causes which led to the wide divergence between the subsequent career of the English agricultural class and that of the same class in the several countries of continental Europe. But whatever may have been its ultimate influence in promoting that complete divorce of the English agricultural laborer from the soil which in modern times has been a source of such serious evils, its first introduction was an important step in the direction of personal freedom. It left to the villein the control of his own time, and if by superior energy he could produce for himself a surplus over what was required to pay his dues to the lord, he was free to do so. Moreover, as the lord could now demand nothing from him but a fixed money payment, if he desired to secure his services as a laborer, he must pay him stipulated wages. Thus there gradually grew up a large body of free paid laborers in the country as well as in the cities, a result which, as may be readily seen, was largely due to the fact that the cities afforded a market for rural produce, created commerce, and familiarized the people generally with the use of money as a measure of value and a medium of exchange.

The great plague known as the black death, which broke out in 1348,

exercised an immense influence upon the social condition of the country. Its immediate effects were disastrous in the extreme, sweeping away, according to some estimates, one-half of the population, but its ulterior consequences were seen in a great improvement in the condition of the

masses of the people.

The great rise in wages, which was one of its first results, rendered the system of farming by bailiff unprofitable; for even the high price of wheat which prevailed for more than a quarter of a century after the plague, failed to compensate for the enhanced cost of labor. Under this condition of affairs, the practice of letting land on lease became quite general, and it is the opinion of Mr. Rogers that much of the land of the feudal lords was disposed of in small parcels, or, at least, granted at new quit-rents—a form of alienation which did not infringe the statute quia emptores. The rent of land at this time was very low, for the produce was worth very little more than the cost of production—a state of things which, however unfavorable it may have been to the owners of large estates, was highly conducive to the prosperity of the small occupier and the laborer—two characters which were often united in the same person.

The great rise in the price of labor at the period under consideration made the services due from the tenants in villenage much more valuable than the money-rents which had been fixed upon as their equivalent; and it is probable that there was a determined effort on the part of the land-owners to revive the exercise of a right which they still possessed in theory, but which in practice they had long before abandoned. Mr. Rogers expresses the opinion that they also undertook to convey the same right to those who took land from them on lease; and it is not unlikely that the latter, animated by a mercenary spirit, endeavored to enforce their claims with greater rigor than the lords themselves. At all events, the well-informed writer just cited regards it as "clear that an attempt to enforce the alternative of labor (instead of money-rents) was one of the most powerful stimulants to the great uprising of the

serfs," known in history as Wat Tyler's insurrection.

The story of Tyler's swift vengeance on the Kentish tax gatherer who had offered an indignity to his daughter is familiar to all readers of English history; but the rising of the peasants was apparently the result of a deliberate plan, a widely extended organization, and a general sense of oppression. The insurrection broke out on Monday, the 10th of June, 1381, under the lead of Tyler, in Kent, a thorough understanding having been entered into with the villeins of Bedford, Sussex, Essex, Norwich, and other counties. On the following Friday the rebels, who had already entered London, threatened that, unless the King (Richard II) gave them a conference, they would destroy the Tower, with all the persons in it, including of course the King himself and the royal family, who had taken refuge there. Richard, who was then a mere youth, met them at Mile-end, where, according to Froissart, he rode into the crowd and asked them to state their wants. They answered, "We will that ye make us free forever, ourselves, our heirs, and our lands, and that we be called no more bond, or so reputed." The King assented, bidding them to go home at once, but to leave three from each village, who should receive and carry back the charters of manumission—a suggestion upon which many of them immediately acted. Tyler, however, remained, together with two other leaders, Ball and Straw, and a force of about 30,000 men. On the following day, at an interview with the King, Tyler was assassinated by Walworth, mayor of London. simulation Richard appeared the people; but before evening he issued a proclamation commanding all the country-folk to depart from London under pain of death. The insurrection was broken, and the King soon proceeded to take vengeauce on its originators. He made a progress through the disturbed districts, demanding from the chief persons in all the towns and villages the surrender of the movers in the sedition. According to Froissart, no less than fifteen hundred persons were put to death—hanged or gibbeted in chains—while such charters of manumission as had been granted in accordance with the King's promise were revoked and canceled. The terms of one of these charters addressed to the authorities of the county of Herts are given by Walsingham, and are as follows:

Know that, of our special grace, we have manumitted all our liege and singular subjects and others of the courty of Hertford, freed each and all of them of all bondage, and made them quit by these presents: Pardon them all felonies, treasons, transgressions, and extortions committed by any or all of them, and assure them of our summa pax. Dated June the fifteenth, anno regni quarto.

To certain delegates sent from Essex to request the confirmation of the charters of manumission and certain other benefits, the King, after some hesitation as to how he should answer these audacious petitioners, broke out in the following language:

O vile and odious by land and sea, you are not worthy to live when compared with the lords whom you have attacked; you should be forthwith punished with the vilest deaths, were it not for the office you bear. Go back to your comrades and bear the king's answer. You were and are rustice, and shall remain in bondage; not that of old, but in one infinitely worse. For as long as we live, and by God's help rule over this realm, we will attempt by all our faculties, powers, and means, to make you such an example of offense to the heirs of your servitude, as that they may have you before their eyes, and you may supply them with perpetual ground for cursing and fearing you.

The spirit of Parliament in regard to the same movement is indicated by the answer of that body to a communication informing the Commons of the King's action in granting the charters of manumission, and desiring them to provide for the confirmation or revocation thereof. The communication set forth, among other things that if they (the Lords and Commons) should desire to manumit their villeins by common consent, the King would assent to it. The unanimous answer was, "that all grants of liberties and manumission to the said villeins and bond-tenants obtained by force are in disinherison of them (the Lords and Commons) and to the destruction of the realm, and therefore null and void." To the suggestion in regard to manumitting their villeins by common consent they replied, "that this consent they would never give to save themselves from perishing altogether in one day."

In view of the austere reply of Richard to the delegates from Essex, his suggestion to Parliament seems a little surprising; but, as Mr. Rogers suggests, "that answer may have been partly the expression of indignation, partly of fear, and therefore have had no more than a temporary significance." "We know, too," says the same author, "that the policy of the court was not unfriendly to the emancipation of the serfs; that every construction which lawyers could put upon usage or statute was favorable to the freedom of the serf; and we also know that in after years the King put his veto on those resolutions of the Commons by which they intended to subject the condition of villenage to social disa-This is particularly the case in the answer given to the petitions of Parliament in 1391, when the King declines to accede to the request that the sons of villeins should not be allowed to frequent the universities, and to the complaint that villeins fly to cities and boroughs and are there harbored, and that the lord, on attempting to recover his villein, is hindered by the people; with a suggestion that the remedy might

be allowed of seizing the villein without regard to the franchises of the place in which he had taken refuge. When the alarm felt at the actual insurrection was passed away, we may well conceive that the court was disinclined to strengthen the lords by tightening the bonds of servitude." It seems certain that, although the insurrection of 1381 was quelled and its leaders summarily punished, its result was to obtain for the villeins, within a few years, a very considerable extension of their rights and privileges. They had been masters of the situation for a week, and although disbanded, their spirit was not broken, their disaffection allayed, or their secret organization destroyed. Another rebellion was clearly a possible event, and experience had shown that the power of the peasantry was not a thing to be contemned. If the claim to service instead of money-rent had been one of the causes of the insurrection, the effort to enforce it must have been abandoned; for neither then, nor at any subsequent period, was such an effort attended with any permanent or general success. Moreover it is believed that during the latter years of the fourteenth century the villeins attained a recognized place as freemen before the law, since it seems probable that they, as well as the small freeholders, were included in the election statute of Henry IV (who usurped the throne in 1399) as suitors in the county The strength and importance which the veomanry were acquiring at the close of the fourteenth century was promoted during the fifteenth by the prosperity of agriculture, and even by the desolating civil strife known as the wars of the roses. By the expenses, forfeitures, and proscriptions incident to this series of desperate struggles, the feudal aristocracy was almost destroyed, and the Crown, whose power had in the mean time been largely augmented, subsequently built up a new nobility on the ruins of the Church.

But long before the destruction of feudalism, that system had been but the mere shadow of its former self. Villenage, as we have seen, was virtually extinct at the end of the fourteenth century; and long before the villein was formally recognized as a freeman before the law, he had been in the practical enjoyment of many of a freeman's rights. In the mean time, free wage labor had been steadily extending the sphere of its operations—a result, as already shown, which was largely due to the growth of the towns, and to the development of mechanical and

manufacturing industry.

During the earlier years of the reign of Edward III (1327 to 1377) the necessities growing out of the war with France brought about intimate commercial relations with the Flemish manufactories, and ultimately led to much industrial prosperity in Norfolk and some other of the eastern counties. A number of Flemish weavers had come over with William the Conqueror, and during the two succeeding reigns the manufacture of woolen cloth had made considerable progress. But under Edward III, this industry received a new impetus. An expert Flemish manufacturer who came to England in 1331, bringing his workmen with him, was very kindly received by this monarch, who issued a proclamation promising similar protection to all foreign weavers and fullers who should settle in England. In 1337 several additional statutes were enacted, one of which made it a felony to export wool, while another limited the use of foreign cloth to the royal family, a third forbade its importation, and a fourth invited cloth-workers into England, and prom-These strong proised them further protection and encouragement. tective measures must have occasioned for a time inconveniences which might have been avoided by the more delicate arrangements known to modern legislation; but they appear to have been instrumental in build-

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ing up a flourishing industry, which exerted no small influence upon the economic, and, indirectly, upon the political and social development

of the country.

The multiplication of free occupations about the end of the thirteenth and the beginning of the fourteenth century is indicated by two taxing accounts for the borough of Colchester, taken respectively in the years 1296 and 1301. The roll made up at the latter date contains the names Of these there are 229 whose occupations are not of 391 tax-payers. specially designated, and among the remainder there are "twelve clergymen, ten persons apparently of considerable substance, sixteen shoemakers, thirteen tanners, ten smiths, eight weavers, eight butchers, seven bakers, six fullers, six girdlers, five nauta,* four millers, four cissores, and three dyers, besides a number of fishermen, carpenters, and "spicers." † The following trades are also enumerated in the same roll: cooper, seller of white-leather, potter, parchment-maker, pelliparius, cook, tiler, bowyer, barber, mustarder, wool-comber, lorimer, woodturner, linen-draper, wheelwright, glover, fuel-dealer, old-clothes dealer, sea-coal dealer, glazier, brewer, iron-monger, and wine-seller. the girdlers united the trade of mercer with their other occupation, and one of the mercers included verdigris and quicksilver in his stock in trade. From the number of tanners it is inferred that Colchester had a special trade in leather, which, in the form of tawed skins, ‡ is believed to have formed an important article of dress in mediæval times. This borough, which was situated in the richer section of England, and is supposed to have had about 2,000 inhabitants at the time under consideration, may probably be taken as a fair representative of the county towns of that day.

From the large body of information presented by Mr. Rogers, a number of interesting facts may be culled in regard to the occupations pursued in England during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. appears that all villages of any magnitude maintained persons who were engaged in mechanical avocations. No parish or manor, for instance, was without a thatcher, though it is thought that this labor was done by those who, at other times of the year, were engaged in ordinary farm

business.

Most of the villages had a smith who found steady employment. The bailiffs of manors, and probably also persons who cultivated small parcels of land on their own account, were accustomed to purchase their iron, and furnish the craftsman with it, paying him for his work, a custom which still prevails in India in the dealings between native artificers and their customers. During the latter part of the fourteenth century, however, it became customary to enter into yearly contracts for supplying horses with shoes—a change which indicates that at this time the artisan was, in a small way, becoming a capitalist.

It is probable that most of the villages maintained a carpenter for common work, such as for repairs of farm-implements and buildings and for the manufacture of common carts and wagons, but the higher branches of this occupation were supplied by migratory workmen, some

of whom were paid very considerable wages for the time.

Masons, tilers, and slaters must have been migratory, except perhaps such as lived in the larger towns, as few buildings were of stone except the manor-house and sometimes the grange. Even in towns, unless stone

! Skins dressed with lime and fat.



^{*} Mariners, but probably captains, or pilots, in contradistinction to sailors.

[†]This word may be considered as the equivalent of "grocers," having the same origin as the French "épiciers."

was abundant and near, it is probable wood was more frequently used as the framework of the building. The chimney, however, must have been built of stone, except in the very rudest huts, some of which are said to have been without that convenience.

The first mention of bricklayers occurs in the statute of 1496, so that it is probable the occupation was unknown during the preceding centuries, although tilers are mentioned in the statute of 1350, and tiles are known to have been in use in Suffolk at least as early as 1358.

Sawyers are frequently mentioned, but probably did not carry on a distinct business. They were paid by the day or by the one hundred square feet sawn, and generally the two who worked at the same saw were paid together, which seems to imply that they had mutual arrangements in hiring. When separately paid, the top sawyer was paid

at higher rates than the lower one.

Of the farm servants some were engaged permanently; others temporarily and for special purposes. Thus the mowing of hay was done partly by the regular servants of the farm, partly by tenants holding land by customary service, and partly by hired labor, which was often obtained from a distance. The regular servants comprised the plowmen and drivers, the carters, a shepherd or two, according to the size of the flock, a pig-keeper, a cow-herd, and a dairy-woman. When the work of the fields was over, the plowmen and drivers were engaged in home occupations, of which the principal was threshing. The winnowing, as a rule, was done by women, especially the dairy-woman, whose in-door work in winter was comparatively light. Where two shepherds were employed, one of them was assigned to the special charge of the ewes, and received better pay than his fellow-servant.

The laborers were generally supplied with an allowance of beer, but as a rule none of them appear to have been maintained in the house except occasionally during harvest. Indeed, they had land and stock of their own—that is, land which they held in villenage—and occasionally the shepherd was remunerated for his services by permission to use the lord's pasture for his own little flock, while the dairy-woman was often the purchaser of calves from the farm on which she was employed.

It should be understood that the word "farm," as here used, refers to the portion of each parish or manor which was held by the lord himself and farmed for his benefit, under the direction of a bailiff. This usually comprised from one-third to one-half of the arable and better pasture-land. The remainder (with the exception of the glebe, over which the feudal rights of the lord of the manor did not extend) comprised the estates of the small freeholders, who paid quit-rents, the holdings of the villeins, bordars, and cottars, and the waste or common, upon which all the tenants had the right of pasture, and sometimes that of cutting turf. The holdings of the villeins were often as extensive as those of the freeholders.

Respecting the physical condition of the English laborer at the period under consideration we possess but scanty knowledge, but it is evident that he must have lived in a very rude and primitive style, and that he was subject to much hardship and privation. His dwelling was constructed of the coarsest materials, most commonly of wattles daubed with mud or clay. Bricks do not appear to have been used until the latter part of the fifteenth century, as the first mention of brick-layers occurs in the statute of 1496. The manor-house was usually built of stone, but the tenements by which it was surrounded were of the mean-

^{*}The work of the dairy was, however, sometimes performed by a man.

est description. The occupation of a glazier is mentioned in the statute just referred to, but although glass had at that date been long used as the ornament of churches, it was not used even in the better class of private houses until a much later period; for even as late as 1567 it was not common to find glass windows in the castles of the nobility. and they probably were not used in farm-houses much before the reign of James I. That it was an unknown luxury in the hut of a mediæval peasant it is unnecessary to state. Artificial light, too, must have been used very sparingly by the poorer classes, since a pound of candles would almost have absorbed a workman's daily wages. It is believed that fuel also was comparatively dear, and the poor man's home in winter must, therefore, have been the scene of severe privation and dis-Hence the advent of spring was hailed with a joy and gladness of which we in modern times can form but a faint conception. Even as late as the reign of Queen Mary the peasant lived in a wretched clay-built hovel; and according to Erasmus the dwellings of the poor generally were unprovided with a chimney to let out the smoke, while their beds consisted of straw, with a block of wood for a pillow, and the flooring of their huts was nothing but the bare ground covered with rushes, among which was "an ancient accumulation of filth and ref-

The valuation of the movable property in the borough of Colchester made in the year 1296, which has been already referred to, gives an idea of the degree of domestic comfort enjoyed by the small tradesmen and artificers of that period. The amount of household furniture possessed by each family appears to have been very limited, consisting chiefly of a brass pot valued at from 1s. to 3s., and a bed valued at from 3s. to 6s. The former was apparently almost the only culinary utensil then used in the households of the poor.

The valuation taken at the same place in 1301 is still more curious and minute. Among the articles mentioned in the list then made out are found the following, along with which are given the figures indicating the range of their respective values:

	8. d.	s. d.
A bed		
A tripod		
A brass pot	10	to 2 6
A brass cup		
An andiron		
A brass dish	6	to 1 0
A gridiron	6	to 1.6
A rug or coverlet	8	to 1 6
A broad-ax	_	to 5
An adze	2	
A square	1	

A blacksmith's tools were valued at from 2s. to 5s.; a cobbler's stock in trade at 7s. 5d.; that of two other cobblers at 10s. 6d. and 12s 2d., respectively; and that of a tanner at £9 17s. 10d. There is reason to believe, however, that these prices were considerably below the real value of the articles.

At the period under consideration the manor-house itself was but scantily furnished, while the movables of the "ordinary house" consisted, according to Mr. Rogers, of "a brass pot or two for boiling, and two or three brass dishes; a few wooden platters and trenchers, or, more rarely, of pewter; an iron or latten candlestick; a kitchen knife or two;

a box or barrel for salt, and a brass ewer and basin. • • • The walls were garnished with mattocks, scythes, reaping hooks, buckets, corn measures, and empty sacks. The dormitory contained a rude bed, and but rarely sheets and blankets, for the gown of the day was gener-

ally the coverlet at night."

In the same connection (page 13, vol. i, History of Agriculture and Prices) Mr. Rogers presents the inventory of the effects of John Senekworth, who for several years was bailiff of Merton College, at its manor of Gamlingay, in Cambridgeshire, as well as at other places before. "Senekworth," says this writer, "was evidently a valued servant of the college, (of which one of his brothers was a fellow,) and for a few years before his death the society presented him with five pounds 'ex speciali

gratia sociorum.'"

"The date of the inventory is 1314, the deceased bailiff having bequeathed his goods to the college. It contains a tapetum valued at 7s., two others at 5s., one more at 20d.; 6 lintheamina, (sheets,) at 4s. each, and a materace,* at 1s.; a red coverlet, at 2s.; a counterpane, (co opertorium pro lecto.) at 4s.: a red gown, at 8s.: another, at 3s.: a blue gown, at 4s.; a kaynet gown, at 2s. 6d.; a russet tunica, at 1s. 6d.; a banker, i.e., a cover for a seat, at 15d.; a table-cloth, at 1s.; two more and two napkins, at 6s.; three quisins, i. e., cushions, at 9d. each. these articles of linen and clothing Senekworth possessed three gold rings, one of which was broken, the whole being valued at 18d.; a purse, at 4d.; a pouch, at 3d.; a knife, at a penny; a forcer—that is, a chest at 3s.; and another, at 6d.; a leathern forcer, at 3d.; two glasses, (murrae.) one with a silver stand, worth 7s.; a second, 8d.; four silver spoons, valued at 3s. 2d.; two silver seals, (firmacula,) 2s., one of these being mounted by a gilded penny as a symbol; three books of romance, valued at 3d.; two pair of linen panni, at a shilling; a basin and ewer, at a shilling; beside some less characteristic effects. Senekworth, however, must have been an official of more than usual opulence and social position."

Owing to the high price of clothing the dress of the mediæval peasant must have been exceedingly plain, and the statutes which limited them to the use of the lower-priced materials must have seemed to the mass of the laboring people a very superfluous precaution. Shirts were such valuable articles that they were often the objects of charitable or ostentatious doles, and even in considerably later times they were frequently devised by will. The dress of the laborers in the latter part of the fourteenth century is, however, described as being simple and well-contrived, comprising a jacket and a coat, buttoned and fastened round the body by a belt or girdle, a bonnet of cloth, and hose of the same material, shoes, and occasionally a hat, though the latter was not much used until a century later. The latter article is mentioned in a statute of Richard

III, in which the price is limited to 20d.

In respect to food, the English peasantry of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries appear to have been tolerably well off. The records of agriculture indicate that wheat was the principal grain consumed by the people. In the allowances to farm servants it was sometimes mixed with rye or barley, but then, as now, the latter grain was

chiefly used in the manufacture of beer.

Meat appears to have been cheap, and, therefore, was probably in fair supply. Mutton could be bought in plenty at about a shilling the carcase, which could scarcely have been more than a farthing a pound; and beef was very little dearer, since the carcase of an ox could be had for 10s. Yet, even at these prices, mutton or beef was a far more expensive diet than wheat, of which, on an average, six pounds could be bought for a penny. Butter and cheese, though abundant and cheap in com-

parison with their modern prices, were at least twice as high as meat. Poultry was to be had in plenty at low prices, and is believed to have been kept by the poorest classes. The most common varieties were geese, ducks, and fowls. Eggs were also exceedingly plentiful and were extensively used. The kind of meat most commonly used by the working classes was pork. Mr. Rogers shows that a hog for the farmlaborers invariably figured in the expenses for autumn on one of the estates belonging to Merton College, while the same estate also allowed its laborers two red herrings a day. Beer was often furnished to laborers by their employers, even where board was not included in their compensation, and on some manors they were feasted at the conclusion of the harvest.

Notwithstanding the abundance and comparative cheapness of meat it was not uncommon to eat the flesh of animals that had died of disease; but it is possible that this arose rather from the want of delicacy and ignorance of hygienic laws than from necessity. The consumption of such meat certainly does not appear to have been confined to periods of scarcity, for we find Walter de Henley, in an ancient treatise on the management of sheep, laying down the following rule: "If one of your sheep dies put the flesh at once into water, and keep it there from daybreak to three o'clock, then hang it up to drain thoroughly, salt it and dry it. It will do for your laborers." It may be inferred from this rule that the practice of using diseased meat was not general, otherwise it would hardly have seemed necessary to point out to the thrifty hus-

bandman this particular mode of economizing his means.

The difficulty of keeping stock through the winter caused its slaughter in large quantities during the autumn, and for more than half the year fresh meat was untasted by a great majority of the people. Vegetables were also scarce, for not only was the potato then unknown, but the people were without various other roots, such as carrots, parsnips, &c., which are now in common use. Mr. Rogers expresses the opinion that onions and cabbage were almost the only esculent vegetables in use, though nettles may have been quite commonly used as greens, since urtice (supposed to mean nettles) were occasionally sold from the gar-The household roll of the Countess of Leicester, (for 1265,) which is more particularly referred to further on, mentious dried peas and beans, parsley, fennel, onions, green peas, and new beans, and it is possible that the term potagium may include other varieties. It is not by any means necessary to infer, however, that these were all in general use among the people. In France, cresses, endive, lettuce, beets, parsnips, carrots, cabbages, leeks, radishes, and cardoons were grown as early as the reign of Charlemagne; but it is not probable that many of these varieties were cultivated in England until a much later period; for even in the fifteenth century the produce of the English kitchen-garden was contemptible in comparison with that of the Netherlands, France, and Italy.

The only fruits of which mention is made in the Countess of Leicester's roll are apples and pears, and it is believed that few other kinds were generally cultivated in England prior to the latter end of the fifteenth century, although Matthew Paris, describing the bad season of A. D. 1257, observes that "apples were scarce and pears scarcer, while quinces, vegetables, cherries, plums, and all shell-fruits were entirely destroyed." In the wardrobe-book of the fourteenth year of the reign of Edward I is found the bill of Nicholas, the royal fruiterer, in which the only fruits mentioned are pears, apples, quinces, medlars, and nuts, the supply of which from Whitsuntide to November cost £21 14s. 1½d.

The great scarcity of vegetables and fruits, coupled with the con-

sumption of salt-meat and salt-fish for more than six months out of the year, gave rise to scurvy in its most virulent forms; and even leprosy, modified, perhaps, by climate, is spoken of by Rogers as a common The tendency to these and other diseases was doubtless aggravated by the prevalent uncleanliness of the peasantry, their wretched habitations, and the indifference which they showed to the simplest sanitary precautions. Even in the latter years of the sixteenth century their habits in this respect had apparently undergone no great change for the better; for the embassadors of Philip II, who visited England several years after the Spanish invasion, commented on the abundance of food and the uncleanly habits of the common people, remarking that "these peasants" lived "like hogs," though they fared "as well as the king." In the latter particular, especially as regards bread and meat, the English peasants were probably much better off than their brethren of continental Europe, for Fortesque, who wrote in the reign of Henry VI, says of the French peasantry that "they drink water, they eate apples with bread right brown, made of rye; they eate no flesche, but, if it be selden, a littel larde, or of the entrails or heds of beasts sclayne for the nobles or the merchaunts of the lond."

But although the supply of food in England was generally good. there were times when the people suffered intensely through the failure of the crops. The great English statistician, Dr. Farr, in an essay published in the Journal of the Statistical Society, states that during the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries there was, on an average, a degree of scarcity amounting to famine once every fourteen years. The series of unproductive harvests during the reign of Edward II occasioned intense suffering among the peasantry. In 1308 the price of wheat exceeded all previous experience; was still higher in 1309, and not much reduced in 1310. In 1314 it again exceeded all experience; was greatly enhanced in 1315, and in 1316 was three times as high as the average for 1314. In 1317 the price was about the same as in 1314; was again excessively high in 1321; and did not materially decline until 1322. In the two following years wheat still remained dear, but from that time until the breaking out of the great plague in 1348 the abundance of the harvests was continuous and remarkable. For the first twenty-five years after the plague the average price of wheat was quite high, but the last twenty years of the fourteenth century constituted a period distinguished for its abundant harvests.

It is said that during the long period of scarcity in the early part of that century, a scarcity attributable to incessant rain, and cold, stormy summers, the people ate the flesh of horses and dogs, and were even reduced to the necessity of subsisting upon roots. Stories still more terrible are told of the acts to which they were driven in their dire extremity; and Mr. Rogers, who makes much allowance for exaggeration, says that "no years in the whole course of the economical history of England approach the scarcity of that time, except, perhaps, the few years at the end of the eighteeenth and the commencement of the nineteenth

centuries."

The effects of a bad harvest in any particular locality were far more disastrous, at the time under consideration, than they would be at present, owing to the want of those facilities for transportation which we now possess in our railways, canals, and ships; yet there is reason to believe that the means of communication in England were better and the habit of travel more general in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries than they were two or three centuries later. The trade of grain-dealer was, however, unknown, and it does not appear that, except in the abbey granges, grain was anywhere collected in large quantities. The

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consequence of this was that a season of comparative plenty was often followed before the next harvest by a very inconvenient scarcity; and the fluctuations in prices were sometimes extremely sudden and violent. Thus Stow relates that in 1317, one of the years of scarcity above referred to, the harvest was all got in before the 1st of September, and that wheat, which before harvest had been selling as high as £4 per quarter,

immediately fell to 6s. 8d., one-twelfth of its former price. Upon a general survey of the field, it is clear that during the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, there was a vast improvement in the average condition of the English people. The progress of the industrial arts brought with it a great augmentation of their comforts; rapine and violence gave place to the orderly habits which grow up under the influence of an efficient administration of justice, and the masses made a great advance in securing from the crown and the aristocracy a recognition of their personal and political rights. "The wail over universal oppression, violence, and lawlessness, which is heard in the writings of Hoveden is exchanged in those of Matthew Paris for indignant comment on unwise administration, and uncourtly criticism on the king's domestic and foreign policy;" yet the first of these ancient chroniclers closes his history with the year 1202, and the latter with the year 1273. Such was the progress made in the thirteenth cen tury. A little more than a century later we find the insurrectionist under Wat Tyler, who were chiefly villeins, boldly demanding from the king the rights of freemen, the liberty to trade in the market towns without tolls or imposts, and the legalization of the money-rents, which in practice had already superseded personal services in payment for the occupation of land. And it has already been seen that although the insurrection was crushed, it did not fail to exert a powerful influence in hastening the consummation of the objects aimed at.

It was not without many struggles, however, that the lords relinquished their control over their subjects. In the middle of the fourteenth century, when free labor had become quite general, they made their first attempt to recover, by parliamentary enactment, the substantial results of that authority which, as individuals, they had found themselves unable to maintain. The great plague of 1349, above referred to, had swept off a large portion of the population, and labor, as we have already seen, became extremely dear. To reduce its price, a royal proclamation was issued, fixing the rates of wages, and this, having proved ineffective, was speedily followed by the famous "statute of laborers," which provided for the enforcement of obedience to its enactments by means of fines and corporal punishment. The statute states that since the pestilence no person would serve unless he was paid double the usual wages allowed five years before, to the great detriment of the lords and commons; it then provides that in future carters, plowmen, plow drivers, shepherds, swine-herds, and other servants should be content with such liveries and wages as they received in the twentieth year of the king's* reign, and two or three years before; and that in districts where they had been severally paid in wheat, they should receive wheat or money at the rate of ten pence a bushel, at the option of their employers; they were to be hired by the year and other accustomed periods, and not by the day; weeders and haymakers were to be paid at the rate of one penny, mowers five pence per acre, or five pence a day; reapers during the first week in August two pence a day, and trom that time till the end of the month three pence a day, without diet or other perquisite. Laborers of this description were enjoined to carry

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their implements of husbandry openly in their hands to market-towns,

and to apply for hire in a public quarter of the town.

The wages for threshing were then regulated. A man, for threshing a quarter of wheat or rye, was allowed $2\frac{1}{2}d$.; for threshing a quarter of barley, oats, beans, and peas, $1\frac{1}{2}d$., or a certain number of sheaves or bushels. In places where it had been customary to pay in kind, laborers were to be sworn twice a year to observe these regulations, and offenders were punishable with three or more days' imprisonment in the stocks.

Wages of artificers were fixed at the following rates: A master-carpenter, by the day, 3d.; a master-mason, by the day, 4d.; other carpenters, by the day, 2d.; other masons, by the day, 3d.; their servants, by the day, $1\frac{1}{2}d$.; from Easter to Michaelmas without diet. Tilers, by the day, 3d.; their knaves, by the day, $1\frac{1}{2}d$.; thatchers, by the day, 3d.; their knaves, by the day, $1\frac{1}{2}d$.; plasterers, and other workers of mudwalls, by the day, 3d.; their knaves, by the day, $1\frac{1}{2}d$.; from Easter to Michaelmas without diet.

In 1360 the statute of laborers was confirmed by Parliament, and it was provided that servants absenting themselves from their work, or quitting their place of abode, should be imprisoned for fifteen days and branded in the forehead with an iron in the form of the letter F. In cases where laborers fled into the towns, the magistrates were directed to deliver them up; and if they failed to do so, were subjected to a penalty of fifteen pounds, of which ten pounds went to the king and five pounds to the master by whom the fugitive was claimed.

In 1363 a law was enacted to regulate the diet and apparel of laborers. It directed that artificers and servants should be served once a day with meat and fish, or the waste of other victuals, as milk and cheese, according to their station; and they should wear cloth of which the whole piece did not cost more than twelve pence per yard. The cloth of yeo-

piece did not cost more than twelve pence per yard. The cloth of yeomen and tradesmen was not to cost more than one shilling and sixpence per yard. Carters, plowmen, ox-herds, neat-herds, shepherds, and all others employed in husbandry, were to use no kind of cloth but that called black russet, twelve pence per yard. Clothiers were commanded to manufacture the necessary kind of cloth, and tradesmen to have a sufficient stock on hand at the established legal prices. Twenty-five years later another law was enacted prohibiting servants from changing their place of abode.

Under Henry VI justices of the peace were empowered to fix the price of labor every Easter and Michaelmas, by proclamation; and in 1444 the wages of agricultural laborers was limited by act of Parliament to

the following rates:

I.—YEARLY WAGES.

A bailiff in husbandry, £1 3s. 4d., with food and drink, and 5s. for clothing.

A chief-hind, carter, or chief-shepherd, £1, with food and drink, and

4s. for clothing.

A common farm-servant, 15s. with food and drink, and 3s. 4d. for clothing.

A woman-servant, 10s., with food and drink, and 4s. for clothing. A child under 14 years of age, 6s., with food and drink, and 3s. for clothing.

II.—DAILY WAGES.

A mower, with food and drink, 4d. a day; without, 6d. a day.

A reaper or carter, with food and drink, 3d. a day; without, 5d. a day.

Women, and other laborers, with food and drink, 24d, a day: without, 4d. a day.

A farm-servant intending to leave his place at the end of the year was required to give his master six months' notice; and if he failed to do so, he was obliged to remain with him another year.

The following were the rates of daily wages for artificers, as fixed

by the same statute:

		n Easter chaelmas.	Between Michael- mas and Easter.				
	With diet.	Without diet.	With diet.	Without diet.			
A master mason	d. 4 4	d. 51 41	d. 3 3	d. 41 41			
A slater		41	21	4			
A common carpenter	2	31	114	3			

In the reign of Henry VIII it was enacted that no serving man under the degree of a gentleman should wear a long gown or coat, containing more than three broad yards, or trimmed with fur, under the penalty of forfeiture; nor any garde hose, or cloth above the price of twenty pence. The fashion of wearing peaks to shoes or boots, of a length exceeding eleven inches, was prohibited to all but gentlemen.

The rate of wages may be collected from the statute of 1496, men-

tioned above, and was as follows:

Agricultural servants, with diet for one year.

To a bailiff of husbandry, not more than £1 16s. 8d.; for clothing, 5s. A chief-hind or chief-shepherd, £1; for clothing, 5s.

A common servant of husbandry, 16s. 8d.; for clothing, 4s.

A woman-servant, 10s.; for clothing, 4s.

A child under 14 years of age, 6s. 8d.; for clothing, 4s.

The daily wages of artificers and other laborers, as fixed by the same statute, was as follows:

	Between Easter and Michaelmas.	Between Michael- mas and Easter.
A master mason, master carpenter, rough mason, brick-layer, master tiler, plumber, glazier, carver, joiner	Per diem. With diet, 4d Without diet, 6d Without diet, 4d Without diet, 4d Without diet, 6d With diet, 3d Without diet, 5d With diet, 3d With diet, 3d With diet, 2d With diet, 2d With diet, 4d	Per diem. { With diet, 3d. { Without, 5d. } With diet, 1½d { Without diet, 3d.

If any unemployed person refused to serve at the above wages, he might be imprisoned till he found sureties to serve according to the statute. The latter part of this statute regulates the hours of work and meals, by providing that the hours of labor, from March to September, shall be from 5 o'clock in the morning till 7 in the evening; that one hour shall be allowed for breakfast, an hour and a half for dinner, and half an hour for noon-meate. The hours of labor in winter are from "springing of day" to dark, and one only hour is allowed for dinner, the extrahalf-hour at the meal being allowed for sleeping, from the middle of May to the middle of August.

The same scale of prices as is given in the foregoing table was sub-

stantially re-established by the statute of 1514.

It must not be supposed, however, that the prices fixed by statute were universally, or even generally, adhered to among the people,* and for evidence in regard to the actual rates of wages and the cost of subsistence, it is necessary to look to other sources. Thanks to the learned researches of Mr. Rogers and his patient examinations of ancient records, a large fund of authentic information upon these points is now available. The following tables, which are taken from that author's History of Agriculture and Prices in England, probably contain a greater amount of detailed information upon the subjects to which they relate than has ever before been given to the public, showing, as they do, the prices of labor and commodities in England for a period comprising nearly the latter half of the thirteenth and all of the fourteenth century.

Table I shows the highest prices for threshing a quarter of wheat, barley, and oats, respectively, in the eastern, midland, southern, western, and northern counties of England, and in North and South Wales.† The

prices are expressed in pence.

Table II shows the average cost of reaping an acre of (1) wheat, (2) barley, (3) drage, (4) oats, (5) rye, (6) beans, peas, and vetches. In that table the seventh column contains the rate for mowing an acre of grass, the sign t, when used, showing that the making of the hay is included. The eighth column relates to the daily wages of thatchers, the ninth to that of a thatcher's assistant, and the tenth to the wages paid to the thatcher and his assistant together.

In Table III, the first column shows the average, and the second the highest daily wages of carpenters. The columns relating to masons, tilers, slaters, and sawyers show the highest daily wages in these trades. In the case of tilers and slaters, the sign * indicates that, wherever it is used in the columns relating to these two trades, the wages of an assistant is included.

Table IV shows the prices of threshing, reaping, mowing, and thatching, and of various kinds of mechanical labor, by decennial averages, with the general average (1) for the ninety years before, and (2) for the fifty years after, the great plague.

Table V shows the price of the same kinds of labor for the same

periods, expressed in grains of pure silver:

†North Wales is included with the northern, and South Wales with the western, counties of England.

^{*}Despite repeated legislation and incessant complaint, the laborer ultimately secured the advance which he demanded for his service.—History of Agriculture and Prices, vol. 1. n. 62.

TABLE I.—HIGHEST PRICES FOR THRESHING

		East. Midland.						South.			West.		North.			
A. D.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat,	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat	Barley.	Oats.	
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TABLE I.—HIGHEST PRICES FOR THRESHING—Continued.

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				4	34	31	3	2	Ĩ <u>}</u>	- 1					
			•••••	3	2	8	3	2	11	3	2	11	••••	•••••	••••
			:::::	2	2	-75	3	2	2	21	11	1 1 2 2			
				3	2,		3	2	2	ର ର ର ୬	1 1 1 2 2	1			••••
				3	24	2 2	3 3	2 2	2	3	2	3			••••
			24	00498899944 <u>9555</u>	ଗଣ ନିର୍ଦ୍ଦିଆ ସଂକ୍ରଣ ନମ୍ମ <u>ଅନ୍ତ</u>		ก 4 กก ก ณี ก ก ก ก ก ก ก ก ก ก ก ก ก ก	ସିନ୍ଦର କର ବ ବ ବ ବ ବ ବ ବ ବ ବ ବ ବ ବ	3 2 2 2 2 2 2 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 1 2	4	2	- 1			
				15	13	~ <u>~~</u> ~	3 3	2	11		11	••••			••••
				15	13	13	3	2	2	21 21 3	11 21 2	1 21 11			••••
	•••••			15	‡3	13	3	8	11	3	2	11	3	21	••••
w I		1		15	13	T.3	. 3	2	2 1				3 1	24	

* Nine bushels.

f Ten bushels.

‡ Winnowed.



'TABLE II .- PRICES OF REAPING, MOWING, AND THATCHING.

-		R	esping	, per a	ere.		g	day.	per day.	nan H
Years,	Wheat	Barley.	Drage.	Oats.	Rye.	Beans, pess, and vetches.	Mowing, per acre.	Thatcher, per day.	Assistant, per	Thatcher and man.
1261	Pence.	Pence.	Pence.	Pence.	Pence.	Pence.	Pence.	Pence.	Pence.	Penc
1262						l		1		
1963							31			
1264	••••		•••••	•••••	••••	•••••	31		••••	
1266	6	6		6			31			•••••
1267	65453 353	61		64 54 44			3½ 4½ 5 4½	2		
1268 1269	51	5		51			5	2		
1270	3	5 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	51	11	•••••	•••••	45 458	•••••	•	•••••
1271	3"	3		3			151 51 41	21	i	9
1272		• • • • • • •					4	2		3
1273 1274	4 5	4			4	;;-	4	2	ł	
1275	0	4 1 21			•••••	42	5 1 6	21 24	12	3
1276							6	संस्था	*	
1277	6	51 6		41			64	- 24	10	4 3
1978 1279	21	6 6 1	6	5	4 5		4	24 24 24		3
1280	51	6	6	54	41	41	*	21	1+	9
1281	54	6 5	5	51 41		7	4	3		
1283	51 51 51 51 51 51 41 51 51 51	51	5 5 5	41 31	5	51 41 7 44 31 31	51	3		
1284	71	41 53 64	9	32	41	31	5	•••••	•••••	• • • • •
1285	54	64	5	4i 4i	34	5	4	11		3
286	54	7	5	48			31	2	1 1	3 3 44 9
1987 1988	42	6		3	3 1 41	4	•••••	2	,ŧ	a 4
1289	5 4‡	44		4	11	41	7	91	1	1
1290						- 25		2		3
1291	41			41				2		4
1292 1293	- 4	5		41		41	• • • • • • •	୯ ପ ଶିଷି ର ଉପି ପି ପ	:	3 4 3 3 3 3 4 3 3 4 3
1294	- 21	42	5 51	4 41	3 5)	5 41	4	01	1,	3
1295	41 51 41 5 5 5 61 51 5	5 51	5	31	3	51	6	21	-	3
1296	5	5 5	5 44	4	3 41	41		2	1	3
1297 1298	5	- 5 1	5 5 1 5 1	31 4	32	4	41	21	į	3
1299	61	52	54	4	6	5 1	51	28	1 ²	3
300	6	5 54	51	5			61	21	1	3
301	54			4434		4	4	2	1	3
303	5.1	41 51	.41 6	#	41	6	••••	2	1	2
304	41	44		41		4	4 51	21	1	3
305	4	44	5	4		5	4	3000	1 1	3
306	4	6	44	4	• • • • • •		41	2	i	
308	31	81	- 22	4.	4	6	6 54	31	1	····· <u>5</u>
309	4 1 4 1 5 1 5 1 5 1 5 1 5 1 5 1 5 1 5 1	6 5 7 6 6	44	#	6	5 5 5	51	31	î	
310	5	64	61	5 51	5	5₹	51	24		3
311 312	61	67	44 44 64 6	51	6	5 <u>1</u>	53 53 6 54	2	11 14	
313	6	6	6	5 58	6	6	9	***************************************	11	4
314	61	61 1	61	61	64	62	51	31	11	4
315	7 6	7 64 74		64			8	4		4
316	68	71	6# 6#	6 5	•••••	52 5	84	34 24	17 14	4
318	54	54		5			7	24	i i	••••
319	54 64 54	1	6 1 58	5 51			7	24	1	4
390	54	54	54	44	•••••	5	6	24	17	4
392	58 51	51 51 61 71	54	4# 51	51	51	7	31	1# 1	4
.393	6	6	5 1 6 1 61	61	5 1 64		6	2 1 24	i	3
324	61	7	64	61	74 74	6 <u>4</u>	68	31	ī	4
325	6	8 54	•••••	57	74	61	4 51	3	;	3
327	5	9	5	24	5	****	5 1	28	1	••••
328	51 64 64 51 51	5 1	51	51 61 51 51 51 51 51 51 51	5	54	44	ଅଧିକ୍ର ଅଧିକ୍ର ଅଧିକ୍ର	i	:
329	5 1 72 61	6	5 1 64	51	54	61	5	3	1	4
330	71	•••••	64	54	••••••	ا برج	5 5 5	3	11	4
332	0‡ 64 7‡	~~;	61	5		61 61 71	6	3	1	1
	4	• .	~5	.	:-	¥#		٠.		,
333	78 52	9 1 54		61	81	7± 5±	51	31	1	4

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LABOR IN EUROPE UNDER FEUDAL SYSTEM.

TABLE II.—PRICES OF REAPING, MOWING, AND THATCHING—Continued.

		Re		5	<u> </u>				
Tours.	Wheat.	Barley.	Drage.	Onte.	Rye.	Beans, peas, and vetches.	Mowing, per acre.	Thatcher, per day.	Assistant, per day.
1335	Pence. 6 6 5 5 5 6 5 5 5 6 5 5 5 6 5 5 5 6 5 5 5 6 5 5 5 6 5 5 5 6 5 5 6 5 5 6 5 5 6 5 5 6 5 5 6 5 6 5 6 6 7 7 7 7	Pencet 79 66 65 716 66 7 716 718 719 918 86 86 71 111 111 111 111 111 111 111 111 111	Pences 5 5 6 6 6 6 7 7 7 6 7 8 8 8 11 11 12 10 9 9 8 6 7 7 8 7 8 7 7 8 7 7 8 7 7 8 7 7 8 7 7 8 7 7 8 7 7 8 7 8 7 7 8 7 8 8 7 7 8 8 8 7 7 8 8 8 8 7 8 7 8 8 8 8 7 8	Pencet 5 5 4 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 6 6 6 7 7 7 7 8 7 7 8 7 8 7 7 8 7 8 7 7 8 7 8 7 7 8	Pence: 51 7 55 61 57 72 9 92 72 73 8	Pence. 51 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	Personal State		Pence. 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

TABLE III.—PRICES OF MECHANICAL LABOR.

Years.	Carpenter average.	Garpenter.	Mason.	Tiler.	Slater.	Sawyer.	Sawing per 100 feet.	Years.	Carpenters' average.	Carpenter.	Mason.	Tiller.	Slater.	Sawyer.	Sawing per 100 feet.
	Pence.	Pence.	Pence.	Pence.	Pence.	Pencs.	Pence.		Pence.	Pence.	Pencs. 3½ 4	Pence.	Pence.	Pence. 31 3	Pence.
1263	31	4	··· <u>.</u> ;·			24		1334. 1335. 1336. 1337. 1338.	3	6,	34	31 *6 *7 4 *5 *7		3+	
1904	3	3	24 24		31	21		1335.	31	27	1 2	*7	31	3	
1266		I			31 21 11	~		1337.	3	44	1	4			8
1267	3	3			11			1338.	3	41	4	*5			
1268	21	1 4						1339.	21	1	··· _* ;·		.4	··· <u>;</u> ;·	8
1979	31	1 . 3		•••••				1340.	94	5	3 1 3	*8	*5	21	
1263 1264 1265 1271 1272 1277 1279 1279 1279 1279 1279 1290 1291 1292 1293 1294 1295 1295 1296 1297 1290 1291 1292 1293 1294 1295 1295 1295 1296 1297 1293 1294 1297 1293 1294 1297 1295 1295 1296 1297 1296 1297 1296 1297 1296 1297 1296 1297 1296 1297 1296 1297 1296 1297 1296 1297 1296 1297 1298 1298 129	3 24 24 24 24 24 24 24 3 24 4 3 4 3 4 3	3 4 3 3 2 2 2 3 2 4 5 5 4 3 3 4 5 5 6 4 5 6 6 7 6 7 8 7 8 7 8 7 8 7 8 7 8 7 8 7 8						1339. 1340. 1341. 1342. 1343. 1344.	21	Pence. 6 41 41 42 45 5 3 41 3 41 3 41	l	*8 *6 *5 *5 *5 *6 *7 5	41 *51 *5 *5	24	
1275	21	21			2			1343.	3	4		*5			
1277	2	2						1344.	24	3,	31	"5,			7 7 9
1278	2	21	ļ	*51				1345. 1346. 1347. 1348. 1349. 1350. 1351. 1352. 1353. 1354. 1355. 1356. 1357. 1358.	31	32	4	-31	*43		7
1280	0	0		*51				1347.	34	44		*6			
1381	a41	a5}	5			41 21 21 21		1348.	3	4		*7			
1282	b32	65			6	24		1349.	41	5 7	4 3		*101	3	
1283	a1	4		*5		24		1350.	41	7	3		7104		
1985				3				1351	3			4 4 *7 *8 *6 *10			••••
1286	3	l4	5			3		1353.	4	a19		*7			
1287	3	3	5 63 11 3 44		l			1354.	4	6	3	18			8
1288	3	5	1 11		*51	31	9	1355.	4	6	-	.76		4	
1289	3	#	3	•••••	0 1	35	6	1350.	1 2	5			5	4	•••••
1291	21	3						1358.	1 7	44	6 5 <u>1</u> 5	6			
1292	2	ž						1359.	41	6	51		4	6	
1293	24	3		31				1360.	4	5	5	···· <u>·</u> -·		<u>-</u>	
1294	2	1 4	3	•••••	41	×		1361.	4*	0,		5 6		5	
1295	94	3			**	ब्र 24 34	7	1363	1	6	8		6	5	
1297	24	1	21	*4			7 7 81	1364.	4	5	6 5	3 1 5			
1298	2	4		*4 *6 *54			81	1365.	4	6		5		5 <u>1</u> 5	
1299	31	6	<u>-</u>	*54	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	· ::-	8	1366.	4	5	4 61			5	
1300	3	1 1	3	•••••		31	8	1967.	1 21	5	08	51 5 5 5 5 6 6 *9 6 5	5		•••••
1302	21	3		*4	*5			1369.	4	l š		815	l	5	
1303	21	34		*4	1			1370.	4	6		5			
1304	31	42			3	24		1371.	4	6	7 61 6 5	6	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		
1305	3	5		2	*61			1372.	51	7	64	+6		6 6 5 5	
1300	92	31	31					1374	1 21	6	5	6	5	5	
1308	3	5	3 1 41 4 41	4	*61 *61 31			1375.	4	6		5		5	
1309	3	5	4	2	*61	3) 4		1376.	4	6		6			
1310	31	4	41	4	31	4	:	1377.	51	-164	8,		4.	•••••	
1311	011	6		t		•••••	11	1070	1 2	10	8 61 4	*10	a `		·····
1313	4	6		-6		3‡		1380	44	Š			l:	I	
1311 1314 1315 1316 1317 1318 1319 1319 1319 1324 1324 1325 1327 1328 1328 1329	口口的语言的 经收益的 经存储的 计记录 计记录 化二甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基甲基	43548323424446452345355546465465525555445454544446		4 4 9 4 6 55 +57 +5	*51	ļ <u></u> .	8 12	1360 1361 1362 1363 1363 1364 1365 1366 1367 1369 1370 1372 1373 1374 1375 1376 1377 1378 1379 1380 1381 1382 1382 1384 1385 1386 1387 1381 1382 1382 1383 1384 1385 1386 1386 1386 1386 1386 1386 1386 1386	CC 3333332222323232333444344444664444444444	କ୍ଷୁମ୍ନ ତେ ଓ ଅକ୍ତିକ ତେ ଅନ୍ତର ଓ ଅନ୍ତର ଅନ୍	7 5 61	*12			
1315	3	4	4 9 <u>1</u>	*7	•••••	•••••	12	1382	455 445 844 45 445 444 444 444 444 444 4	4	5,		·····	••••	
1316	34	ď	¥4	"D#	····	•••••		1394		46	6	5 5 6		5 5	•••••
1318	34	5	4		5 6 5 6		l	1385	44	6		6			
1319	24	Š			5			1386.	44	6	4		ļ		
1320.	34	5	4 4 3 3	*6	64	· <u>-</u>		1387.	5_	5		•••••	44 54		
1321	34	5	4	*6 *7 *6 *5	•••••	3	····	1388.	54	g	6 8 6	•••••	P±		
1393	37	1 2	1 2	-6	•••••		9 7 9 7	1390	31	64	Ř	6			
1324	31	5	3	*5			اۋا	1391.	4	5	ĕ	6 5 5	8		
1325	31	4	31			3	7	1392.	5	6	6	5			
1326	3	5	34	4 *4‡ *4 *6	•••••		ฐ	1393.	#	-16	• • • • • •	••••		6	
1397	31	4	32	74*	•••••	•••••	8	1305	👯	alx R	····a	*10	8	6	16
1320	34	1	4	*6		34		1396	44	6	6	41		4	
1330	31	43	44	*6	61			1397.	42	6	4	7		5	
1331	04		41	*7	64 64 34			1398.	41	5	5	*8	4	6	
1332	31	4	4 4 4 4	*6 *7 *6 *5	34	31		1392. 1393. 1394. 1395. 1396. 1397. 1398. 1399. 1400.	#	82	6 6 4 5 8	*12 44 74 *8 *8 *134		6 6 4 5 6 6	

See comments on Table III, page 91, for explanation of *.

a London. b Chiefly Oxford. c Oxford only.

TABLE IV .- PRICES OF THRESHING BY DECENNIAL PERIODS.

(v) Decennial averages. Threshing, (per day.)

	:	East.		М	idlar	ıd.	8	louth	le.	_ '	West	•	1	orth	
Yours.	Wheat	Barley.	Onte.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.
1929-1970. 1971-1860. 1971-1860. 1991-1300. 1301-1316. 3311-1320. 3311-1330. 3311-1350. 3311-1350. 3311-1360. 3311-1370. 3311-1380. 3311-1390.	4 2 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 4 4 5 3 4 5 5 3 4 5 5 3 4 5 5 5 5	4. 11 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2	***************************************	d. 1 15 15 15 15 15 22 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25	d. 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	चं जैसेस्ट्रे	d. 111111111111111111111111111111111111	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	4. 22.22.22.22.22.22.22.22.22.22.22.22.22	d. 111111111111111111111111111111111111	d. 11 11 11 11 12 12 12 12 12 13 14 14	d. 21 22 3 3 22 3 3 4 4 3	d. 11 12 11	1 1 1 1 2 2
Average up to— 1350	3) 41	15 91	1 24	21 31	1# 2#	1 94	2 1 3 1	1# 9#	1 14	2 8 3	11 24	1) 1)	2 1 34	1# 9#	1 9

(b) Decennial averages. Reaping, mowing, thatching.

		Re	aping,	per ac	re.		eg.	da V	day.	ä
Years.	Wheat.	Barley.	Drage.	Onta	Bye.	Beens, pease, and vetches.	Mowing, per	Thatcher, per	Assistant, per	Thatcher and
1961-1970 1971-1980 1971-1980 1971-1980 1971-1980 1971-1980 1971-1980 1971-1970 1971-1970 1971-1970 1971-1970 1971-1980 1971	Pence. 51 55 56 66 66 71 71 10 76	Pence. 51 41 52 55 55 61 77 71 61 61 10 71	Pence. 51 6 51 5 6 6 61 9 91 7	Pence. 51 41 41 41 51 51 51 51 51 71 71	Pence. 41 41 41 61 6 6 6 61 61 71	Pence. 41 41 51 51 6 51 71 71 10 71	Pence. 4 51 41 51 61 51 61 71 61 61	Pence. 2 21 21 21 21 21 21 31 41 31 41	Pence. 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 2 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 1 1 1	Pence. 34 34 34 44 44 55 64 6 7
9miral average : 1961-1350 1351-1400	5 1 81	5 1 81	54 81	4 <u>1</u> 81	5 ‡	5 <u>1</u> 81	5 <u>1</u>	24 31	1 24	ä

(c) Decennial averages. Carpenters, &c., (per day.)

. Теагл.	Carpenter.	Carpenter, highest rate.	Mason.	Tiler.	Tiler and man.	Slater.	Slater and man.	Sawyer.	Sawing per 100 feet.
1963-1970 1271-1280. 1281-1290. 1291-1300. 1301-1310. 1311-1390. 1321-1330. 1331-1340. 1341-1350. 1351-1360. 1361-1370. 1371-1380. 1371-1380. 1381-1390.	Pence. 31 21 21 31 31 31 31 31 41 41 41 41	Pence. 34 34 44 44 44 45 55 66 66	Pence. 21 4 24 4 31 31 41 51 61 6	Pence. 3 3 3 6 4 3 5 5 5 5 5 6	Pence. 51 5 5 4 51 51 61 61 12 11 8	Pence. 21 21 21 31 31 51 51 41 5 41	Pence. 51 61 52 61 61 61 61	Pence. 21 31 31 32 32 32 41 5 51	Pence. 78 78 108 8 74 8
General average : 1963-1350	31 48	4 1 5 <u>2</u>	3 1 54	4 58	5 1 101	3 1 5	6 1 8	3 51	15

Table V.—Prices of threshing, etc., in grains of silver.

(a.) Threshing, (per day.)

nil.	-	East.		1	4idlan	d.		South			West			North.	og!
Years.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.
1259-1270 1271-1280 1281-1290 1291-1300 1301-1310 1301-1310 1311-1320 1331-1330 1331-1340 1341-1350 1351-1360 1371-1360 1371-1380 1371-1380 1381-1390 1391-1400	56. 72 62. 87 62. 87 73. 19 68. 03 62. 87 70. 61 68. 03 87. 66 103. 19	7 30, 92 7 30, 92 7 38, 67 9 36, 09 7 36, 09 1 38, 67 8 41, 25 6 78, 34	18. 05 20. 62 20. 62 23. 2 23. 2 23. 2 23. 2 25. 78 28. 36 46. 4 62. 87 30. 92	43. 83 48. 98 48. 98 46. 4 62. 87 51. 56 59. 3 73. 19 73. 19 65. 43	33. 51 30. 92 30. 92 30. 92 41. 25 33. 51 6 30. 92 41. 25 6 56. 72 6 68. 87 6 59. 3	20. 62 20. 62 20. 62 20. 62 23. 2 20. 62 25. 78 28. 36 30. 92 38. 67 62. 87 41. 25	65. 45 51. 56 54. 14 51. 56 56. 72 54. 14 54. 14 62. 87 73. 19 75. 76 82. 5 62. 87	28. 36 33. 51 30. 92 38. 67 33. 51 33. 51 41. 25 41. 25 68. 03 41. 25	18. 05 20. 62 20. 62 23. 2 20. 62 23. 2 23. 2 30. 92 36. 09 41. 25	51. 56 46. 4 46. 4 51. 56 51. 56 48. 98 48. 98 59. 3 62. 87 65. 45 62. 87	33. 51 30. 92 30. 92 30. 92 30. 92 53. 51 43. 83 46. 4 46. 4 41. 25	20. 62 23. 2 20. 62 20. 62 20. 62 25. 78 25. 78 30. 92 41. 25 30. 92 30. 92	48. 98 41. 25 62. 87 62. 87 59. 3 62. 87 62. 87 82. 5	25. 78 30. 92 25. 78 41. 25 30. 92 33. 51 48. 98 30. 92 54. 14	15. 47 18. 05 20. 65 20. 65 23. 2 28. 36 30. 95 41. 25
Average up to— 1350														36. 09 51. 56	

(b.) Reaping. &c., (per day.)

		I	Reaping,	(per acre	.)		ecre.	day.	day.	n and
Years.	Wheat	Barley.	Drage.	Oats.	Bye.	Beans, pease, and vetches.	Mowing, per a	Thatcher, per	Assistant, per	Thatcher and
1961-1270	113. 44 103. 12 105. 7 106. 98 105. 7 126. 33 123. 75 123. 75 126. 33 129. 75 126. 33 146. 95 207. 25 107. 25 108. 11	113. 44 97. 97 118. 59 103. 12 118. 59 134. 06 128. 91 144. 37 146. 95 172. 73 175. 31 207. 25 207. 25	113, 44 123, 75 103, 19 108, 28 103, 19 126, 33 123, 75 106, 28 123, 75 141, 8 183, 05 186, 69 189, 2 144, 37	108.28 67.66 87.66 87.66 87.66 113.44 110.96 100.55 119.59 139.22 157.26 204.67 207.25 146.95	92. 31 87. 66 85. 06 97. 97 126. 33 123. 75 123. 75 128. 91 175. 31 162. 42	100, 55 95, 39 105, 7 105, 7 123, 75 110, 86 113, 44 121, 17 159, 84 204, 67 207, 25 146, 95	82. 5 106. 28 100. 55 105. 7 100. 55 136. 64 110. 86 103. 12 134. 06 131. 48 154. 59 149. 53 149. 53 139. 22	41, 25 48, 98 43, 83 51, 56 51, 56 59, 3 62, 87 59, 3 73, 19 73, 19 85, 08 80, 92 85, 08	20, 62 18, 05 18, 05 20, 62 25, 78 20, 62 23, 2 23, 2 41, 25 41, 25 51, 56 43, 83 54, 14	63. 19 68. 03 59. 3 63. 19 70. 61 92. 81 60. 92 85. 06 85. 06 113. 44 116. 59 139. 22 123. 75
Average : 1261-1350 1351-1400	116.01 175.31	121, 17 183, 05	116. 01 167. 58	100. 55 170. 16	108. 28 159. 84	108. 28 172. 73	108. 28 144. 37	54. 14 80. 92	20. 62 46. 4	73. 1 128. 9

Years.	Carpenter, average.	Carpenter.	Mason.	Tiler.	Tiler and man.	Slater.	Slater and man.	Sawyer per day.	Sawing per 100 feet,
1263–1270	65. 45 51. 56 73. 19 54. 14 62. 87 75. 76 70. 61 68. 03 65. 45 87. 66 87. 66	73. 19 56. 72 82. 5 68. 34 85. 08 100. 55 100. 55 95. 39 87. 66 118. 59 113. 44	51. 56 82. 5 56. 72 82. 5 78. 34 783. 4 80. 92 73. 19 100. 55 110. 86	62.87 73.19 65.45 123.75 82.5 68.34 103.19 163.12 103.12	108. 28 103. 12 105. 7 82. 5 121. 17 113. 44 126. 33 121. 17 172. 73	51. 56 41. 25 92. 81 68. 03 78. 34 110. 96 113. 44	118, 59 126, 33 118, 59 134, 06 126, 33 131, 48	51. 56 65. 45 59. 3 70. 61 68. 03 68. 03 62. 87 56. 72 95. 39 103. 12	154. 59 146. 95 909. 83 165. 165. 159. 84 165.
1391-1360 1381-1360 1391-1460 Average: 1963-1350 1351-1400.	103. 12 97. 97 95. 39 65. 45 95. 39	134. 06 113. 44 128. 91 85. 08 121. 17	196, 33 193, 75 116, 01 73, 19 116, 01	113. 44 113. 44 123. 75 82. 5 110. 86	196, 93 247, 5 235, 61 110, 86 212, 41	90. 23 103. 12 92. 81 65. 45 103. 12	165. 126. 33 165.	113. 44 103. 12 116. 01 62. 87 105. 7	330. 165. 247. 5

The eleven tables which follow give the prices of various commodities in England for the period comprised in the foregoing tables on wages:

TABLE I .- AVERAGE PRICE OF GRAIN BY DECENNIAL PERIODS, (PER QUARTER.)

Decade.	Wheat	Barley.	Oats.	Beans.	Pease.	Rye.	Malt, (first quality.)
1361-1270 1271-1290 1381-1290 1381-1290 1391-1300 1301-1310 1311-1390 1241-1330 1241-1350 1251-1360 1251-1360 1251-1360 1251-1360 1251-1360 1251-1360 1251-1360	4 8 7 8 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	8. 5544 3 5554 3 554 5 66 3 7 4 3 88 7 104 3 104 3 3 56	4. 1144 3.5554 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2	40000000000000000000000000000000000000	4.00 10 12 12 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15	s. d. 44 91 3 11 4 4 4 6 5 1 5 3 1 5 3 1 5 5 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	8. d. 3 74 44 44 64 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6
General average, 140 years.	5 104	4 31	2 51	4 31	3 9	4 4	4 10

TABLE II.—AVERAGE PRICE OF GRAIN, BY DECENNIAL PERIODS, REDUCED TO GRAINS OF PURE SILVER, (PER QUARTER.)

Decade.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Beans.	Pease.	Rye.	Malt, (first quality.)
1261-1270	1167. 89	858. 51	483. 11	790. 3	742. 5	1077. 66	899.70
1271-1280	1397. 34	1077.66	592, 93	1049.3	957. 48	1186.93	1077.60
1281-1290	1255. 55	85 0. 78	557.87	843, 05	796, 64	·970. 37	1165.3
1291-1300	1508. 2	1098, 28	602, 28	1103, 44	1080. 23	1157, 58	1268.4
1301-1310	1387. 03	983, 26	607. 44	1020, 94	931.7	1082, 81	1015.7
1311-1320	1944. 91	1374, 14	768, 28	1434, 28	1289.06	1590.7	1619.0
1321-1330	1725, 76	1116, 33	667, 73	1374, 14	1167, 89	1315, 84	1455.0
1331-1340	1170.47	845, 62	510.47	855, 94	742. 5	820, 84	978.1
7341-1350	1302, 95	917, 81	557, 87	910.08	930, 61	922.97	1049.3
1351-1360	1705, 14	1134, 17	702, 25	1077, 66	975, 53	1100.86	1366.4
1361-1370	1798, 53	1239.08	786, 33	1308, 11	1085, 39	1281.33	1634.5
1371-1380	1510.78	954, 91	597, 12	1041, 56	810, 53	1015, 78	1013.9
1381-1390	1278, 75	832, 73	536, 25	1100, 86	830, 16	917.81	1087.9
1391-1400	1300.37	863. 67	563. 03	1052, 87	845. 62	840. 47	1111.1
General average, 140 years.	1450, 22	1041.34	612, 59	1063, 19	929, 12	1087. 97	1197. 2

TABLE III .- AVERAGE PRICE OF CATTLE AND HORSES, BY DECENNIAL PERIODS.

Decade.	Oxen.	Cows.	Bulls.	* Affri and -stotts.	Cart- horses.
1961-1970	a. d. 10 3 12 24 10 4 10 7 11 114 14 64 12 94 13 54 15 10 13 44 14 94	2. d. 6 2 7 111 6 10 8 11 8 7 1 10 10 10 1 12 2 1 9 3 1 10 2 11 10 1 11 4 1 11 8 7 2 10 8	2. d. 10 6 9 6½ 8 8½ 11 4½ 11 11 10½ 9 1½ 10 10½ 9 11½	4 3 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	s. d. 17 1± 17 1± 20 9 14 5 16 4± 19 4 21 0 19 5± 17 5± 17 5± 23 9± 9± 9± 90 9± 90 9± 90 9± 90 9± 90 9± 90 9±
General average	13 11	9 5	10 44	13 51	19 34

^{*} The affri was an ill-looking, little horse, used chiefly in farm-work.

TABLE IV .- AVERAGE PRICE OF SHEEP AND HOGS, BY DECENNIAL PERIODS.

Decade.	Muttons, high- est price.	Muttons.	Ewel.	Lamba.	† Porculf.	† Pored.	Sows.	Boars.	†Porcellf.
1961-7970	4. d. 5. d. 1. 5. d. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.	4. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.	2 d. 1 2 d. 1 3 d. 1 1 d. 1	44 84 84 84 94 94 64 74 104 94 74	2. d. 0 71 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	4. 2. 3. 5. 6. 6. 10. 5. 6. 6. 10. 5. 6. 6. 10. 5. 6. 6. 7. 7. 7. 7. 7. 7. 7. 7. 7. 7. 7. 7. 7.	2 d. 3 64 2 2 3 3 4 2 9 4 7 5 1 3 7 2 3 11	4 6 4 6 5 1 3 7 4 3 1 1 5 4 0 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	6 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6
General average	1 104	1, 5	1 2	8	1 8	2 114	3 41	4 71	54

[†] Porculi is supposed to mean lean hoge; Porci, fatted hoge; and Porcelli, sucking pigs.

TABLE V.-AVERAGE PRICE OF POULTRY, BY DECENNIAL PERIODS.

Decade.	Capons.	Cocks.	Hens.	Pullets.	George.	Goalings.	Ducks.	Pigeons, per dozen.
1961-1970	Pence. 24 14 24 24 25 3 3 24 34 34 34	Pence. 188 118 118 118 118 118 118 118 118 11	Pence. 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 14 24 24 24	Pence.	Pence. 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21	Pence. 2 11 12 22 22 24 24 24 24 3	Pence. 11 11 12 12 11 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12	Pence. 14 34 34 34 34 44 44 44
General average	3	14	15	• 1	34	21	2	34

TABLE VI.-AVERAGE PRICE OF WOOL, BY DECENNIAL PERIODS.

Decade.	Wool, (great.)	Lamb.	Pound.	ound. Decade. Wool, (great.) Lam		Lamb.	Pound.
1200-1270 1271-1280 1281-1290 1291-1300 1301-1310 1311-1320 1331-1340	4 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	2 d. 3 04 2 2 1 4 2 04 2 04 1 34	2; 3; 3; 2; 3; 4; 3;	1341-1350. 1351-1360. 1361-1370. 1371-1380. 1381-1390. 1391-1400. General average	2 0 2 01	s. d. 1 0½ 1 0 1 6½ 1 10½ 1 5½ 1 3	44 34 24 24 44 34

The prices in the first column refer to the fleeces of sheep, and those in the second to fleeces of lambs. The average weight of the fleece is 1 pound $7\frac{3}{4}$ ounces.

TABLE VII.—AVERAGE PRICE OF HIDES, BY DECENNIAL PERIODS.

Docada.	Ox.	Cow.	Horse.	Stott.	Horse, (tawed.)	
1990-1970. 1971-1980. 1991-1990. 1991-1900. 1991-1310. 1911-1280. 1321-1330. 1341-1350. 1351-1360. 1351-1370. 1371-1380. 1371-1380. 1391-1390. 1391-1390.	3.34 2.34 2.34 2.36 2.36 2.36 2.37 2.36 3.34 3.34 3.34 3.34 3.34 3.34 3.34 3	# . d. 1 93 1 102 1 63 1 93 1 11 1 11 1 11 1 11 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	s. d. 0 10 1 01 0 112 1 12 0 113 1 62 1 6 0 10	8. d. 0 94 1 02 1 0 0 11 0 118	1 10 1 5½ 1 4 2 2 1 11½ 1 7½ 2 2 2 2 1 64 2 4 1 8	
General average	3 21	1 8	1 41	0 111	1 10	

TABLE VIII.—AVERAGE PRICE OF CHEESE, BUTTER, AND EGGS, BY DECENNIAL PERIODS.

	Cheese.				Butter.					Eggs.
Decade.	Wey, (1961bs.	Stone, (14 lbs.)	Clove, (7 lbs.)	Pound.	Wey, (1961bs.)	Stone, (14 lbs.)	Clove, (7 lbs.)	Gallon.	Pound.	Hund., (120.)
1960-1970	s. d. 10 1 9 8 8 111 9 7 11 7 11 31 11 31 8 4 10 92 10 22 9 6 10 2	d. 77 62 64 71 8 91 100 9	d. 51 41 5 41 41 41 41 41	d.	a. d. 9 9 8 9h 10 0 9 0	d. 74 94 74 84 9 9 9 94 16	d. 4 51 5 5 5 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	6.44 66 66 9.91 7.81 8.9 9.1 8.9 9.1 8.9 9.1	d.	4 34 34 44 44 44 55 55 55
General average	9 112	8	41		9 6	94	41	71		44

TABLE IX.—AVERAGE PRICE OF WAX, CIDER, APPLES, ETC., BY DECENNIAL PERIODS.

Decade,	Wax,	Cider, (tun of 252 glns.)	Apples, (qr.)	Charcoal,	Sea-coal,	Fagots, (100.)
1860-1270	4.6 6 4 7 7 6 4 6 5 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	a. d. 10 54 10 24 11 24 10 64 13 64 10 1 44 16 14 16 14 19 24	s. d. 0 64 0 8 0 104 0 73 0 94 1 44 0 114 0 84 0 62 0 44	d. 34 8 74 54 6 6 84 64 68 8 104 10	s. d. 0 9 1 0 1 0 0 10 1 1 1 0 1 0 2 4 1 11½	s. d. 1 0 1 118 2 78 2 78 2 78 2 78 3 68 2 112 2 78 3 68 2 78 4 78 4 2 10
General average	61	11 48	0 9	71	1 4	8 8

Table X.—Average price of herrings, foreign produce, etc., by decennial periods.

Decade,	Herrings, (M = 1200.)	Wine, (dog. ging.)	Pepper, (lb.)	ОП, (gln.)	Sugar, (1b.)	Almonds, (ib.)	Ginger, (1b.)	Safron, (lb.)
1259-1270 1271-1280 1281-1290 1291-1300 1301-1310 1311-1320 1321-1330 1331-1340 1341-1350 1351-1360 1361-1370 1371-1380 1361-1390 1361-1390 1361-1390 1361-1390 1361-1390 1361-1390 1361-1390 1361-1390 1361-1390 1361-1390	a. d. 4 7% 5 1 6 44 6 9 7 04 10 24 8 24 9 3 13 84 14 44 15 32 15 24 7 5 15 0	8 1 2 6 6 1 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 1 2 1 1 2 1 1 2 1 1 2 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 1 2 1	8. d. 6 114 1 0 0 94 1 34 1 34 1 54 1 54 1 5 1 1 4 1 4 1 4 1 1 4 1 4	8. d. 0 8 1 0 1 6 0 11 1 12 1 13 1 44 1 44 1 42 1 44	2. d 1 44 1 8 1 8 1 1 9 0 11 1 9 1 54 1 64	3 14 14 14 14 13 34 3 3 3 3	1 32 1 91 1 91 1 4 1 91 1 4 1 6 1 5 9 3	13 0 5 5 6 8 5 8 4 9 5 0 4 9 15 0 1 15 11 11 15 11

TABLE XI.—AVERAGE PRICE OF CANVAS, LINEN, AND WOOLEN CLOTHS, BY DECENNIAL PERIODS.

	Canvas			Table-	Clo	Cloth.			
Decadę.	(coarse.)		Linen.	linen.	Best.	Second quality.			
	Doz. ells.	Doz. yds.	Doz. ella.	Doz. ells.	Pannus of 24 yards.	Pannus of 24 yards.			
1260-1270	4.32 6 52 4 8 0 0 0 8 5 5 3 1 4 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 4 1 9 9 9 4 1 9 9 9 4 1 9 9 9 9	3 9 2 0 4 0 5 0 4 0 3 8½ 11 9 8 0 6 9 5 10	8. 0.76 6.25 6.75 1.8 0.05 1.4 1.6 7.5 1.8 1.9 7.6	4 0 5 to 2 1 1 2 1 2 1 2 2 1 2 2 1 2 2 1 2 2 1 2	2 c. d. 4 2 0 4 11 9 3 11 8 4 3 4 3 15 3 3 14 0 4 4 8 4 10 84 3 19 74 3 17 84	# e. d. 1 12 3 1 9 12 1 19 12 1 17 10 1 6 24 1 13 22 1 14 10 1 7 0 1 19 54 2 50 2 10 22 2 10 2			
Averago: 1260-1350	2 6 1 4 10 1	3 9 8 1	4 12 8 42	3 3 6 7½	3 19 8 4 3 2	1 13 28 2 6 6			

Table XII.—Averages price of building-materials, laths, etc., by decennial periods.

Теаги .	Laths.	Plain tiles.	Crests.	Tile-pins.	Lath- nails.	Board- nails, &c.	Mills	tones.
I cara.	Per 1,000.	Per 1,000.	Per 1,000.	Per 1,000.	Per 1,000.	Per 1,000.	Foreign.	Bucks.
1261-1270	4 44 3 6 4 54 4 54 4 54 5 64 7 7 6 3 7 94 7 10	a. d. 3 5½ 2 11 2 5½ 2 17 2 72 2 5½ 5 5½ 5 5½ 5 9½ 4 7½ 3 9½ 4 9½	3 42 4 64 9 10 3 1 2 4 2 102 6 103 10 10 8 114 10 53	d. 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	8. d. 0 94 0 84 0 94 0 94 0 91 0 90 0 90 0 84 1 74 1 7 1 4 1 34	4233753555555555555555555555555555555555	s. d. 34 8 36 9 36 6 48 9 46 1 44 0 37 8 39 10 30 0 56 4 87 10 66 8 66 2	12 6 7 6 12 9 15 5 14 91 13 4 14 1
Average: 1261-1350	4 54 7 24	9 91 4 74	3 9 1	1 1 3	0 91 1 51	3 1 6 <u>1</u>	39 4 69 1	10 11 14 5

Comparing the rates paid for threshing in the thirteenth and four-teenth centuries, as shown in the foregoing tables, with those paid for the same labor in 1767, as given by Arthur Young in his Northern Tour, Mr. Rogers concludes that the medieval laborer was rather better paid than his descendant in the eighteenth century; for "while the laborer in Arthur Young's time got one-twenty-fourth part of wheat and barley, and about the one-and-twentieth part of oats, the laborer of the four-teenth century received rather more than an eighteenth in wheat, a twenty-second part of barley, and a little less than a fourteenth part of oats. These proportions are taken from the eastern counties, in which the rate for threshing wheat was above the average, that of barley rather less, and that of oats rather more. If, however, the other districts had been

taken, the rate would still have been favorable to the medieval laborer. though not to the extent which may be inferred from the case of the eastern counties." * * In this connection Mr. Rogers remarks that "no kind of labor appears to suggest more distinctly than that of threshing what was the ordinary rate of wages to an agricultural laborer." Elsewhere he refers to a practice not uncommon among farm-servants of contracting for the produce of cows, and even ewes, (for ewe-milk cheese was not unknown.) at an annual rent. This he regards as "an evidence that the condition and means of the persons who entered into hired service at annual wages and allowances with the lord's bailiff was far better than anything of which our modern experience informs us as to the condition of the descendants of these farm-servants in our own time." Indeed, he once expresses the opinion that the wages of labor generally, in the period embraced in the above tables, were "virtually higher than they have been from 1825 up to within the last five years, if, indeed, they were not higher than even they are now."

From an account of the expenditures of Merton College in rehuilding the bell-tower of their chapel, Mr. Rogers obtains the wages paid for certain kinds of labor for a period about half a century later than the conclusion of that embraced in his tables, the structure in question having been commenced in May, 1448, and concluded in May, 1450. "The laborers," says he, "are well paid. The chief mason, besides an annual pension of 20s., receives, whenever he is at work, 8d. a day. It appears that he resided in Oxford, for the college purchases straw and hay of The other masons get a fraction under 7d. a day for the greater part of the year, and from 51d. to nearly 6d in the three winter months. The carpenters who are merely engaged in rough work are paid 4d. a day, as are also the laborers, who seem to wait on the masons. quarrymen are paid from 41d. to 41d. These wages may, if we estimate them in modern money, be reckoned by the multiple of 12, and fully bear out that which has been often stated that the condition of laborers relatively to the price of the necessaries of life was high, not only in the period before us, but, as in this case, fifty years afterward; for the price of wheat during the first half of the fifteenth century was actually below the general average of the fourteenth."

It may be remarked here that the relation of wages to breadstuffs in the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, as compared with the relations between the same things in the eighteenth and nineteenth. does not alone furnish a sufficient test of the comparative condition of the laborer at these two periods; for even in the eighteenth century, to say nothing of the wonderful mechanical improvements of more recent times, the advance of the industrial arts must have placed within reach, even of the limited means of the working classes, many comforts and conveniences which were previously unknown to them. It must be confessed, however, that the progress of the nation has dealt very unequally with the descendants of the villeins and other servile classes of early medieval times; for while millions of these descendants, as farmers. tradesmen, merchants, manufacturers, and members of the learned professions, are now in the full enjoyment of political liberty and the blessings of modern civilization, there is a class, comprising the bulk of the agricultural laborers and the unskilled operatives of the manufacturing and commercial towns, whose condition is all the more wretched from its violent contrast with that of the more fortunate classes, and whose lot in life could scarcely have been more hopeless had they been born in the twelfth century instead of the nineteenth.

MANNERS, HOUSEHOLD EXPENSES, ETC.

To the foregoing tables may be added, in a less concise form, information derived from (1) the household-roll of Eleanor. Countess of Leicester. for A. D. 1265, and (2) the "Expenses" and "Accounts and memoranda" of Sir John Howard, first Duke of Norfolk, for the ten years from 1462 to 1471, inclusive. These quaint and interesting documents, together with the accounts of the executors of Eleanor, consort of Edward I, bearing date A. D. 1291, were prepared for publication by Beriah Botfield. esc.. who also wrote a valuable introduction explaining the papers, and giving some account of the lives of the persons to whom they relate. The papers and introduction together constitute a royal-octavo volume of 716 pages, which was issued from the Shakespeare Press, London, in 1841. The two earlier documents are printed in middle-age Latin: the other in the English of the time in which it was written. In addition to the statistical information which they contain, they furnish curious illustrations of the manners of the periods to which they respectively relate, and they also contain interesting memoranda of the lives of persons conspicuous in English history. The period between the insurrection of the barons, in the reign of Henry III, and the contest of the rival houses of York and Lancaster, in the fifteenth century, was signalized by some of the most important changes which the manners and institutions of the English people have ever undergone, and the effect of these changes upon the condition of the people is strikingly illustrated by a comparison of the accounts and memoranda of Sir John Howard with the household-roll of the Countess of Leicester, which was written about two hundred years earlier. "The increase of population," says Mr. Botfield, "has occasioned a greater division of bor, and those arts which at the former period were generally carried on by the domestics of every family of consequence, now [i. e., in the time of Sir John Howard support persons who make them the means of an independent livelihood. Brewing and baking have become profitable trades, and the tailor has ceased to be a domestic servant. Notwithstanding the country had long suffered from civil commotions. it is obvious that wealth is greatly increased; inns have been established in country towns; a traveler no longer takes with him his wine and provisions, as did the Earl of Leicester; taverns have arisen in London, and become places of common resort for people of rank; 'Mastres Isabell' lodges at the Bell in Westminster, and her father, Sir John, takes his wine and waffers at the Sun in Lombard street, or breakfasts with my Lord Audley at the Greyhound in Eastcheap. The same increase of wealth has brought with it a corresponding degree of luxury in dress and the general conveniences of life. The countess wore some garments of sheepskin, and was content with woolen gowns of which the nap was shorn more than once. My Lady Howard has her 'plytes of fyne lawne,' and Humphrey Gentili, the Lombard, supplies Sir John with costly cloths of damask, satin, and velvet upon velvet 'pyrled with goold.' In the age of the countess ladies arranged their dress with skewer-like implements, but fair 'Mastress Anne' Howard ased 'fyne pynnes.' * * * Of all things the means of communication between distant places was, perhaps, the least improved. Roads and bridges were still wanting. Dobbe, the shepherd, guides the Countess of Leicester from Odiham to Porchester, and Sir John, on his road! to Chester, gives a penny 'to a mayde that tawte the way ovyr Tyddysbery (Didsbury) forthe.'

"It would be easy to institute a more minute and less desultory com-

parison between the manners of the two periods, as illustrated by the present work. The accounts of Sir John Howard show the state of almost every department of domestic economy in his time. We have payments to bakers and brewers, builders, armorers, and shipwrights; silversmiths, mercers, drapers, tailors, and cordwainers; to sailors, soldiers, and servants; they contain notices of farming and stocking fishponds; and, taken in conjunction with the Paston letters, they furnish the liveliest picture we possess of any period anterior to the invention of printing."

The household-roll of the Countess of Leicester contains considerable curious information in regard to the diet of both the upper and lower classes in her time, but so much of it as would be suitable to the present work has been substantially anticipated. The following list, however, will serve to show the prices of a number of articles then comprehended under the general term "spicery," and but little used except

among the wealthy:

Sugar, per pound, 1s. to 2s.; almonds, $2\underline{1}d$. to $3\underline{1}d$.; anise, 3d.; cinnamon, 10d.; galingal, 1s. 6d. to 3s.; ginger, 10d., 1s., 1s. 6d., 2s.; pepper, 8d., 10d., 1s.; cloves, 10s. to 12s.; cummin, 2d.; fennel, dried, $3\overline{d}$.; rice, $1\underline{1}d$.; saffron, 10s. to 12s.

In connection with the subject of condiments, it may be noticed that mustard, verjuice, and vinegar were used in considerable quantities.

Items occasionally occur for the purchase of table linen, plates, dishes, and drinking cups. In respect to wearing apparel the roll contains little information. Woolen cloths were the chief material of female apparel, but the following materials are also mentioned, viz, linen, sindon, scarlet and rayed or striped cloths of Flemish, French, or Italian make, pers, or blue cloth, manufactured chiefly in Provence, russet, say or serge, and blanchet, or blanket, a name supposed to mean flannel. When woolen cloth was new the nap was generally very long, and after wearing it some time it was customary to have it shorn, a precess which was repeated as long as the cloth would bear it. Thus the Countess of Leicester sends Hicqe, her tailor, to London to get her robes reshorn.

There are two passages in the roll in relation to the cost of a pocket breviary for the use of Eleanor de Montford. Twenty dozen of fine vellum, purchased for this book, cost 10s., and the writing, which was

executed at Oxford, cost 14s.

A noteworthy circumstance connected with this document is the fact that the household servants mentioned therein are generally distinguished by Saxon names, such as Hande and Jacke of the bake-house, Hicqe the tailor, Jacke the keeper of the countess's harriers, Dobbe the shepherd, Diqon, Gobithesty, and Treubodi, who were often employed in carrying letters, and Slingaway, a courier, whose name was probably descriptive of his gait and manner.

The accounts of Sir John Howard relate to a period posterior by from sixty to seventy years to the date at which Mr. Rogers' tables terminate. They were transcribed from the original manuscripts, of which, at the time of the publication of Mr. Botfield's book, there were two in existence, one of them forming a part of the valuable archæological collection of Sir Thomas Phillips, bart., at Middle Hill, while the other was the property of the Duke of Norfolk. Mr. Botfield states that the only

† This has been interpreted to mean satin or very fine linen.



^{*}When several different prices are given they are obtained from different entries. It seems strange, however, that the price of ginger should have varied in so short a time from 10d. to 2s.

liberty taken with the text has been that of extending contracted words and inserting a few points. In the published work the modern printed characters are necessarily used instead of the manuscript letters of the fifteenth century, but the quaint and irregular spelling of the original documents is faithfully preserved, the same word being sometimes spelled in two or three different ways in a single entry.

The accounts were kept by a steward who refers to Sir John as "my mastyr:" but occasional entries are found in the handwriting of Sir John himself, and these are indicated by printing them in italics. The "Expenses" and "Accounts and memoranda" cover 473 pages of Mr. Botfield's book, and the following extracts embrace only occasional entries. which have been selected so as to include the prices of a considerable variety of articles and the wages of different kinds of labor. In many of the entries a few unnecessary words are omitted. Thus, the entry on page 111. "Fore costs fore my lady lyinge at London be xiiii dayis in bred and vytaylle, xvijs. jd.," is preceded in the original by the words, "Item, the same day my master payd to Seynclow." Occasionally explanatory words are interpolated and put in parentheses, and in a very few instances easily distinguishable by the form of expression, the language of the original entry, for the sake of clearness or brevity, has been entirely abandoned. The following are the extracts, with the vears to which the different entries relate:

A. D. 1462.

Item, ffor makynge off a jacket off crymysyn clothe ffor my sayd lord ij. s . iiij. d . Item payd for lynynge to the said jacket xij. d .
Item, ffor makynge off a long gown and lynynge the slevys
Item, payd ffor makynge off a short gown off roset
Item, payd ffor iij zerdys off blakkeffryce*
Item, payd ffor makynge off my lordys tawny cloke lynyd wyth velvet xvj. d.
Item, payd ffor makynge off a jaket off the kyngys levery xx. d.
Item, for lynynge to the same jakett xij. d.
Item, payd ffor browderynge off a kloke xvj. d.
Item, payd to John Frawnseys ffor to pay to John Kooke ffor ffurynge off my lordys long gowne viii. s. ix. d.
Item, payd ffor a new tronke ffor my lord whych was delyvared to Willyam off Ward- rope
ltem, my mastyre payd ffor a whyte bonett for my lord xvj. d.
Item, my mastyre payd ffor iij. zerdis off blakke velvet
Item, payd ffor a horsee to Rogere Tego
ltem, payd ffor a daggere ffor my sayd lord xx. d.

A. D. 1463.

Item, my mastyre payd at Donwyche ffor a samon ffor my sayd lord
Item, ffor xx. drynkyng dyscheys x. d.
ltem, v. doseyn platerys
Item, flor v. doseyn sawceres
Item, payd ffor iiij. c. stokfyscheys iiij. li. Item, viij. pypys salt xiij. s.
item, viij. pypys salt xiij. s.
Liem, iii, barellys salt
ltem, payd * * * ffor ij. peyre off morrey hosyn ffor my mastyr xiiij. s.
Item, payd to Thomas Goldsmythe ffor a chene off gold
Item, to Thomas Thorppe ffor a peyre shoyis
Item, ffor di. † a pownd of dynamaun t x. d.
Item, ffor v. li. datys
ltem, vj. li. almundys xviij. d.
Item, ffor j. li. sugar xviij. d.
tom the series of many 4 from a model to many a
Item, the same day payd ffor a potelle wyne
payd to the cordwaner nor ij. peyr shoyis and a peyre botuys nor my
mastyr

Item, payd to Clayson for v. pypys of byer, the sayd day, iiij. of them for my masterys balynger spent to Caleyys ward, and j. pype thys day
A. D. 1464.
Item, payd for a payr hosyn ffor the chyld off the stable
Item, for ij. breshys
Item, the same day my mastyr payd ffor iij. zerdys ffusteyn blakke ij. s. iij. d.
Item, the same day for x zerdys off Chawmpeyn clothe
Item, to Thorp for a shyrt the same day xij. d. Item, for ij. mennys dyner the same day iiij. d. Item, the same day payd ffor x. zerdys sarsynet to Thomas Rowson, merser in Chepe-
Item, the same day payd ffor x. zerdys sarsynet to Thomas Rowson, merser in Chepe-
syde
mastyriiij. s.
Item, the same day for x. zerdys off blew bokeram, prise the zerd vi. d summa, v. s.
Item, the sayd day payd ffor a blakke bonet for my mastyr
Item, the sayd kay payd ffor a quarte wyn
Item, the same day payd to John Smythe, sadeler, for it, sadelys xxiiii. s.
Item, the same day my mastyr payd to the smyth in Stanstret for shoyng of xx. shois
Item, the same day payd for a quarter otys
Item, for a payr sporys; for Jake of stable
Item, for shoynge of a horse at Lanam
Item, for shoynge of a horse at Lanam
blakke clothe xvi. d.
And I payd the same tyme fore a scherte and for a peyer shoes fore Jake
Item, the same day payd to a man of Colchestre, for xvij. ellys of corse Holond clothe vij. s. j. d.
clothe vij. s. j. d. Item, the vj. day of Jule, my mastyr payd to Payne, for iiij. dayis werke vij. d. Item, my mastyr payd for xx. lenges vij. s. Item, the same day my mastyr payd for x. coddys (vij. s.
Item, my mastyr payd for xx. lenges
Item, the 111, day of Octobre, my master payd for 111, effes of ign Holond for a short
for hym selffe iiij. s. vj. d. Item, payd for a payr botez for my master iiij. s.
Item, my master gaffe to the bryngere of themi.d.
Item, payd fore a payre shoes and a payr penssons
las xvi. d.
Item, payd fore a payr hosen for Lew
Item, payd for a shert for the same Lew
dagger iij. e. iiij. d. Item, the same day my master payd to Thomas of Wardroppe, fore makenge of my
ladyis goune of cremson velvet
The xviij. day of Desembre my master payd to Lumpner, the mersere, for xiij. yerdes of
crymysyn velvet, pryse the yerd, xvij. s summa totalis, xj. li. xij. d. For xij. yerdes of fyne cremysen velvet, pryse the yerd, xvij. s summa, x. li. iiij. s.
Receyved for a cowes hyde
Received of John Noryse for talow of the said cow
For vj. li. talow of the said bollokke v. d.
For the fate and the offaile of a bolokeiiii.d.
Paid fore a payre shoes fore Anne Fulleriiij. d.

Fore clowting of master Danyelles shoes. For makeuge of ij. petycotes for mastres Marget and m. Anne For iij. li. candelles. Fore a pygge. Fore ji. saltfyshes Fore a kow bout at Blakborow at Seynt Katerynes feyre. Paid to John Pepyne for a bullok. For a pekke of otemelle Fore a quarter beffe For vj. spones For xv. bowstryngges	. iiij. d. ob iiij. d x. d. vij. s. v. d iij. s. vij. d xx. d xx. d ob.
	v. d.

A. D. 1464-5.

A. D. 1404-5.
Item, my master gaffe to the Kynge a cawser* called Lyard Duras, the same day, the
Wiche coate my master
wiche coste my master
master viii. li
master
ror an axe for the champre
For botchyre fro London to Grenewycheiiij. d.
Item for a li of whyethe conne
For a di. an unnoe of tawny sylke vij. d. To Arnold, gooldsmythe, for a jasynt sett in goold xx. s. Payd for a doblet for Boton iij. s. For vi. elles canvas for the chambre at Eltam xxj. d.
To Arnold, gooldsmythe, for a jasynt sett in goold
Payd for a doblet for Botoniij. s.
For vi. elles canvas for the chambre at Eltam xxj. d.
rer a payr bhone for Doton at Ettain Vil. d.
For shoving Thurstone's horsee
For Thurstone's hors Senete at Eltam. iiij. d.
For makynge of Boton's hosez and his gowne xvj. d.
The same day, in exspenses of iii. menne
For iiij. yerdes and di. of blakke fryse for his russet goune of velvet ij. s. vij. d. ob.
For iii mandaa of blah famaa fan han manna of blahla
For a ward of blak saraanat fora lynyngs for ii tynattas of russett valvat
Item the same day my master gaff to Sar Thomas a Ronaw a darger that east
hum
liam, the jiii.th day of Feyerer, my master payd fore his soner at the Grewd in
Eschere.
Item, payd for ii, verdes and a quarter of cremysen engreyned for a gonne for meatres
For a yerd of blak sarsenet fore lynynge for ij. typettee of russett velvet
For a furre. viij. s . iiij. d . For xij. elles canvas, prise the elle, iiij. d . iiij. s .
Fore xij. elles canvas, prise the elle, iiij. diiij. s.
Item, my master gaff to a barbour iiij. d . Fore a peyre shoes and a peyre of patyns xij. d .
Fore a peyre shoes and a peyre of patyns
For a boke contention of its income via quarter off for a paper
Fore lynynge of my master's longe blak goune iiij. s. viij. d. Fore makenge of the said goune xx . d. ltem, the $xxvj$. day of Janevere, paid fore vij. menes dyners x . d.
Fore makenge of the said goune
liem, the xxvj. day of Janevere, paid fore vij. menes dyners x. d.
For a peyre shoes for my master
rayd to a barboriiij. d.
three wyne and waners at the sonne, in Lumberd strete
menter 11. day of reverer, payd mastres isbelies costs at the Belle at West-
For a peyre shoes for my master. viij. d. Payd to a barbor. iiij. d. Pore wyne and waffers at the Sonne, in Lumberd strete iij. d. Item, the iij. day of Feverer, payd Mastres Ysbelles costs at the Belle at Westemenster xvj. d. Item, the same day, paid ffore iiij. mennes sopers that brout her to London vi. d. Item, the Resham severe at Lyncolnes Ynne the same tyme.
tem said for Braham soners at Lucines Supers that broth her to London vi. d.
item, paid for Braham sopere at Lyncolnes Ynne, the same tyme
For a quarte wyne for James Hohard and Solvard
Pore if mennes dyners v. d.
For a li. candelles
Fore vj. mennes dyners vii. d.
For Braham's dynere
ror Braham's soper at Lyncolin Yn
10 the cord wanere for shoes for my master
for an horsee be iij. dayes xx. d.
For wrytynge of a superviso
For an horsee be iij. dayes
To the barbor

Fore horseehyre to Stoke be iiij. dayis	
For botehyre fro Westemenster to London ij. d. For a quarter coles viij. d. Fore a flaken ale for my lady x. d.	
For a quarter coles viu. a.	
Fore a maken are for my rady	
A. D. 1485.	
For ii novre âld shates iiii e viii d	
For ij. payre old shetes	
a nace contempore XXX, flemyshe elles, and iX, neces contempore XX, flemyshe elles,	
every pece pryse the pece, xx. s summa, x. li. x. s.	
every pece pryse the pece, xx. s summa, x. li. x. s. Payd to Arnold, gooldsmythe, ffoore a tablett of goold iij. li. xx. d.	
Fore iij. ryngges with stoones	
Fore a fisket of sylver	
Boilt of Arnold, gooldsmythe, a dyvyse of goold for mastles margiet, the pryse	
thereof is	
For iii, carpettes xxiiij. s. iiij. d.	
Item, the xv. day of Marche, my master bout of goldsmythe in Chepe sertayn selvere	1
veselles, and my master to pay the said goldsmythe for every unnec	
Item, the day and yere above wreten, my master paid to Freman, his bedmakere, for	
makenge of a bed wyth v. costres to the same	
Item, paid hym xxix elles canvas, pryse the elle, v. d summa, xij. s. v. d.	
Item navd hym for viii, li, corde, pryse the li., v. d summa, iii, s. iiii, d.	
Item, payd hym for v. li. di. of frenge, pryse the li., xvj. d summa, vij. s. iiij. d.	
Item, payd hym for v. li. di. of frenge, pryse the li., xvj. d summa, vij. s. iiij. d	
Item, paid him for vj. stone feders, pryse the stone, il. s summa, xij. s.	
Item, paid hym fore makenge of the same koshons ij. s. Item, paid hym fore performynge of the valaunce iij. s. iiij. s. iiij. s.	•
Item, the yere a foresaid, and the xxviii. day of Marche, my master bout of Umfrey,	
the goldsmythe, a chaffer of silver weyinge xviii unness and a quarter, and my	-
master payd hym therfor of old grotes	
And in new grotes	•
A short goune, clothe of tawny velvet, prise the yerd	•
A sadvlle, a lytylle harneys, & xij, revnes	
A sadylle, a lytylle harneys, & xij. reynes	
shype xii. li.	
Item, ffor a combe whete iij. s. iiij. s. iij. s. iiij. s. iij. s. iii	•
Itom for a move abone for meetres Marcett iii d	
Item, the same day my master paid to Mawt Clerke, for a ram and xix.ewes, pryse the pece xx. d	,
the pece xx. d	
Item, paid here the same day for v. lambes, pryse the pece xij. a summa, v. s. Item, the same day my mastyr paid her ffor a sowe	•
Item, my mastyr paid her for a gander, iiij. bredegese and v. yonge goelynges, the prise	
of alle drawyth liij. s. Item, the same day paid for a fferken ale	
Item, the same day paid for a fferken ale	
Item, my mastyr paid to Cumberton for an hatte	•
Item, for a payr sheres and a payr gloves for mastres Ysbelle	•
Item, my mastyr hathe paid for iii, pelewest of downe vii. s. viii. d.	
Item, for ii, tylers iii, dayis, every day viii, obt	_
Item, for a laborer iij. dayisxvj. d	
Item, for a laborer iij. dayis xvj. d Item, for j. lode of sande vj. d Item, iij. sakkes lyme vj. d	,
Item, for lx. fete of elmen bordexx. d	•
Item, for ii, carpenters iiii. dayis and di., the day viii, d. ob summa, vi. s. iiii. d. ob.	
Item, the same day my mastyr paid for xxvj. li. flax	•
Item, for xij. li. dates	•
Item, for i, li, of pouder of gynger	Ĺ
Item, for j. li. of pouder of gynger	8
herenge iij. s. iiij. s. Item, the same day my mastyr paid for xxxij. fresche herenges yj. d	L
Item, the same day my mastyr paid for xxxij. fresche herenges	
Item, the v. dav. a quarter beffe, the prise	i.
Item, the v. day, a quarter beffe, the prise	ĩ.

Item, the same day my mastyr paid for vij. payr of fyn gloves ij. s. iiij. d.
Item, the xiiij. day of Aprylle, my mastyr paid to a draper in Canwey strete, for ij. yerdes
of dana his w prise the verde vi s iii d
of depe blew, prise the yerde, vj. s. iij d
Item, xx. lambes, pryse
Item, xxx. pygges, pryse
Item, xij. fesawntes, pryse
Item, Ay, 1008 w 1100, p1 y00
Item, xxxij. galones mylke
Nem, xy, barenes of syngene bere, prise the barrene, i. s summa, xxx, s.
Item, the same day my mastyr paid for di. a yerde of damaske iiij. s. ij. d.
Item, for xvij. yerdes and a quarter of rede satyn, prise the yerde
vi. s. viii. d
And v. lytelle norse, the prise of a pece vij. s summa, xxxv. s.
Also my master muste pay fore a quarter whete
Also fore a fore horse I bowete thes day of the seyd Wever
And for a peyr gloves ij. d. A Balenger. } Item, the v.th yere of Kynge Edward the iiij.th, Thomas a Chambre sold
A Balenger. > Item, the v.th yere of Kynge Edward the 1111.th, Thomas a Chambre sold
a balynger of myn masters, the pryse in silver viij. marc. vj. s. viij. d. For xj. yerdes russet, ij. yerdes brode, prise the yerd, ij. s. v. d xxvj. s. vij. d.
For xj. yerdes russet, ij. yerdes brode, prise the yerd, ij. s. v.d xxvj. s. vij. d.
To the Kyngges cordwaneres man flor iij. payre of shoez ij. s.
Fore ij. gerdels of sylke, with a harneys of sylver and geltt vj. s. viij. d.
For ij. payre of murry hosen engreyned
Fore sarsnet fore his (Sir John's) tepet, and fore lynynge of hys gounys xij. s. v. d.
Item, my master payd for a hat ij. and bonettes for hym sellfie v. s. iiij. d.
Item, the same day my mastyr gaff to Jemes Redesman a rynge, prise v. s.
Item, geven to Roger Rey a rynge, the same day, pryse
Item, goven to Roger Rey a rynge, the same day, pryse
Item, my master gaff to the menstrales the same day x. s.
Item my master gaff to the troumnettes the same day
For board of workemen engaged on some work for Sir John Howard, each man per
diemij. d.
iii. c. of oken bord, for every hundred xxviii. d.
For board of workemen engaged on some work for Sir John Howard, each man per diem
FOR & Deeme
Pore iiii amala stodes
For a baye stoole $xij.d.$ For iiij. moyneles to the same bay wyndow, pryse of every pece
For iiii, movineles to the same bay window, prive of every pece
fore vi day works in carpentry
For iij. dayis werke uppou a bay wyndow and a stodye xij. d . To John Cobdok off Sudbury for a day werke and a halif yj. d .
To John Cobdok off Sudbury for a day werke and a half
Fore John Copdoke of Halsted for ij. di. dayes werke iiij. d.
Fore ij. dayee werke of John Strete, prentys to the same John Copdok iiij. d.
My master paid for his brekefast at Westemenster ix. d.
Payd for John Deensyns hotes.
For a horsecambe
For carrings of a feder bed fro Westmenster to London ii d
My master payd to hys cordwanere fore iij. pair shone
Fore a payr patyns for my master iij. d.
Fore a payre shoes fore mastres Margetiiij. d.
My master payd fore a hattiiij. s.
My master paid for a typett fore my lord of Norffolke xiiij. s.
Fore scotes fore my lady wings at London he viji davis in hred and vytavila viji e i d
Fore a hardle and a kylderkane ale to the weffe of the Carlond in
Febora
Fore a barelle and a kylderkene ale, to the wyffe of the Garlond in Eschepe
Commend
For ij. yerdes clothe fore a goune fore Braham iiij. s. z. d.
My master paid for a tonne wyne, that is to say, a pype and ij. hogges hedes c. s.
my master paid for a conne wyne, chat is to say, a pype and it, nogges nedes c. s.
For a new sadelle vij. c . iiij. d . For a doblet and a payr hosen for Lew v. c . iiij. d .
For a goods and a payr nosen for new
For a potelle wyne iiij. d . Per iiij. barres to the hoggeshedes of wyne iiij. d .
Paid at Westmenster for a bed by xi. wekes
Fore ij. elles Holand clothe
to a kertelle
For a plite of laune
Fore an elle and di fiyne Holand clothe
For iiij. elles of corse holand
My master gaffe to the persone of Framyngham for his potentes viij. s. iiij. d.
a) master game to the persone of reamyngmain for his potenties viij. 8. iiij. d.

ı
To Nicholle Perye for wrytynge of the said potentes iiij. s. ij. d.
For ii, boshelles of saltte
For ix, fote of glasse to the new closet
For xiij. galone age
Fore xxxj. c. salfyshe, prise of c., xxv. s summa, xxxvij. li, x. s.
Fore a quartere beffe xxiij. d.
A saddle, price v. s. A bonnet xii. d. Fore a sadylle vj. s.
Fore a sadvile vi.e.
A. D. 1466-7.
Fore makenge of xij. coshones of cremesene and grene velvet, prise iiij. a.
Fore the stuffenge of the said coshones, fore vi. stone fethers, brise the stone ii xii
Fore a bonet fore master Gorge xij. d. xviij. yerdes of fyne plonket, prise the yerde iij. s. iiij. d. X peces of counterfet tapstre, every pece conteynenge xx. flemyshe elles, prise the
xviij. yerdes of fyne plonket, prise the yerdeiij. s. iiij. s. iiij. s.
X peces of counterfet tapetre, every pece conteyenge xx. flemyshe elles, prise the
pece
tem, the xviii, day of December my mastyr bowt of Boistrode x, years of russet
or ij. longe gownes for my forde and a gowne for my lady, the yerde vj. s.
Item my measter naid to Edwardes wyffe for i. eads of reds hervings the wyche my
for ij. longe gownes for my lorde and a gowne for my lady, the yerde vj. s. viij. d
Item, payd to Thomas Purcer, for Willyam Fykett, for ij, dayis werke vi. d.
Item, my mastyr paid to ij. carpenters of the Holke, for werkenge on his werke, ij.
Item, my mastyr paid to ij carpenters of the Holke, for werkenge on his werke, ij. dayis eche of them
Item, my mastyr paid to Jemes Peterson for a galon oyle for the peyntenge of the
payoyses
item, which will be seen that the seen that
Item, my mastyr rekened wyth Willyam Welshe, and the said Willyam axsethe for
viii. A
Item, fore his laborer servynge him, be the said xx. davis, for every
tylenge of my masters place at London, be the space of xx. dayis, every day viij. d
Item, * for iij. lodes of sand xviiij. &
Item, the same day my master payd fore a natt
Item, the same day paid for v. mennez deners viiij. d.
Item, the same day paid fore ij, mennes sopers
Item, paid for iiij. barelles of pyche and terre
of sylvers wavings iii unness marked with a ress and my matter rayl for every
of sylvere weyinge iiij. unness, marked wyth a rose, and my master payd for every unnee iij summa, xij. s. Item, the same day paid fore vj. mannes dyners vij. d.
Item, the same day paid fore vi. mannez dyners
Hem. the same day at nyzine for iii. mennes sonners
Paid for a bowe at Caleysiij. a.
A sadylle, pryse ij. s.
An entry records that "Danyelle," a servant, began service with Sir John on the next
A sadylle, pryse ij. s. An entry records that "Danyelle," a servant, began service with Sir John on the next day after Holy Rode day, in the 7th year of Edw. IV. His yearly wages in money was to be
Item, my master toke hym (Danyelle) a peyre of botes that cost hym
Item, an olde peyre of spores tht coste my master
Item, my master toke hym a standard bowe that Melsone gaff hym, and it is worthe
in money vi. s. viij. d. An entry records that Robart Messendene receives by the year xxvii.s. viij. d.
An entry records that Robert Messendene receives by the year xxvij. s. viij. d.
A pair of hose
For a shiprio
For a shyrte
. A. D. 1468.
For v. c. salt fyshe, the price v. h. For xilij. barels of fyshe iiij. d.
For xilij. barels of fyshe iiij. li. xiij. s. iiij. d.
For ix. barels of ffishe, price
trem, the seconde day of September, and the yere afore seid, my master made comen-
aunte with John Matlow to brue hym lxxx. pipes of beyr by this day fourthnighte, paieng for the pipe and the beyr vj. s. iiij. d
* Large shields t A nound t February

^{*}Large shields. †A pound. ‡ February.

§Note.—The numerals "iiij. xx" printed in italics are in the handwriting of Sir John Howard, and relate, not to the aggregate cost of the beer, but to the number of pipes, which was eighty—or fourscore.

Paid to the godewife at the Sone in the Kinges strete at Westmynster for vj. pipes, price of the pipe, viij. d
price of the pipe, viij. d summa, iiij. s.
For an hogeshed
item, the inject day of September, my master paid to waneshed for xxv. bullokkes of
small and gret, the price of a pece, xii. s. x. d summa, xxiij. marc. xv.s.
For a M. fyshes, the prise of a c., xx. s
For vj. bareis tysne, price of a barelle, vj. s. viij. d
item, the 11.d day of september, bought of Lewes Gaiyot VIII and xVI. quarters
MILEO. MILEO. MILO MILO MILOURI DI IN. DUBILIDI IDIO VIII. DOVINE IDIO CVOIV GUDI-
tere, vij. s. summa, lj. li. xxij. s. Item, paid to Clase for c. and di. of pipe hopes
tem had to Case for the state of Spatember my master horsely of Waneshed will overe
price xxviij. li. x. s.
price
· Item, paid for lxiij. cheses, weyng ij. weyt and a halfe, price of a
wer it a summe viii a it d
wey, ix. s. summa, xxiij. s. ix. d. Item, paid for ij. wey salt, price the wey, xv. s. summa, xxx. s.
Item, paid for vj. waneshottes, price of the pece, vii. d
Item, paid for vij. wey of leay salt, price the wey, xiiij. s summa, iiij. li. xviij. s.
For ix. xx quarters (180 quarters) whete, and to every quarter a bushelle, the price of
every quartere, vil. s summa, lxiij. li.
Paid to Robert Diesone fore xxv. M. le and di, of wode, price of a M. le.
iiij. s. viij. d. v. li. xvj. s. viij. d. ltem, paid to John Wilkokkes, the xv. day of September, for xx. oxene xvj. li.
Item, paid to John Wilkokkes, the xv. day of September, for xx. oxene xvj. li.
Item, paid to hym fore xiij. oxene of a noder sorte, the same day, price of a
pece, xiij. s. viij. d
Item, paid to hym the same day fore xx. gret oxene xvij. li.
For x. smal oxene vj. li. vj. s. viij. d.
For xx. kyene x. li. x. s.
For vij. oxene and steres
ror other 11. Oxene
ror iii), ouer oxene
For x. smal oxene vj. 11. vj. 8. v113. d. For xx. kyene x. li. x s. For vij. oxene and steres v. li. vij. s. viij. d. For other ij. oxene xxiij. s. viij. d. For iiij. oder oxene lvj. s. viij. d. For v. steres lij. li. For vj. new sakkes vj. s. Ivj. s. viij. d. For vj. new sakkes vj. s. Ivj. s. viij. d. For vj. new sakkes vj. s. Ivj. s. viij. d. Vj. s. Vj. s.
tem my master naid to Warrewick my lord of Warwyk haronde for occ vii quarters
of whete, safe a bushelle, price of a quarter of whete viii. s.
of whete, safe a bushelle, price of a quarter of whete
of a c. xxiii. s summa, ix. li. xij. s.
Item, the xxj. day of September, my master paid to a buchere of London for xx. oxene,
of a c. xxiiij. s
ltem, paid to the same bucher for x. bullokkes, the same day, price of a
pece, xij. ssumma, vj. li.
for viij. wey of salt, the price of a wey, xiiij. s. vj. d summa, v. li. xv. s.
raid to master Coke for v. pipes
Paid to master Coke for v. pipes
ments aids
watir side
weng to Redelif
Pard to Robert Porfoot and to Rychard Porfoots be Whitham for xy, quarters whete
Drice quartyr, ix. (bushels) for viii. viii. 8.
Item, paid to a Docheman of London for lxii, waneskottes, prie of
nem, paid to the same Docheman for it. C. Mil. Lysne, by the smalle tale,
price xvj. s. x. d.
Paid • • for vj. barels pyche and terre, price the barel, iiij. s. viij. d xxviij. s.
Item, to iij. cartes of Cobham for carying of ij. lodes and di. of tymber fro Dorkyng to
Item, to iij. cartes of Cobham for carying of ij. lodes and di. of tymber fro Dorkyng to Kyngestone iiij. s . ij. d .
Item, to iij. cartes of Cobham for carying of ij. lodes and di. of tymber fro Dorkyng to Kyngestone iiij. s. ij. d. Item, paid fore iiij. ** (four score) chese waneskottes, price the pece, vi. d. summa, xl. s.
ltem, to iij. cartes of Cobham for carying of ij. lodes and di. of tymber fro Dorkyng to Kyngestone
ltem, to iij. cartes of Cobham for carying of ij. lodes and di. of tymber fro Dorkyng to Kyngestone
ltem, to iij. cartes of Cobham for carying of ij. lodes and di. of tymber fro Dorkyng to Kyngestone
Item, to iij. cartes of Cobham for carying of ij. lodes and di. of tymber fro Dorkyng to Kyngestone iiij. s. ij. d. Item, paid fore iiij. ** (four score) chese waneskottes, price the pece, vi. d summa, xl. s. For xxxviij. othere smallere waneskottes, price the pece, iiij. d. ob . summa, xiiij. s. iij. d. For iiij. barelles of pyche and terre xviij. s. Fore iiij. cabilles, a hawsere, and iij. other ropes, weyng xxij. c. xxvi. lb., price the c., viij. s viij. s.
Item, to iij. cartes of Cobham for carying of ij. lodes and di. of tymber fro Dorkyng to Kyngestone iiij. s. ij. d. Item, paid fore iiij. ** (four score) chese waneskottes, price the pece, vi. d summa, xl. s. For xxxviij. othere smallere waneskottes, price the pece, iiij. d. ob summa, xiij. s. iij. d. For iiij. barelles of pyche and terre xviij. s. Fore iiij. cabilles, a hawsere, and iij. other ropes, weyng xxij. c. xxvi. lb., price the c., viij. s. Viij. li. xvij. s. Paid to a gentel mane of the Kynges house that went with me to the beyr houses. x. d.
Item, to iij. cartes of Cobham for carying of ij. lodes and di. of tymber fro Dorkyng to Kyngestone iiij. s. ij. d. Item, paid fore iiij. ** (four score) chese waneskottes, price the pece, vi. d summa, xl. s. For xxxviij. othere smallere waneskottes, price the pece, iiij. d. ob . summa, xiiij. s. iij. d. For iiij. barelles of pyche and terre xviij. s. Fore iiij. cabilles, a hawsere, and iij. other ropes, weyng xxij. c. xxvi. lb., price the c., viij. s viij. s.

[•] The numerals "viij. **" mean "eight score," the aggregate quantity of wheat purchased being eight score (or 160) quarters, plus sixteen quarters, or 176 quarters.

† The wey comprised fourteen stone, or 196 lb.

For iij. c. platers, price the c., iiij. s
noward) and an estrictic tetricity of the restriction of the restricti
A. D. 1468-9.
lij. barels of fulle heryng of whyte heryng, the price of every barelle, xj. s xliij. s. Bowete of Tomas Molense v. brode clothes, ij. plonketes, ij. dereke rosetes, and they conteyen in yerdes viii. xx., viii. yerdes, the yerde ij. s. iiij. d.; the same drawethe xix. li. xij. s. A blake klothe kaled peweke brode klothe, conteynenge xxj. yerdes and halfe, the yered xxx. d.; the some is liij. s. ix. d. For vij. xx ij. quarteres and a halfe of wets, London messuer, (London measure,) the pryse of the quarter is vj. s. viij. d. Paid to Richard Ashe for xij. pipes of beyre, price the pipe, vij. s. viij. d. summa, iiij. li.
For vij. **x* ij. quarteres and a halfe of wets, London measure, (London measure,) the pryse of the quarter is vj. s. viij. d. Paid to Richard Ashe for xij. pipes of beyre, price the pipe, vij. s. viij. d. summa, iiij. li. For xj. peses lede, the weyte iiij. foder, co., iij. quarteres, xxi. li., the foder v. li. vj. s. viij. d.; the some is xxij. li. ij. s. xj. d. Paid to Thomas Burne fore a dagger vj. s. viij. d. Paid to William Martyn for a lode of hey viij. s. iiij. d. Fore a peyer pensones vij. s. viij. d. Fore a lode hey vij. s. vij. d. Fore a lode strawe vj. s. vij. d. Paied to Godfrey uppone the Northe for makenge of xij. jaketes of mayle, and makenge clene, and fore the goldsmythes werke to the same xv. s. Fore a standard of mayle.
A. D. 1469.
For vj. brydille bittes, price the pece, xiij. d
A. D. 1471.
Stefen Howeths, be yere"

^{*} Either a list of servants, with their yearly wages, or else a portion of a roll os retainers.

ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH POOR LAWS.

It has already been remarked that the progress of the nation has dealt very unequally with the descendants of the medieval serfs and villeins. Liberated from their legal thralldom, they enjoyed greatly enlarged opportunities for the exercise of their powers, and a large proportion of them rapidly improved their position, furnishing the bulk of the material out of which the great and influential middle class was gradually It was the misfortune of the English villein that in securing his personal enfranchisement, he relinquished his hold upon the soil to which he and his ancestors had been attached. The consequence was, that in many instances his liberation was but a leap from bondage into papperism; a result against which the English government of that day took no such humane and statesmanlike precaution as was taken by Alexander II, in abolishing serfdom in Russia in 1861. Hence as villenage gradually disappeared, there grew up not only the class of free agricultural laborers, and that of artificers and tradesmen in the towns, but a class of mendicants and thieves, whose number became so formidable as to occasion no little trouble and embarrassment to the authorities.

The first mention of this class in the statute-book occurs in the year 1349, when it was enacted that "because many valiant beggars, as long as they may live of begging, do refuse to labour, giving themselves to idleness and vice, and sometimes to theft or other abominations, none, upon pain of imprisonment, shall, under the colour of pity or alms, give anything to such which may labour, or presume to favor them in their sloth, so that thereby they may be compelled to labour for their neces-

eary living."

"The nuisance, however," says Wade in his "History of the Middle and Working Classes," "was not abated;" and in 1376, we have evidence of a strong disposition to vagrancy among laborers, in the complaint of the House of Commons, that masters are obliged to give their servants high wages to prevent them running away; that many of the runaways turn beggars, and lead idle lives in cities and boroughs, although they have sufficient bodily strength to gain a livelihood, if willing to work; that others become staff-strikers, (cudgel-players,) wandering in parties from village to village, but that the chief part turn out sturdy regues, infesting the kingdom with frequent robberies. To remedy these evils, the Commons propose that no relief shall be given to those who are able to work, within boroughs or in the country; that vagrants, beggars, and staff strikers shall be imprisoned till they consent to return home to work, and whoever harbors a runaway servant shall be liable to a penalty of ten pounds. These enactments show the earliest opinion of Parliament on mendicity, and, from the language of the Commons, we learn that the objectionable classes under consideration were chiefly found in towns, where, owing to commerce and the introduction of manufactures, the principal wealth of the nation had accumulated.

Two years after, by 12 Richard II, c. 7, it is directed that impotent beggars shall continue to reside in the places where they were at the time of passing this act. In case those places are not able to maintain them, they are to remove to some other place in the hundred or to the place of their birth. From the tenor of this act, it is evident that the district where they finally settled was bound to maintain them, and the legislature of 1388 proceeded on the same principle of compulsory assessment embodied in the celebrated act of Elizabeth in 1601. It seems, too, from the enactments of this period that the indigent classes had a legal claim on the revenues of the clergy. In 1391 it is declared that, in all appropri-

ations of tithe for the support of monastic institutions a certain portion shall be set apart for the maintenance of the poor. In these regulations we see the foundation of the system of poor-laws; and, instead of referring their origin to the 43 Elizabeth, we ought only to ascribe to that act the concentration and development of an ancient practice that had prevailed long before her time. It is apparent, indeed, from the acts to which I have referred, and from other statutes which might be quoted, that, for nearly two centuries prior to the Reformation. the legislature was sedulously struggling against the evil which accompanied the transition from slavery to free labor, and that their policy was directed to objects similar to those which have lately engaged attention, namely, to analyze the mass of vagabondage, imposture, and real destitution which afflict society—to punish the former and relieve the lat-Branding, whipping, imprisonment, and setting in the stocks were the punishments chiefly employed for the suppression of vagrancy. Scholars were liable to these penalties unless provided with written testimonials from the chancellor of their respective universities. ors, soldiers, and travelers were also to be provided with passports, and were required to travel homewards by the shortest road. Artificers and laborers (11 Henry VII, c. 2) were forbidden to play at unlawful games, except during Christmas: and two justices were empowered to restrain the common selling of ale in towns and places where they should think expedient, and to take surety of ale-house keepers for their good behavior, as they might be advised, at the time of the sessions."

By an act passed in 1530 beggars were divided into two classes, namely, the aged and impotent, and vagabonds and idle persons; and justices were empowered to license persons of the first description to beg within certain precincts. Their names were directed to be registered and to be certified at the next sessions. Begging without a license, or without the limits assigned, subjected the offender to imprisonment in the stocks for two days and nights, and to feeding on bread and water. Able-bodied vagabonds found begging were flogged at the cart's tail, and then sworn to return to their places of birth, or where they last dwelt for the space of three years, and there put themselves to labor.

It is probable that inconveniences arose from begging being authorized by the legislature, for within five years several material alterations were made in the laws respecting the impotent poor. In the 27 Henry VIII, c. 25, we have a near approximation to the principle of a poor-The preamble states that it had not been provided "how poorpeople and sturdy vagabonds should be ordered at their repaire and coming into their countries, nor how the inhabitants of every hundred should be charged for their reliefe, nor yet for the setting and keeping in worke and labour the said valiant beggars at their repaire into every hundred of this realme." From these expressions the legislature seems to have been convinced of the necessity of a compulsory maintenance, and although a regular tax for that purpose was not immediately imposed, yet it seems to have been conceded, from the regulations of the statute, that the poor, even at this period, should be maintained by the public. The act makes it obligatory, under a penalty of twenty shillings a month, on the head officer of every parish, to maintain, by the collection of voluntary and charitable alms, the poor of their parish in such a way that none of them "of very necessity" might be compelled "to go openly on begging," The alms to be collected on Sundays, holidays, and festivals. All ministers, in their sermons, collations, biddings of the beads, confessions, and at the making of wills, are required to "exhort, move, stir, and provoke people to be liberal in contributions towards the comfort and relief of the poor, impotent, decrepit, indigent, and needy people, and for setting and keeping to work the able poor." Certain of the poor are directed twice or thrice every week to go round and collect from each householder his broken meat and refuse drink for equal distribution among the indigent, but precautions are taken by fines and penalties to guard against the embezzlement of the parochial alms and doles by constables and church-wardens.

At the period under consideration the police regulations of the country, rigid as they were, appear to have been utterly inadequate to the preservation of order. Never were severe laws enacted in greater profusion or more rigorously executed, and never did the unrelenting vengeance of authority prove more ineffectual. Harrison informs us that seventy-two thousand great and petty thieves were put to death during the reign of Henry VIII; and that even in the time of Elizabeth there was not "one year commonly wherein three hundred or four hundred" rogues "were not devoured and eaten up by the gallows in one place and another." Looking at the subject from the more enlightened stand-point of modern jurisprudence, we can hardly be surprised to learn that, "in spite of these sanguinary punishments, the country continued in a dreadful state of turbulence." "Every part of the kingdom," we are told. "was infested with robbers and idle vagabonds, who, refusing to labor, lived by plundering the peaceable inhabitants, and often strolling about the country in bodies of three hundred or four hundred, attacked with impunity the sheep-folds and dwellings of the people."

It will be shown further on that a cause which goes far toward explaining this deplorable state of affairs is to be found in the revolution in land-tenures which occurred under the Tudor dynasty. To the same cause may be attributed the greater part of that increasing pauperism which continually called for new enactments. "The long reign of Elizabeth," says Wade, "is filled with statutes for supplying the deficiencies or correcting the errors of former poor-laws. In the year 1597 several acts were passed relative to vagrancy and mendicity, and the provisions of former acts in some degree moulded into a uniform system. In one act four overseers are directed to be chosen in each parish for setting poor children and others in want of employment to work, and for raising, weekly or otherwise, a stock of materials for that purpose. Justices are empowered to levy the rate by distress, and for the relief of the impotent poor the church-wardens and overseers are authorized, with the permission of the lords of manors, to build convenient houses on the waste at the general charge of the parish, and to place inmates of more families than one in each cottage. Parents of old, blind, lame, and other poor persons are bound to assist their children as shall be directed at the general quarter-sessions, on penalty of twenty shillings for every month they fail to do so. And begging, unless for victuals, in the parish, is entirely prohibited. Several acts were also passed for the relief of soldiers and mariners, and every parish charged a certain sum weekly for their maintenance.

"Increasing inconveniences at length produced the celebrated statute of 43 Elizabeth, which concentrated in one act the accumulated experience of previous years, and long formed the groundwork of our poor-laws. By comparing this statute with the provisions of that referred to in the last paragraph, it appears that its most material provisions were not, as many erroneously suppose, originally framed in 1601; on the contrary, the principal clauses of the act of 39 Elizabeth, respecting the appointment of overseers, levying the rate, setting the able to work, providing relief for the impotent, and binding out children as apprentices, were

copied almost verbatim. From the tenor of the last clause in this great legislative measure it was evidently intended only to be experimental. It was, however, continued by subsequent statutes, and by the 16 Car.

I. c. 4, made perpetual.

"Although Scotland is, for the most part, exempted from the poor-rate, it is remarkable that a compulsory provision for the poor was established by law in that kingdom twenty-two years before the passing of the act of 43 Elizabeth. In James VI's Parliament, held at Edinburgh, in 1579. an act was passed in which every branch of the English system—the punishment of vagabonds, of runaway servants, the mode of passing soldiers and seamen to their parishes, the regulation of hospitals for aged and impotent persons, the settlement of the poor, their maintenance by the parish, the appointment of overseers and collectors, the manner of treating those who refuse to work, and the putting out of poor children as apprentices—is more fully detailed than in any English statute. The assessment for the poor is very general: 'the haill inhabitants within the parochin, are to be 'taxed and stented according to the estimation of their substance, without exception of persones, to sik ouklie, (weekly,) charge and contribution as sall be thocht expedient and sufficient to susteine the saidis pure peopil.

"It is impossible, at this distance of time to form any accurate idea of the comparative number of the receivers and payers of parochial contributions immediately after the establishment of the peor-rate. Sir F. M. Eden was of opinion that, at the period he wrote, (1797,) the pauper class constituted a larger proportion of the community than at the close of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth centuries. But the fact is, though the act of 1601 empowered parishes to levy a poor rate, it was not for many years after carried into execution in various parts of the kingdom. The author of a pamphlet published in 1698, entitled 'Bread for the Poor,' says that, though parishes were enabled (by the act of 43 Elizabeth) to make rates, and the owners of estates obliged to the payment, yet in many places no such rates were made

in twenty or thirty years after.

"It is probable that the dearth of corn and other articles of subsistence, which took place toward the close of Elizabeth's reign, greatly accelerated the passing of the act for raising a compulsory poor-rate. In 1587 wheat rose to £3 4s. the quarter; in 1594 it was £2 16s., and in 1595, £2 13s. 4d. the quarter. For several years there had been a succession of bad weather and scanty crops.

"In the year 1601, however, the season was more favorable; which, by rendering the condition of the poor more comfortable, concurred to recommend, even beyond its deserts, the new measure of the legislature.

"Among the various funds appropriated to the relief of the poor, previous to the act of 1601, may be mentioned pecuniary forfeitures, which, for many statutable offenses, especially those relative to profancess and immorality, were applied in aid of the poor. As early as 1558 churchwardens were empowered to levy twelvepence upon every parishioner who omitted going to church on Sunday. In 1570 a moiety of the forfeitures for detaining goods belonging to a bankrupt's estate was directed to be distributed among the poor of the town in which the bankrupt was resident; and in the same Parliament half the penalty for not wearing a woolen cap on a Sunday was appropriated to the same purpose. One-third of the fines for saying mass, and other offenses against the established worship, were given to the poor; also penalties for swearing, tippling, and disorderly conduct on the Lord's day. It is not improbable that these various mulcts for offenses against

religion and morality were intended as part compensation to the poor for the loss they had sustained by the dissolution of the monasteries and the new disposition of ecclesiastical property."

THE INCLOSURES OF THE SIXTRENTH CENTURY.

The revolution in land tenures, above referred to as having occurred during the Tudor reigns, was one of the most momentous events in the economical history of England. A detailed inquiry into the facts connected with it would far transcend the limits assignable to such a subject in a work like this; but to pass it by without notice would be to leave out of view the principal cause of that increase of pauperism, vagrancy, and crime which characterized the period under consideration. as well as the chief explanation of the present status of the agricultural laborers of England. It has already been intimated that the substitution of money-rents for personal services in payment for the occupation of land was instrumental "in promoting that complete divorce of the English agricultural laborer from the soil, which in modern times has been a source of such serious evils." It was, indeed, a part of the process of emancipation from feudal dependence and servitude—a dependence which had been degrading, and a servitude which at one time had certainly been extremely galling and severe; but in England this emancipation was attended with unfortunate conditions—a fact which will be better understood if we first glance briefly at the legislation which attended the emancipation of the Prussian peasantry at a much later day.

In Prussia the feudal system existed, at least in form, until after the beginning of the present century. Mr. R. B. D. Morier, in an essay on "The Agrarian legislation of Prussia during the present century," gives the following account of villenage and villein tenure as they existed in

Prussia prior to the edict of October 9, 1807:

The status of villenage differed according as the villein was "Leibeigen," (i. e., as his lord had rights of property in his body,) or only "erbunterthänig," i. e., in a state of bereditary subjection to the manor, "adscripti glebs."

In its worst form the villein could be held to unlimited service, and could be deprived of his holding and located in another. At his death the whole or the largest portion of his personal estate fell to the lord. His children could not marry without the lord's consent, and could be kept an unlimited number of years as personal servants ("Gesinde") in the service of the manor. He could receive corporal punishment to beighten his productive power and to enforce respect, but his life was protected.

This extreme form was, however, the exception to the rule. It occurred mostly in

the more remote provinces.

The milder form differed from the former in the services to be performed and the dues to be paid, being limited by local custom, and in a greater freedom in the disposal of the bolding. The villein knew what work he and his team would have to perform in the course of the year, the number of years his children would have to serve in the household of the lord, the tax he would have to pay on their marriage, the amount of the mortuary dness which at his death the lord would have a right to. He could also buy his freedom at a fixed price, and, with the permission of his lord, dispose of his holding.

The free peacent differed from the villein in having no personal dues to pay, and in his service and dues being usually recorded in writing in the grants made to him, and, therefore, bearing more directly the character of a legal contract. He could not, however, acquire by purchase or inheritance other than peasant land, "nor could he change his position by changing his country life for a city life; nor could he in the country exercise any trade or calling but that of agriculture.

The land cultivated by the peasant, therefore, was divided into two principal cate-

That in which he had rights of property.

2. That in which he had only rights of usufruction.

In both cases services were rendered and dues were paid in kind or money to the manor. But in the first case these services and dues may be considered as having had a public, in the latter case a private, origin.

[&]quot;The soil was divided into noble land and peasant land. The former could not be acquired by a peasant nor the latter by a noble. Digitized by Google

As regards the land in which the peasant had only rights of usufruction, it was

divided into two principal categories:

1. Land in which the peasant had hereditary rights of usufruction, and could transmit his holding to his descendants and his collaterals, according to the common law of inheritance.

2. Land in which the occupier was only a tenant for life, or for a term of years, or at

will.

In neither case, however, could the landlord re-enter on this land. The lords of the manor had been deprived of this right, if it ever existed, by various edicts of the former Hohenzollern kings.

Among other provisions of the edict above mentioned was one prohibiting the creation of any new relations of villenage, "either by birth, marriage, or the acquisition of a villein," after the publication of the edict. Another declared that from the same date all peasants holding by hereditary tenures, they and their wives and their children should cease to be villeins. Another abolishes every remaining form of villenage at Martinmas in the year 1810, after which date it was declared there should be none but freemen in all the king's dominions. It was to be understood, however, that these freemen should remain subject to all obligations flowing from the possession of land or from particular contracts to which as freemen they could be subjected.

Up to this time the mass of the Prussian peasantry had been bound The edict of 1807 gave them personal freedom, but did not deprive them of any rights which custom and feudal law had given them in the land they held, nor did it release them from any obligations which had been attached to the occupation of such land. Moreover. the conditions of their tenure were such as to make their holdings in most cases a valuable possession. Without releasing them from the land, the law had gradually improved their position on the land, as may be seen in the edict of Frederick the Great prohibiting the re-entry of the lord on peasant land. He could exact the service and dues belonging to him in virtue of his "over-lordship," but he could not evict the peasant and take personal possession of the land. Virtually, therefore, the land was subject to a species of joint ownership, for the claim which the peasant had upon it constituted a sort of property, as also did that of the lord. It was a property, however, which was subject to the great inconvenience that it could not easily be transferred, for so complicated were the relations of lord and peasant that it was difficult to determine the cash value of their respective rights, or the deductions to be made from that value on account of their respective liabilities. As a remedy for this complicated condition of land-tenure the edict of September 14. 1811, "for the regulation of the relations between the lords of the manor and their peasants," established, among other things, the following rule:

That in the case of hereditary holdings the lords of the manor shall be indemnified for their rights of ownership in the holding, and for the ordinary services and dues attached to the holding, when the tenants shall have surrendered one-third portion of all the lands held by them, and shall have renounced their claims to all extraordinary assistance, as well as to the dead stock, to repairs, and to payment on their behalf of the dues to the state when incapable of doing so.

The lords and the peasants were left free to make what arrangements they pleased as long as the proportion of one-third was maintained; that is, by mutual agreement the indemnity might take the form of a payment of capital, or of a corn or money rent, instead of a surrender to the lord of one-third of the peasant's holding. But the rule to be followed (and a departure from this rule required a distinct motive) was, that the indemnity should be paid in land where the holdings exceeded fifty morgen, (about 33 acres,) and in a corn-rent, where the holdings were under that size.

In respect to the class of holdings held by tenants-at-will, or for a

term of years, or for life, the edict provided that the lord should receive one-half of the land so held as his indemnity for the loss of the dues, services, and rights which he surrendered to the tenant.

In other respects the conditions of the adjustment were much the same as in the case of the hereditary holdings, but with occasional dif-

ferences, which were in favor of the lord of the manor.

The new conditions of land-tenure inaugurated by this edict necessitated corresponding changes in other portions of the agricultural system, and to bring these changes about, the "edict for the better cultivation of the land" was issued on the same day as the one last considered.

To present even a brief statement of its provisions would require more space than can be spared in this connection; but there is one passage which so well illustrates the policy of the Prussian government in regard to the distribution of land among the people that it may properly be quoted in full. After providing that "the proprietor shall henceforth (excepting always where the rights of third parties are concerned) be at liberty to increase or diminish his estate by buying or selling as may seem good to him," to leave the appurtenances thereof to one heir or to many, as he pleases, to "exchange them or give them away, or dispose of them in any and every legal way without requiring any authorization for such changes," the edict enumerates various advantages which will result from "this unlimited right of disposal," and among others the following:

But there is yet another advantage springing from this power of piecemeal alienation which is well worthy of attention, and which fills our paternal heart with especial gladness. It gives, namely, an opportunity to the so-called small folks, (Kleine Leute,) ectiers, gardeners, boothmen, and day-laborers, to acquire landed property, and little by little to increase it. The prospect of such acquisition will render this numerous and useful class of our subjects industrious, orderly, and saving, inasmuch as thus only will they be enabled to obtain the means necessary to the purchase of land. Many of them will be able to work their way upward and to acquire property and to make themselves remarkable for their industry. The state will acquire a new and valuable class of industrious proprietors. By the endeavor to become such, agriculture will obtain new hands, and by increased voluntary exertion more work out of the old ones.

In respect to hereditary leaseholds, this edict enacted that the services and fines attached to such holdings might be commuted into rentcharges, which in their turn could be redeemed by a capital payment calculated at the rate of four per cent. That is, by a payment of twenty-five times the annual rent charge, it might be forever extinguished and the leaseholder be thus made a freeholder.

Such were a few of the leading features of the great measures familiarly known as the Stein and Hardenberg legislation. Several laws of minor importance were subsequently adopted, but the only ones which need be noticed here are those of March 2, 1850, viz, the "law for the redemption of services and dues, and the regulation of the relations between the lords of the manor and their peasants," and the "law for the establishment of rent-banks." These were designed to complete whatever had been left unfinished by previous legislation in the great work of establishing free and separate ownership in the soil. abrogated the "dominium directum," or right of over-lordship so far as it was still held by lords of manors, commuted all remaining services and dues into fixed money rents calculated on the average money value of the services and dues rendered and paid during a certain number of years preceding, and finally provided that these rents should be compulsorily redeemable, either by the immediate payment of eighteen times the annual rent charge, or by an annual payment of 41 or 5 per cent.

for a specified time* on a capital of twenty times the annual rent-

charge

The other law provided the machinery by which this wholesale redemption was to be effected, the state, through the instrumentality of the rent-banks, constituting itself the broker between the tenant and the landlord. The bank established in each district advanced to the landlord, in rent-debentures bearing interest at the rate of four per cent. per annum, a capital sum equal to twenty times the annual rent-charge, and the peasant, along with his ordinary rates and taxes, paid into the hands of the district tax-collector, each month, one-twelfth part of a rent calculated at 5 or 4½ per cent. on this capital sum, according as he elected to free his property from incumbrance in 41½ or 56½ years, the respective terms within which, at compound interest, the 1 or the ½ per cent., paid in addition to the 4 per cent. interest on the debenture, would extinguish the capital.

From the foregoing brief outline of the agrarian legislation of Prussia during the present century, it will be seen how earnest and persistent have been the efforts of that monarchyt to protect all the customary rights in the soil which the peasantry enjoyed under the feudal system as it existed at the beginning of the present century, to give them a full equivalent for such rights under the new system of land-tenure, and in so doing to constitute the masses of the tillers of the soil a sturdy yeomanry cultivating their own fields, and not a race of dependent

hirelings living and laboring upon the land of others.

It is here that we see a marked contrast between the agrarian revolu-

* If the annual payment was $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. it was to be continued $56\frac{1}{12}$ years; if 5 per cent. it was to be continued $41\frac{1}{12}$ years.

[†] The Russian government, in abolishing serfdom, also adopted measures having for their object to secure to the serfs a permanent interest in the soil. Previous to their emancipation the serfs of each estate had occupied land which they cultivated for their own subsistence, the proprietor allowing them three days in the week for their own work and claiming three days for himself. The amount of land assigned to them on their emancipation varied according to circumstances and locality, considerable scope being left for voluntary agreements between the proprietors and the peasants, under conditions calculated to leave the latter as nearly as possible in possession of the same land which they occupied as serfs. The occupation of this land, whatever its amount might be, was obligatory upon the peasants for nine years, as also was the payment of a certain money-rent, or, at the option of the peasant, the performance of a certain amount of labor, the amount for the maximum holding being forty days of man's work and thirty days of woman's, making seventy days in all, of which three-fifths were to be summer and two-fifths winter days. It should be said here that the Russian serfs as a rule lived in villages and cultivated their land in common—a mode of life which prevailed among their ancestors before they were reduced to serfdom, (in 1601.) and to which a considerable proportion of them, perhaps a large majority, will probably adhere for many years to come. The land was assigned to them at the rate of so much per male head of the village community or "mir," and it appears to have been the ebject of the government to leave the peasante as free as possible either to continue their system of common property in land, or to dissolve the "mir," and establish individual ownership with separate cultivation. The average maximum share was about twelve acres, for which the average money-rent was about \$6.00 per annum, or at the rate of 5c cents per acre. As the average rent (\$6.00 per average market value of agricultural labor, a

tion accomplished in Prussia within the present century and that which took place in England upwards of three hundred years ago. In England and Prussia alike the change in the system of land-tenure was accompanied by a change in the mode of cultivation. Indeed, it is probable that the former change was due in a great measure to the necessity which existed for the latter: that is, to the change from cultivation in common by each peasant community to the system of separate holdings cultivated by individuals, or, to use two old English terms, from "champion country" to "severall." "To the student of English history," says Morier, "the word which corresponds to this change is 'inclosure,' the true significance of which has, however, not always been seized by either English or foreign writers on the subject. The great 'inclosing' movement in the sixteenth century is usually described as if it had merely had for its object to turn arable land into pasturage. portance as a joint effort on the part of the lords of the manor to withdraw their demesne lands from the 'communion' of the township has been overlooked. That this object was in itself highly desirable, and the 'conditio sine qua non' of any improvements in agriculture is undeniable; it was an organic change through which every Teutonic community had necessarily to pass. The evils which attended the process in England at the time referred to, arose from the fact that instead of being effected by impartial legislation, as has been the case in Prussia during the present century, the change was forcibly brought about by the one-sided action of the landlords. Any one acquainted with the wactical difficulties experienced in Germany in making analogous separations, will readily comprehend all the injustice which one-sided action in such a process on the part of the stronger must have implied. the most favorable case the withdrawal of, say, one-third or one-half of the land from the 'commonable' arable land of a township, such half or third portion, be it remembered, consisting, in many cases, of small parcels intermixed with those of the commoners, must have rendered the further common cultivation impossible, and thereby compelled the freeholders and copyholders to part with their land and their common rights on any terms. That in less favorable cases the lords of the manor did not look very closely into the rights of their tenants, but interpreted the customs of their respective manors in the sense that suited them best, and that instead of an equitable repartition of land between the two classes, the result was a general consolidation of tenants' land with demesne land, and the creation of large inclosed farms, with the consequent wholesale destruction of agricultural communities or townships is well known to every reader of history.

"Three great countries—England, France, and Germany—began their political life from a similar agricultural basis. In each of them the great conflict between immunity and community, between demesne land and tenant land, between the manor and the peasant, has had to be fought out. In England the manor won; the peasant lost. In France the peasant won; the manor lost. In Germany the game has been drawn,

and the stakes have been divided."

Yes, in England the manor won, and the victory, complete as it was, appears to have been achieved without any serious difficulty. The maritime advantages of England, her comparative exemption from the danger of invasion, and the superiority of her internal police tended to make her, even at an early period, a commercial nation. The opportunities for remunerative employment presented by trade and manufactures attracted the peasants to the towns; and their readiness to sever

their connection with the soil, a connection which in their minds was associated with subjection and servitude, must have been unfavorable to the growth of those prescriptive rights which in time would have made them, like the Prussian peasants at the beginning of the present century, coproprietors with the lords in the land which they occupied. The actual course of events was calculated to encourage the pretensions of the nobility to the absolute control of the soil. One of their earliest encroachments upon the customary rights of the peasantry was the legalization of the claim of the lords of the manor to inclose for their own use a portion of the common pasture-land. In a law passed in 1235 or 1236, it was set forth that many large landed proprietors, who had made over in flef small holdings on their manors to knights and other small freeholders, could not make use of their waste lands and forests. inasmuch as they had let to their vassals the appurtenant pasturagerights, together with the land-plots. On this account it was enacted that if the tenants should complain of the withdrawal of this right of pasturage, and if upon judicial inquiry it should appear that they had as much pasture as was necessary to their holdings, together with free ingress and egress, the complaint should be dismissed. Another law passed in 1285 went a step further, and to the right of inclosure which the lord possessed as against his own vassals, added the same right as against other commoners who were not tenants of the manor. laws, however, had reference only to complaints made by the free tenants; and as the villeins are not mentioned, it is probable that with regard to them the lord of the manor was entirely unrestricted in his encroachments on the common pasture. The right established by these laws was frequently exercised, and is believed to have been of great value, although the land inclosed was sometimes used as a private manorial pasture or park, and not for the purpose of tillage. The origin of many of the vast pleasure-parks now attached to the mansions of the nobility may doubtless be traced to the inclosures of those early times.

Mr. Nasse, however, expresses the opinion* that up to some time in the fifteenth century the agrarian movement of the Middle Ages was, on the whole, advantageous to the position of small landed proprietors, but he says that its further development was "as ruinous to their interests as it had before been favorable." After the general substitution of money-rents for personal services, the lord of the manor had no longer an interest in the preservation of the small tenant, since it was more convenient for him to draw the same amount of rent from a smaller number. It was advantageous to him to diminish the number of claimants to rights in the manorial pasture, and was much easier to convert large peasant-holdings into lease-hold tenures than smaller ones.

We first perceive, says Nasse, in the reign of Henry VII the complaints, subsequently so numerous, of the decreasing numbers of the small landed proprietors, of the inclosures, and of encroachments on the pasture. Two laws of the fourth year of that king's reign (1488) gave public expression to the apprehension excited by the agrarian revolution, which was then in progress. The first, cap. 16, particularly noticed by historians, relates especially to the grass husbandry and the depopulation of the Isle of Wight; the other, cap. 19, "An acte against pulling down of tounes," is of a general character, and applies to the whole country. "Many houses and villages in the kingdom are deserted, the arable land belonging to them is inclosed and converted into pasturage, and idleness (the cause of all evil) is therefore generally prevalent. Where, formerly, two hundred men supported themselves by honest labor, are now to be seen only two or three shepherds." In the first law, which referred to the Isle of Wight, on

^{*&}quot;The agricultural community of the Middle Ages and inclosures of the sixteenth century in England."

^{†&}quot;Toune" is manifestly here used in its old sense, not of city, but dwelling-place, or village.

account of the especial necessity which still existed for a strong population as a dedecount of the especial necessity which still existed for a strong population as a de-fense against the French and other enemies, it was ordered that no one should have a leasehold of more than ten marks of yearly rent, and that no one should pull down farm-buildings or suffer them to fall into decay. The second lays down, gener-ally, that all dwelling and farm buildings which within the last three years have been leased with twenty acres of land, shall be preserved in as far as they are necessary for carrying on an arable husbandry. If this law should be violated, the next superior feudal lord, from whom the land in question was held on lease, was to take half the revenue of the land, the farm-buildings of which had not been maintained.

These complaints may be traced throughout the sixteenth century into the beginning of the seventeenth, in the same manner, without interruption.

we find them also in the following reign again most plainly expressed in the statute-book, in the introduction to the laws by which the practice of encroachments was sought to be restrained. Thus, in 6 Henry VIII, c. 5, and 7 Henry VIII, c. 1, where the mischief done is as plainly described as in the just-cited law of Henry VII: "Pullthe members done is as plainly described as in the just-cited law of rienry viii. "Pulling doune and destruction of tounes wythin thys realme and laying to pasture-lands which customably have been manured and occupyed wyth tyllage and husbandry." When such houses, it goes on to say, have been destroyed since the first day of the present Parliament they are immediately to be rebuilt and the closed lands restored to tillage. The penalty for violation of the law is the same as that of 4 Henry VIII, c. 19, but with the aggravation that if the next feudal lord should neglect to interpose, then the next superior, and finally, above all, the king is empowered to enforce the penalty. These last rulings were later (24 Henry VIII, c. 24) repeated, with the modification that they applied to all agricultural buildings which had fallen into decay since 4 Henry VII, as well as to arable land which had been converted into pasture since the same period, and that generally for thirty to fifty acres of arable land a dwelling-house should be established in which a respectable man could live.

Shortly after this followed the law 25 Henry VIII, c. 12, 13, (1533-4,) which is especially directed against the encroachments with regard to sheep-farming. "Different individuals in the last years had accumulated in their own hands a number of eat individuals in the last years had accumulated in their own hands a number of lauded properties, a multitude of cattle, and especially of sheep. Some of them possessed 24,000 sheep, others 10,000, &c. Tillage is thereby displaced, the country depopulated, and the price of sheep and wool raised in an unheard-of manner." No one, therefore, shall possess more than two thousand sheep, with the exception of laymen, who, upon their own inheritance, may possess as many as they please; but they must not carry on sheep-farming on other properties." Especially it was dwelt upon that in Suffolk and Norfolk the owners of fold-courses within the properties and manors over which their rights extended, redeemed or rented from all the other possessors of land who had the right to pasture their sheep with the manorial flock their pasture-right,

and against this custom a prohibition was issued.

There is good reason to believe that the evils so generally complained of were materially aggravated by the confiscation of the abbey lands in the later years of the reign of Henry VIII.† This measure might have yielded great advantages to the nation had the immense domains of the church, comprising from one-fourth to one-half of the kingdom, been wisely disposed of for the best interests of the people; but, under the selfish and unstatesmanlike policy of Henry, they were transferred from the ecclesiastical corporations to landlords, who, as a rule, were far more exacting than the abbots had been, t without giving more attention to the cultivation of their estates.

The religious houses, situated in the midst of their domains, had themselves afforded to the tenants a market for a considerable portion of their produce; the new landlords not only exacted higher rents, but spent the greater portion of their incomes in the capital, thus inflicting apon the country the well-known evils of absenteeism, of which Ireland has more recently afforded so striking an illustration. Moreover, the transfer of title from the ecclesiastical bodies to the king, and through him to new proprietors, appears to have been effected without proper reservations for the rights of the occupiers of the soil, many of whom were not mere tenants at will, but persons having a sort of qualified.

The measure was authorized by Parliament in the year 1539. It is admitted that the abbots were most indulgent landlords.



^{&#}x27;The rise in the price of sheep and wool was doubtless one of the causes of the state of things complained of instead of being one of its effects.

ownership. Thus it was set forth in a publication, which appeared in 1546, that the new possessors of church property claimed that its secularization had extinguished all the old rights of copyholders on church lands, who were obliged either to give up their holdings, or retain them on temporary leases. In the end the liberation of the land from the shackles of mortmain was doubtless conducive to a higher cultivation, but it must be remembered that these were not the only shackles by which English estates had been bound, nor were they at all times the shackles whose effect was most injuriously felt. The Hon. C. Wren Hoskyns, M. P., in a carefully-prepared paper on "the land-laws of England," published in 1870, refers in the following language to the effect of the two famous statutes (Quia Emptores and De Donis Conditionalibus,) passed in the reign of Edward I:

These two statutes for nearly two centuries crushed the growing effort to emancipate land from its feudal fetters, at least, by open alienation, and had the further mischievous effect of making the position of the unfortunate tenant in agriculture more insecure than ever, as no leasing power of one tenant-in-tail was binding on his successor. Thence all good farming betook itself to the monastic houses, whose mortmain lands became the fixed asylum of agricultural knowledge and improvement. Certainty of tenure out of doors, and the classical writers on husbandry studied and transcribed within, told powerfully upon the soil, and were draining and redeeming into cultivation the fens and marshes of Lincoln and Somerset and Sussex, while elsewhere the pressure of feudal exaction upon the fee-simple proprietor, and the insecurity of the farming tenant, even under lease, reduced cultivation to its most precarious and servile condition, and dwarfed the agricultural growth of the kingdom. The remedy for the effects of these statutes was gradually found in a practice which drew from the machinery of the law the instrument of its own evasion by means of what was called a common recovery.

Sir F. M. Eden remarks that "the statutes which enabled the nobility to alienate their estates, the seizure and sale of the abbey lands by Henry VIII, and the general effects of increasing industry, must have powerfully operated toward a more equal division of property than could possibly have taken place in times when the nation was poorer and the shackles of mortmain and entails more rigidly observed." He admits. however, that, "while these powerful causes were gradually transferring a great portion of the estates of the church and the nobility into the hands of country gentlemen, * * * the race of cot-tagers was going fast to decay." He adds: "This must ever be the case in an improved state of agriculture," since "the half-starved proprietor of ten or twenty acres will often be persuaded to part with his land to a rich neighbor who farms on an extensive scale." The predilection of an English baronet for the system of large farms was very natural; but without stopping to discuss the advantages of la petite culture, as exemplified in different parts of Europe, and especially in portions of France, and in Belgium, it may be said here that the decay of "the race of cottagers," or peasant farmers, was undoubtedly one of the causes of that enormous increase of vagabondage and mendicancy which, at the period under consideration, was the theme of such constant complaint.

About the middle of the sixteenth century, the popular discontent at the agrarian revolution, which was making such rapid progress, became intense. The pamphlets of the time, says Nasse, are filled with it, and the most celebrated preachers zealously inveighed against it as the ruling sin of the times. Bishop Latimer, in his famous "Sermon of the Plough," preached before the court of Edward VI on the 8th of March, 1549, complains that, where formerly there were dwellings and inhabitants, now there are only the shepherd and his dog. He reproaches the nobles, who were among his audience, as "inclosers, graziers, and rent-

raisers," who made dowerless slaves of the English veomanry. Still more vehemently did Bernard Gilpin raise his voice against the conduct of the gentlemen: "To drive poor people out of their dwellings they consider no crime, but say the land belongs to them, and then cast them out of their homes like vermin. Thousands in England now beg from door to door who formerly kept honest houses. Never," said he. "were there so many gentlemen and so little gentleness," Scory, bishop of Rochester, in the year 1551, presented a petition to the King, in which he complains that now there are only "ten ploughs, where formerly there were from forty to fifty." Two acres out of three have been put out of culture, and where his majesty's predecessors had a hundred men fit for service, now there are scarcely half that number, and those in a much worse position. The country population in England would soon be "more like the slavery and peasantry of France than the ancient and godly veomanry of England."

The following passage from one of Latimer's sermons incidentally illustrates the condition of substantial English youmen at the beginning of the sixteenth century, and at the same time serves to show how great a change the lapse of half a century had made in the circum-

stances of that class:

My father, he says, was a yeoman, and had no landes of his owne, onely he had a farme of 3 or 4 pounds by year at the uttermest, and hereupon he tilled so much as kept half a dozzen men. He had walke for an hundredth sheepe, and my mother milked xxv kine. * " He kept me to schole, or els I had not bene able to have preached before the Kinge's majestie now. He maryed my sisters with five pound, or ix nobles a peece, so that he brought them up in godlynes and feare of God. He kept hospitalite for his poore neighboures, and some almes he gave to the poore; and all this did he of the said farme. Where he that now hath it payeth xvi pound by the yeare, or more, and is not able to doe anything for his prince, for himselfe, nor for his children, or geve a cup of drinke to the poore.

After the accession of the boy-king, Edward VI, the lord protector sprointed an extraordinary commission for the redress of the grievances attendant upon inclosures, exhorting its members to fulfill the duties of their office without any respect to persons, and fearlessly to bring to account those who had violated the laws of Henry VIII for the maintenance of tillage. "A kind of memorial," says Professor Nasse, "has been handed down to us of the state of things which was laid before the commission by John Hales, one of their most active members. These could not be painted in darker colors than they are there de-Ruined dwellings and evicted husbandmen were everywhere to be seen; where formerly 12,000 men dwelt, there were now scarcely 4,000; sheep and oxen, destined to be eaten by man, have devoured men; the defensive power of the country had fallen into danger by depopulation; the King had been obliged to take into his service foreign troops, German, Italian, and Spanish, &c. He specifies the following five principal heads of grievances: Ruin of villages and agricultural buildings; conversion of arable land into pasture; great multitude of sheep; amalgamation of farms; and the failure of hospitality on account of the dissolution of monasteries. He also expressly mentions that inclosures, (in themselves,) which every one undertakes himself on his own ground and soil, are beneficial to the common good, the question only being of such inclosures by which the rights of others suffered, when 'houses of husbandry were pulled down or arable land converted to pasture."

These representations, as well as the recommendations based upon them, were barren of results; and Hales complained that the sheep had

been intrusted to the protection of the wolf.

"It is no wonder," says Nasse, "that under such circumstances the

intry population attempted to apply a remedy themselves. The fordable insurrection of the peasantry in 1549, in the eastern counties, d principally for its object the removal of the inclosures. Similar disbances were frequently repeated at a later period on a smaller scale; d even at the end of the sixteenth and commencement of the sevenenth century, insurrections of the peasants occurred in Oxfordshire d other places in central England, in order to root out the hedges (levrs) and to restore the tillage.

"We may learn, also, that the agrarian revolution progressed under izabeth, from, among other things, an interesting dialogue, 'A comndious or briefe examination of certayne ordinary complaints,' &c..

W. S., gentleman, of London, 1581. In this dialogue, the inclosures, the crying evil of the times, were discussed by different persons—a ctor, a nobleman, and a farmer. The farmer complains that he and s class are ruined by the inclosures, which raise rents and cause a arth of arable land. He has witnessed in his district, in a circuit of s than six English miles, in the last seven years, a dozen plows ing idle, and the lands where sixty persons and more had gained their ing, were now occupied by the cattle of one.

"It is still very remarkable how the supplanting of so many landed oprietors just then took place, when that class among them which bod in the most unfavorable position in a legal point of view, had

tained a protection at law for their rights of property.

"In spite of this, these copyholders were driven in great numbers from eir rural hides.* When an extraordinary royal commission like that of e protector, ordered to inquire into illegal inclosures and the eviction peasants, could not prevail against the ruling classes, it is very easy conceive that the protection of the high courts of judicature or the dges in their circuits could afford little help to the poor small peasant. is rights rested on the custom of the manor, which was to be proved om the manor-roll, in the possession of the ford of the manor; and a pyholder could lose these rights by numerous acts, by which he failed his obligations toward the lord, or even by acting otherwise than in ison with rights established by custom of the manors. The small copylders were not in a position to establish such rights before learned bunals when opposed by experienced advocates. Latimer, on this count, accuses the judges even of injustice and corruption, (being open bribes,) and maintains that, 'in these days gold is all-powerful with e tribunals.' Certainly, also, a time like that under the rule of Henry III, and the following years, while so great a revolution in church and ate was in progress, could not have been favorable for the support of

this which were dependent upon custom.

"It is no part of our task here to follow these movements beyond the steenth century; but this much is certain, that however powerfully ey showed themselves at that time, they only attained their object to limited extent. The official reports concerning the duration of the rarian community up to this century have been already referred to; d it has also been shown that the smaller landed proprietors had cerinly in no wise completely disappeared in the sixteenth century.

"The freeholders had, for the most part, maintained their holdings, and e copyholders had not nearly all been supplanted or converted into iseholders. Still, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, Coke uld say, in a well-known judgment, that the third part of England

^{&#}x27;The term hide refers to a quantity of land, the extent of which is variously estimalat from 60 to 100 acres.

consisted of copyhold. But the revolution which then began has continued even in our times. Its progress has been sometimes quicker, sometimes slower, and gradually the connection which there was at the commencement between the two phenomena—inclosures and peasant eviction—has been less close; but it still remains unmistakable that, among the many circumstances which have caused the complete disappearance of the medieval peasant class, the first and most important was the dissolution of the old communities in land."

Admitting that the dissolution of these communities and the establishment of separate and independent tillage were essential to the progress of agriculture, it must still be regarded as a great misfortune to the masses of the English people, and, indeed, to England as a nation, that this change was not effected without a complete sacrifice of the

interests of the peasant to those of the noble.

It has been shown that the abolition of the feudal relations in Prussia was followed by measures expressly designed for the creation of a free-holding peasantry, and substantially the same thing occurred in other German states. In like manner the emancipation of the Russian serf was accompanied by measures which exhibited at once the humane regard of the government for his future well-being and its enlightened recognition of the fact that material independence is an essential condition of true freedom—a condition without which the much-vaunted civil liberty of Anglo-Saxon nations may become to millions of the unfortu-

nate an empty name.

In France, Switzerland, Belgium, Holland, and, indeed, throughout the greater part of Europe, the people who cultivate the soil are, for the most part, the people who own it. In England the agricultural laborer does not own so much as the hovel in which he dwells. "Theirs," says Mr. Fawcett,† speaking of the members of this class, "is a life of incessant toil for wages too scanty to give them a sufficient supply even of the first necessaries of life. No hope cheers their monotonous career. A life of constant labor brings them no other prospect than that, when their strength is exhausted, they must crave as suppliant mendicants a pittance from parish relief. Many classes of laborers have still to work as long and for as little remuneration as they received in times past; and one out of every twenty inhabitants of England is sunk so deep in pauperism, that he has to be supported by parochial relief."

In the paper on "The Land Laws of England," from which an extract has been already given, Mr. C. Wren Hoskyns speaks as follows:

It is true we commonly hear our agricultural system spoken of as comprehending the landlord, the tenant, and the laborer, and so, in a certain sense, it does; but no one who considers the position of the laborer in English agriculture will assert that he has any fixed personal tie within the structure—that he stands to it in any relation but that of an auxiliary, more or less in demand at different seasons of the year, subject to the precarious vicissitudes of that demand; no longer, indeed, as in former times also justs glebs—free to go and come as he pleases, but without part or parcel in the land he helps to cultivate, or any certain abode upon it, near it, or in connection with it, for himself or for his family.

In many respects the people of England are far more fortunate than their neighbors on the continent. The insular position of the country exempts it from the ravages of war, greatly diminishes the cost of the military establishment, and, by warding off external dangers, increases liberty at home. Enriched by an enormous commerce and a prodigious development of manufacturing industry, and enjoying the blessings of free speech, a free press, and a government which is republican in all but the name, the middle classes occupy a truly enviable position; and

^{*}See note on page 122. † Economic Position of the British Laborer, p. 6.

even the more fortunate of the working men enjoy a very fair degree of comfort. But, whatever may be said of other classes of the English people as compared with corresponding classes in other counties, no one can seriously compare the condition of the agricultural laborer* of Great Britain with that of the peasant proprietor of France or Belgium, who, however severe may be his toil, has a home from which no landlord can expel and an employment from which no master can dismiss him. The comparative advantages of large and small farms, with a view to economy of cultivation, may, perhaps, be regarded as an open question; but to those who regard the state of the people as being of greater moment than the state of agricultural industry, no system of land-tenure will seem less satisfactory than one which reduces the great mass of the tillers of the soil to the condition of hirelings and paupers.

FROM THE REIGN OF ELIZABETH TO THAT OF GEORGE III.

From the causes already referred to, as well as from others that need not here be discussed, the circumstances of the working people of England during the Tudor reigns underwent a decided change for the worse. "In 1495," says Wade, "A laborer could purchase with his wages 199 pints of wheat; in the year 1593, only 82 pints; in 1610, only 46 pints." Eden expresses the opinion that in the sixteenth century the consumption of meat was principally confined to the cities, and that bread commonly of an inferior quality was the principal diet of the laboring peo-About the year 1576, Harrison wrote that "the gentilitie" commonly provided themselves" sufficientlie of wheate" for their own tables. while their households and their poor neighbors in some shires were obliged to content themselves with rve or barley. He adds, "Yea, and in time of dearth many with bread made either of peas, beans, or oats, or of all together, and some acorns among, of which scourge the poorest do soonest taste, sith they are least able to provide themselves of better. not say that this extremity is oft so well seen in time of plenty as of dearth, but if I should, I could easily bring my trial. For albeit that there be much more ground eared now almost in every place than hath been of late years, yet such a price of corn continues in each town and market that the artificer and poor laboring men is not able to reach it. but is driven to content himself with beans, peas, oats, tares, and lentils." The following extract from the "orders, rules, and directions," issued by the justices of the peace of the county of Suffolk in the year 1588, affords an example of the food then allowed in houses of correction, and may. perhaps, be regarded as supplying some indication of the ordinary fare of the poor:

Item. It is ordered, that every person committed to the said house, shall have for theire dietts, their portions of meate and drinke followings, and not above, (viz:) At every dynner and supper on the fleshe daies, bread made of rye, viii ounces troye weight, with a pynte of porredge, a quarter of a pound of fleshe and a pynte of beare, of the rate of iiis. a barrell, every barrell to conteyne xxxvi gallands; and on every fyshe daie at dynner and supper the like quantitic made eyther of milk or pease or such lyke, and the thurd part of a pound of chese, or one good heringe, or twoe white or redd, accordinge as the keper of the house shall thinke meete.

Item. It is ordered that such persons as will applie theirs works shall have allowed.

Item. It is ordered that such persons as will applie theire worke, shall have allowance of beare and a little bread between meales, as the keper of the house shall fynd that he doth deserve in his said worke.

Item. It is ordered, that they which will not worke shall have noe allowance but bread and beare only, untill they will conforme themselves to worke.

^{*}It must be confessed that a large proportion of the unskilled laborers of the towns and cities are quite as badly off as the most wretched of the agricultural laborers.

†It was probably the latter part of that century which he chiefly had in view.

In the reign of Henry VIII bacon appears to have formed a part of the regular diet of laborers; and Latimer, in one of his sermons, says it "is their necessary meate to feede one, which they may not lacke." Tusser, who died about the year 1580, or 1585, says,

Good ploughmen looke weekely, of custome and right, For rost meat on Sundaies and Thursdaies at night.

But if roast meat was used by "good ploughmen" twice a week, it seems probable that at the time Tusser wrote meat of some kind, or fish. was used as often as once a day. As late as the year 1532 the price of beef was fixed by act of Parliament * at a halfpenny per pound, and that of mutton at three farthings. These rates, low as they now appear, were higher than those which had previously prevailed, for we read in Stow's Chronicle that fat oxen were sold for £1 0s. 8d. a head; fat calves or wethers for 3s. 4d.; and fat lambs for 1s. "The butchers of London," says Stow, "sold penny pieces of beef for the relief of the poor—every piece two pounds and a half, sometimes three pounds, for a penny; and thirteen, and sometimes fourteen, of these pieces for twelve pence." Mr. Froude informs us that the act just mentioned was repealed in consequence of the complaints against it, but that prices never fell again to what they had been. He states, however, that as late as 1570 beef was sold in the gross for a halfpenny a pound, while in country markets a fat goose could be bought for fourpence, a capon for threepence or fourpence, a hen for twopence, and a chicken for a penny. But in the later years of Queen Elizabeth's reign there was a general and excessive rise of prices, in consequence of an uninterrupted succession of bad seasons. In the year 1587 wheat rose to £3 4s. per quarter: in 1594 it was £2 16s.; and in 1595 £2 13s. 4d. Blomefield, in his history of Norfolk, states that during the latter year the price of wheat at Norwich was £2 per quarter; of rye, £1 10s.; of barley, £1; of oatmeal, £2; of beef, 3s. per stone; of the best sheep, 14s. per capita; of lambs, 5s.; of calves, £1; of fat capons, 3s. 4d.; of pigeons, 3d.; of rabbits, 8d.; and of cheese, 4d. per pound. He adds that in the beginning of 1596 prices fell, but says that "by reason of a wet May they rose again, so that wheat was sold in the market at 28s. a comb in the beginning of August, but fell to 18s. the same month; and in the month following all things rose again to such large prices that it was a very hard year with the poor."

How high these prices were for those times may be better appreciated if they are compared with those of the one hundred and forty years embraced in Mr. Rogers's table, from which it appears that the average price of wheat from 1261 to 1400, inclusive, was only 5s. 103d. per quarter; that of barley, 4s. 33d.; that of oats, 2s. 53d.; and that of rye, 4s. 44. Froude states that in the middle of the fourteenth century the average price of wheat was 10d. per bushel, and that of barley 3s. per "With wheat," he says, "the fluctuation was excessive; a table of its possible variations describes it as ranging from 18d. the quarter to 20s.; the average, however, being 6s. 8d. same scale, with a scarcely appreciable tendency to rise, continued to hold until the disturbance in the value of the currency. In the twelve sears from 1551 to 1562, although once before harvest wheat rose to the extraordinary price of 45s. the quarter, it fell immediately after to 5s. d. Six and eight pence continued to be considered in Parliament as the average; and, on the whole, it seems to have been maintained for

that time with little or no variation."

^{*}Statute 3, 24 Henry VIII. † History of England, Vol. I, p. 29.

The high prices which Blomfield gives as prevailing at Norwich in 1596 were exceeded in many other portions of the kingdom. At Bristol wheat sold as high as 18s. and 20s. per bushel and rye at 10s.; and, according to an old manuscript chronicle, such was the prevailing distress that "every alderman and worshipful man, and every burgess of this city that was of any worth, was appointed every day to find with victuals at his table so many poor people that wanted work, whereby the poor of our city were all relieved and kept from starving or rising."

During the same period the prices of a large number of commodities were greatly enhanced by a cause that was artificial in its character. namely, the granting of patents of monopoly by the Crown. "The English sovereigns," says Macaulay,* "had always been intrusted with the supreme direction of commercial police. It was their undoubted prerogative to regulate coin, weights, and measures, and to appoint fairs, markets, and ports. The line which bounded their authority over trade had, as usual, been but loosely drawn. They therefore, as usual. encroached on the province which rightfully belonged to the legislature. The encroachment was, as usual, patiently borne till it became serious. But at length the Queen took upon herself to grant patents of monopoly by scores. There was scarcely a family in the realm which did not feel itself aggrieved by the oppression and extortion which this abuse naturally caused. Iron, oil, vinegar, coal, saltpeter, lead, starch, yarn, skins, leather, glass, could be bought only at exorbitant prices. House of Commons met in an angry and determined mood. It was in vain that a courtly minority blamed the speaker for suffering the acts of the Queen's Highness to be called in question. The language of the discontented party was high and menacing, and was echoed by the voice of the whole nation. The coach of the chief minister of the Crown was surrounded by an indignant populace, who cursed the monopolies, and exclaimed that the prerogative should not be suffered to touch the old liberties of England. There seemed for a moment to be some danger that the long and glorious reign of Elizabeth would have a shame-She, however, with admirable judgment and ful and disastrous end. temper, declined the contest, put herself at the head of the reforming party, redressed the grievances, thanked the Commons in touching and dignified language for their tender care of the general weal, brought back to herself the hearts of the people, and left to her successors a memorable example of the way in which it behooves a ruler to deal with public movements which he has not the means of resisting."

The patents of monopoly, however, were too valuable a source of income to be overlooked by Elizabeth's successor, by whom they were renewed to be again abolished. Even the exercise of skilled industry was hampered by the arbitrary and exclusive regulations of the incorporated guilds and trade companies which monopolized the commerce and industry of the principal cities, and vigilantly guarded their pre-

rogatives against all trespassers.

The system of regulating wages by statute, which has been noticed further back, was maintained under Elizabeth. An act passed in the fifth year of her reign, (A. D. 1563,) recognized the rise of prices which had already taken place, and in view of which the wages fixed under Henry VIII had become inadequate to the needs of the laborer. It empowered the justices of the peace to fix the rates of wages from year to year, according to "the plenty or scarcity of the time and other circumstances necessarily to be considered." The following synopsis of its

^{*} History of England, Vol. I, p. 49.

leading provisions, as well as those of two other statutes passed a few years later, is given by Eden, in the work already referred to:

The persons affected by it may be divided into three classes: menial servants, laborers, and apprentices. With respect to the first, all single persons between twelve years old and sixty, and married ones under thirty years of age, and unmarried women between twelve and forty, not having a visible livelihood, are compellable by two justices to go out to service in husbandry or certain specific trades; and no master can put away his servants, or servant leave his master, before the expiration of his term without the assent of a justice, nor even at the end of his term without giving a quarter's warning. Servants departing from their masters before the end of their term, unless upon some reasonable cause to be allowed by a justice, or refusing to serve for the wages appointed by the magistrates, are punishable with imprisonment till they consent to serve. The givers of greater wages than what were allowed by the statute were made liable to ten days' and the takers to twenty-one days' imprisonment.

Laborers and artificers, hired by the day or week, are bound to work, in summer, from five in the morning till between seven and eight at night, and in winter

Laborers and artificers, hired by the day or week, are bound to work, in summer, from five in the morning till between seven and eight at night, and in winter from daylight till dark; they are allowed the same time for meals as in former statutes. Artificers are compellable to serve in getting in the harvest. Laborers, who cannot procure harvest-work in their own countries, are permitted to go into other countries during the hay and corn harvest, provided they carry with them a testimo-

nial from a justice of peace.

The statute enables householders, in time of husbandry, to receive apprentices under the age of eighteen to serve till twenty-four years of age by indenture; and the householders in corporate towns, exercising any art, mystery, or manual occupation there, and all persons elsewhere using the trades specified in the statute, are empowered to take apprentices, under certain qualifications, to serve them for seven years, provided the term does not expire before the apprentice is twenty-four years of age.

take apprentices, under certain qualifications, to serve them for seven years, provided the term does not expire before the apprentice is twenty-four years of age.

And male children of poor persons, by a subsequent statute, may be apprenticed out by the overseers, with consent of two justices, till twenty-four years of age, and females till twenty-one, to such persons as are thought fitting. Blackstone remarks that "gentlemen of fortune and clergymen are equally liable with others to such compulsion; and that the statutes for the regulation of wages extend only to servants in husbandry, it being impossible for any magistrate to be a judge of the employment of menial servants, or, of course, to assess their wages."

The first Parliament under James I extended the rating powers of the magistrates to the wages of "laborers, weavers, spinsters, and workmen, or workwomen, whatsoever, either working by the day, week, month, or year, or taking any work at any person's hand whatsoever, to be done in great or otherwise." An act intended to have a somewhat similar effect was passed in the thirty-ninth year of Elizabeth, but appears to

have been inoperative.

One of the effects of this extension of the power of the magistrates was to enable employers in many cases to fix the rate of wages for their own workmen. In respect to one branch of business this evil appears to have been foreseen; for it was provided by the last clause of the act above referred to, "that no clothier, being a justice of the peace in any precinct or liberty, should be any rater of wages for any weaver, tucker, spinster, or other artisan that depended upon the making of cloth; and in case there were not above two justices of the peace within such precinct but such as were clothiers, the wages should be rated and assessed by the major part of the common council of such precinct or liberty, and such justice or justices as were not clothiers."

Before the close of the reign of James I, (1625,) some amelioration in the condition of the working classes had apparently taken place. The discovery of America had by this time begun to exhibit its effect in stimulating commercial enterprise, and manufactures had received a new impetus in consequence of the ferocious persecutions of Philip II and his lieutenants (particularly the notorious Alva) in the Netherlands, which, during the preceding reign, had compelled thousands of industrious Flemings to seek a refuge in England, where they established the manufacture of baizes, serges, and other stuffs, and successfully carried on a variety of textile industries.

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The policy of encouraging ship-building by public bounties had been inaugurated under Elizabeth, and under James large sums of money were devoted to this object, while the twenty-two years of uninterrupted peace with which this reign was favored afforded a rare opportunity for the development of the new industries which had taken root. crease of capital is indicated by the fall in the legal rate of interest. which during this reign was reduced from 10 to 8 per cent., and whatever may have been the condition of the working classes, that of the country at large appears on the whole to have been prosperous.

The increasing activity of industry, no doubt, diminished the amount of pauperism and vagrancy: but the increase of wages which it brought with it does not appear to have been equal to the increase in the prices of commodities. From a proclamation issued in 1623, directing the purchase of wheat, rye, and barley for storage in public magazines, whenever these grains fell below 32s., 18s., and 16s. per quarter, respectively; it appears that these prices were at that time considered low; and from the Windsor table of prices it appears that the average price of middling wheat from 1606 to 1625 was £1 14s. 1 d. per bushel, (Winchester measure.) Meat was also extremely high in comparison with its price in former times. Birch, in a life of Prince Henry, presented the prices paid for meat by the purveyors of the prince's household, and it appears that beef was 3\(\frac{1}{2}d\), and mutton 3\(\frac{1}{2}d\), the pound. This was probably about the year 1610. at which time the wages allowed by the magistrates in a midland county to men employed in agricultural labor ranged from 6d. to 10d. a day. without board, while women employed in hay-making were allowed 4d. a day without board.

From a contract for victualing the navy, entered into by King James in 1622, the text of which is given in Rymer's "Foedera," we obtain the following statement of the fare allowed to common seamen at the time in question, from which some idea may perhaps be formed of the diet

of the laboring classes:

Every man's daily allowance was one pound of biscuit, one gallon of beer, and two pounds of beef, with salt, four days in the week; or else, instead of beef, for two of the four days, one pound of bacon, or pork salted, and one pint of pease, as heretofore hath been used and accustomed; and for the other three days of the week, one quarter of stock-fish, half a quarter of a pound of butter, and a quarter of a pound of cheese, except that on Friday only one meal of fish, butter, and cheese was allowed. Herrings or other fish, according to the season, were to be provided in lieu of stock-fish.

The allowance to the contractor was, for every man's victuals, in harbor, seven-

pence half-penny, and at sea, eightpence the day.

In a tract published in 1615, advocating the fitting out of busses* to enable the English to compete with the Dutch in the herring fisheries, we find a minute statement of the provisions which the author considered necessary for the sustenance of sixteen men and boys on one of these vessels for a period of sixteen weeks, together with a statement of the price of each commodity. The proposed daily allowance for each man or boy was one gallon of beer, one pound of biscuit, half a pound of oatmeal or pease, one-fourth pound of butter, one-half pound of Holland cheese, and as much fresh fish as they could eat. In addition to the above each man or boy was to be allowed 2 pounds of bacon (for four meals) per week, and 3 pints of vinegar daily were to be divided among the entire number. There was also an allowance of 800 Kentish fagots for fuel to last through the voyage.

The prices were as follows: Beer, £2 per tun, or 24d. per gallon; biscuit, 13s. 4d. per cwt., (of 112 pounds,) or $1\frac{3}{2}d$. per pound; oatmeal or

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pease, 4s. per bushel; bacon, $3\frac{1}{4}d$. per pound; butter, £1 per firkin, (56 pounds,) or $4\frac{2}{4}d$. per pound; cheese, $2\frac{1}{2}d$. per pound; vinegar, £1 per

tierce, (of 42 gallons,) or $5\frac{5}{7}d$. per gallon; faggots, 8s. per 100.

The wages of the crew were stated as follows: Master or captain, per month, £5; two mates, each, per month, £1 4s.; six men, each, per month, £1; six other men, each, per month, 16s.; a boy, per month, 16s. It should be observed that these wages are high when compared with those of agricultural laborers at the same period.

In forming an estimate of the fare of the common people at the time under consideration, it must be remembered that many esculent plants, now commonly used, were then but little known, or were confined exclusively to the tables of the rich. "Potatoes," says Eden, "which are now very generally used by the poor in every part of England, where fuel is cheap, were, in King James's reign, considered as a great delicacy. They are noticed among the different articles provided for the Queen's household; the quantity, however, is extremely small, and the price is 1s. per pound. In 1619 two cauliflowers cost 3s., and sixteen artichokes 3s. 4d.; prices which would now be deemed extravagant, but they were then regarded as rarities, as they are still in the remote parts of the kingdom. Tea and sugar, which are now to be met with in most cottages in the southern parts of England, were still greater rarities. The latter is, indeed, noticed by many authors even as early as the fourteenth century, but continued to be very dear even in James's reign."

From a small pamphlet entitled "Grievous Grones for the Poore," published in 1622, it appears that beggary was still a prevalent evil, and that the poor laws were not rigidly enforced; for the writer complains that "though the number of the poore do dailie encrease there hath beene no collection for them, no not these seven yeares, in many

parishes of this land, especiallie in countrie townes."

During the early years of the reign of Charles I the condition of the working classes was much the same as it had been under his immediate predecessor; and after the commencement of the civil war, as well as under the Protector, the attention of the government was so much engrossed with exciting public events as to leave little time for legislation in regard to the interests of the poor. In 1646 there was published a small quarto tract, entitled "Stanleye's Remedye: or the way how to reform wandring beggers, theeves, highway-robbers, and pickpockets," in which it was argued that the condition of the poor might be greatly relieved "by the means of work-houses in all cities, market-townes, and all able parishes in the kingdome." The following extracts from the concluding portion of this pamphlet will serve to illustrate the prevalence of mendicity and crime, as well as the summary manner in which the authorities were accustomed to deal with these evils:

The poor may be whipped to death and branded for rogues, and so become felons by the law, and the next time hanged for vagrancie, (by an act made in the days of Queen Elizabeth, of famous memorie,) before any private man will set them to work, or provide houses for labor, and stock and materials for them. The public must join their shoulders to the work, else it will never be done.

To conclude, it is very lamentable that poor rogues and beggars should be whipped, or branded according to law, or otherwise punished, because they are begging, or idle, and do not work, when no place is provided for them to set them to work. I have heard the rogues and beggars curse the magistrates unto their faces, for providing such a law to whip and brand them, and not provide houses of labor for them.

I make no doubt (most gracious soveraigne!) but it is evident to all men, that beg

^{*} This was near the close of the last century.

gary and thievery did never no more abound within this your realm of England; and the cause of this misery is idleness, and the only means to cure the same must be by his contrary, which is labor; for tell the begging soldier, and the wandering and sturdy beggar, that they are able to work for their living, and bid them go to work, they will presently answer you, they would work if they could get it. But if workhouses were set up in all able parishes, it will take away all such defensory and usual answers, and then it will be tried whether it will work or not.

There is no doubt that the civil war, which at the time this pamphlet appeared had been in progress for several years, occasioned much distress among all classes; yet manufacturing and mechanical industry had taken root so firmly in the country, that under the commonwealth it was quickly restored to a prosperous condition; and the progressive increase of capital, as compared with the demand for it, is indicated by the fact that in 1651 the legal rate of interest was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent.

In 1662 there was passed the important statute in relation to settlements, by which the mass of the laboring poor were practically restricted to a residence in the parish in which they were born. Up to this time they had been free to seek employment wherever it was to be found, only those who were unable or unwilling to work being compelled to reside in the places of their settlement, i. e., the places where in case of necessity they were entitled to parish relief. But the act of 13 and 14 Charles II.* provided against the possibility that workmen might at some future time become chargeable to the parish by preventing them from wandering from their usual places of abode, "lest particular parishes." says Eden, "which, from their situation, their privileges, or other circumstances, held out inviting prospects to new-comers, should in the end be overburdened with poor." By this act it was provided "That the residence in a parish necessary in order to procure a settlement should be reduced to forty days, and that within that time it should be lawful for any two justices of the peace, upon complaint made by the church-wardens and overseers of the poor, to remove any new-comer to the parish where he was last legally settled, unless he either rented a tenement of ten pounds a year or could give such security for the discharge of the parish where he was living as the two justices should deem sufficient."

"The law respecting settlements," says Eden, "unavoidably led to the commission of frauds, both by poor persons who were desirous of obtaining settlements, and by the parish officers who allowed them to acquire settlements, by a clandestine residence in the parish they came to; it was, therefore, enacted by the 1st of James II that the forty days' continuance of any new-comer should be accounted only from the time of his delivering notice, in writing, of the place of his abode and the number of his family (when he had any) to one of the church-wardens or overseers of the parish to which he should remove; and in order to prevent parish officers from collusively receiving such notices, it was further enacted, by the 3d of William and Mary, that the forty days' continuance in a parish should be accounted only from the publication of such notice by its being read in the church, immediately after divine service, on the Sunday after it was delivered to the overseer.

While, however, the legislature thus restrained the laboring poor from obtaining settlements by a notice, it appointed other ways by which a person might gain a settlement without the publication of a notice, namely, by being charged to the public taxes and paying them; by exe-

^{*}Although Charles actually ascended the throne in 1660, his reign is officially dated from the time of his father's death in 1649, and the various acts of Parliament are numbered accordingly.



cuting an annual office in the parish, and serving in it a year: by serving an apprenticeship in the parish; by being lawfully hired into any parish for a year, and (as a subsequent statute requires) continuing in

the same service a twelvemonth.

As might have been foreseen, the effect of these regulations was to keep large numbers of people in poverty and idleness in their own parishes, when employment might have been readily obtained in other localities, had they been free to go and seek it. This was set forth in the preamble to the act of 1697, which provided that if any person coming to reside in a parish should deliver to the church-wardens or overseers a certificate under the hand and seal of the church-wardens and overseers of the parish where he was last legally settled, allowed and subscribed by two justices of the peace, he should not be removable merely on account of his being likely to become chargeable, but only on his becoming actually chargeable, to the parish, when the parish which granted the certificate should be required to pay the expense both of his maintenance and removal. It was not, however, until near the close of the eighteenth century that the law was so changed as to afford any material relief from the unwholesome and senseless restric-

tions imposed by the law of settlements.

It does not appear that the reigns of Charles II and his immediate successor were unfavorable to the industrial and commercial prosperity of the country, however unsatisfactory they may have been in their political aspects. In 1662, the second year after the Restoration, the revenue from customs amounted to £414,946; in 1688 it had increased to £781,987. The intervening period had also been marked by an increase in the number of buildings, the consumption of luxuries, and other indications of material prosperity. Sir William Petty, in his Political Arithmetic, published in 1676, says that the number of houses when he wrote was double what it had been forty years before. The royal navy had doubled in the same period, and the shipping of Newcastle had increased fourfold. He also notices the increased imports of wine and the general improvement in the style of living. His contemporary, Sir Joshua Child, observes that in 1688 the number of men on change worth £10,000 was greater than the number worth £1,000 had been in 1650; that in those earlier times gentlewomen thought themselves well clothed when wearing a serge gown, in which a chamber maid in 1688 would have been ashamed to appear; and that, besides the great increase in clothes, plate, jewels, and household furniture, the number of coaches had increased one hundred fold. How far the working classes shared in these improved conditions we are not informed.

The following classification of the population of England by professions, occupations, &c., for the year 1688, is based upon the estimates of

Gregory King:

FAMILIES AND THEIR INCOMES IN 1688.

Number of families.	Ranks and professious.	Number per family.	Income per family.
160 26	Temporal lords	40 20	£2, 800 1, 300
890	Baronets	16	880
600	Knights	13	650
2,000 13,000	Ractivas	10	450
	Gentlemen Persons in greater offices	8	280
5,000	Persons in greater offices	8	240
5 000	Persons in leaser offices.	6	120

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FAMILIES AND THEIR INCOMES IN 1688-Continued.

Number of families.	Ranks and professions.	Number per family.	Income per family.
2, 000 3, 000 10, 000 2, 000 8, 000 40, 000 150, 000 16, 000 40, 000 5, 000 4, 000	Eminent merchants and traders Lesser merchants and traders Persons in the law Eminent clergymen Lesser clergymen Lesser clergymen Freeholders of the better sort Freeholders of the lesser sort Farmers Persons in liberal arts and sciences Shopkeepers and tradesmen Artisans and handicraftsmen Naval officers Military officers	676575555444	£ 400 200 140 60 45 54 50 44 60 45 40 90
511, 586 50, 000 364, 000 40, 000 35, 000	Average Common seamen Laboring people and out-servants Cottagers and paupers	3	20. 0 15. 0 6. 10 14. 0
489, 000	General average	31	10, 10

It may not be amiss to present here some extracts from the account which Macaulay gives of the condition of the English working classes a few years before the revolution of 1688: "The great criterion," says he, "of the state of the common people is the amount of their wages, and as four-fifths of the common people were, in the seventeenth century, employed in agriculture, it is especially important to ascertain what were then the wages of agricultural industry. On this subject we have the means of arriving at conclusions sufficiently exact for our purpose.

"Sir William Petty, whose mere assertion carries great weight, informs us that a laborer was by no means in the lowest state who received for a day's work 4d. with food, or 8d. without food. Four shillings a week, therefore, were, according to Petty's calculation, fair agri-

cultural wages.

"That this calculation was not remote from the truth we have abundant proof. About the beginning of the year 1685 the justices of Warwickshire, in the exercise of a power intrusted to them by an act of Elizabeth, fixed, at their quarter sessions, a scale of wages for the county, and notified that every employer who gave more than the authorized sum, and every working-man who received more, would be liable to punishment. The wages of the common agricultural laborer, from March to September, were fixed at the precise amount mentioned by Petty, namely, 4s. a week without food. From September to March the wages were to be only 3s. 6d. a week.

"But in that age, as in ours, the earnings of the peasant were very different in different parts of the kingdom. The wages of Warwickshire were probably about the average, and those of the counties near the Scottish border below it; but there were more favored districts. In the same year, 1685, a gentleman of Devonshire, named Richard Dunning, published a small tract, in which he described the condition of the poor of that county. That he understood his subject well it is impossible to doubt, for a few months later his work was reprinted, and was, by the magistrates assembled in quarter sessions at Exeter, strongly

^{*} History of England, Vol. I, pp. 323-330, Appleton's edition of Macaulay's works.

recommended to the attention of all parochial officers. According to him, the wages of the Devonshire peasant were, without food, about 5s. a week.

"Still better was the condition of the laborer in the neighborhood of Bury St. Edmunds. The magistrates of Suffolk met there in the spring of 1682 to fix a rate of wages, and resolved, that where the laborer was not boarded he should have 5s. a week in winter and 6s. in summer.

"In 1661 the justices of Chelmsford had fixed the wages of the Essex laborer, who was not boarded, at 6s. in winter and 7s. in summer. This seems to have been the highest remuneration given in the kingdom for agricultural labor between the restoration and the revolution; and it is to be observed that in the year in which this order was made the necessaries of life were immoderately dear. Wheat was at 70s. the quarter, which would even now be considered as almost a famine price.

"In the year 1680, a member of the House of Commons remarked that the high wages paid in this country made it impossible for our textures to maintain a competition with the produce of the Indian looms. An English mechanic, he said, instead of slaving like a native of Bengal for a piece of copper, exacted a shilling a day. Other evidence is extant, which proves that a shilling a day was the pay to which the English manufacturer then thought himself entitled, but that he was often forced to work for less.

"One of the most remarkable of the popular lays chanted about the streets of Norwich and Leeds in the time of Charles the Second may still be read on the original broadside. It is the vehement and bitter cry of labor against capital. It describes the good old times when every artisan employed in the woolen manufacture lived as well as a farmer. But those times were past. Sixpence a day was now all that could be earned by hard labor at the loom. If the poor complained that they could not live on such a pittance, they were told that they were free to take it or leave it. For so miserable a recompense were the producers of wealth compelled to toil, rising early and lying down late, while the master clothier, eating, sleeping, and idling, became rich by their exertions. A shilling a day, the poet declares, is what the weaver would have, if justice were done. We may, therefore, conclude that in the generation which preceded the revolution, a workman employed in the great staple manufacture of England thought himself fairly paid if he gained 6s. a week.

"It seems clear, therefore, that the wages of labor, estimated in money, were, in 1685, not more than half of what they now are, and that there were few articles important to the working man of which the price was not, in 1685, more than half of what it now is. Beer was undoubtedly much cheaper in that age than at present. Meat was also cheaper, but was still so dear that hundreds of thousands of families scarcely knew the taste of it. In the cost of wheat there has been very little change. The average price of the quarter, during the last twelve years of Charles II, was 50s. Bread, therefore, such as is now given to the immates of a workhouse, was then seldom seen, even on the trencher of a yeoman or of a shopkeeper. The great majority of the nation lived

almost entirely on rye, barley, and oats.

"The produce of tropical countries, the produce of the mines, the produce of machinery, was positively dearer than at present. Among the commodities for which the laborer would have had to pay higher in 1685 than his posterity now pay were sugar, salt, coals, candles, soap, shoes, stockings, and generally all articles of clothing and all articles of

bedding. It may be added that the old coats and blankets would have been not only more costly, but less serviceable than the modern fabrics."

Mr. W. T. Thornton, in his work on "Labor," published in 1869, takes issue with Macaulay in respect to the advantages which, according to the latter, the modern English workman possesses over the workman who lived in the last days of the Stuarts. In support of his view he cites "that most minute, careful, and comprehensive of inquirers," Daniel Defoe, whose description may be taken as applying to the early years of the eighteenth century. "It is curious to observe," says Mr. Thornton, "how, item by item, as if of malice aforethought, he disproves the

whole of Lord Macaulay's proofs.

"Although in Yorkshire, and generally in the Bishoprick of Durham, a laborer's weekly wages might, he says, be only 4s., in Kent, and several of the southern and western provinces, they were 7s., 9s., or 10s. Often when he (Defoe) had wanted a man for work, and had offered 9s. a week to sturdy variets at his door, he had been told to his face that they could get more by begging, and 'once,' says he, 'I put a lusty fellow in the stocks for making the experiment.' Again, he represents himself as habitnally paying six or seven men together on a Saturday night, the least 10s., and some 30s., for work, and he mentions one man who for several years gained of him from 16s. to 20s. a week by his handiwork at the 'mean, scoundrel employment of tile-making.' Turning to manufactures, he says nothing was more common than for journeymen weavers to earn from 15s. to 30s. a week; and he appeals to silk-throwsters, whether they were not in the habit of giving 8s., 9s., and 10s. 'to blind men and cripples to turn wheels.' Then he speaks of 'the difficulty of men and cripples to turn wheels.' raising soldiers, the vast charge the kingdom was at to officers to procure men, the many little and not over honest methods used to entice them into the service; and all this he explains by the ease and plenty in which Englishmen lived. If, he argues, they had 'wanted employment, and consequently bread, they would have carried a musket rather than starve, and have worn the Queen's cloth, or anybody's cloth, rather than go naked and live in rags and want; but he that could earn 20s. at an easy, steady employment, must be mad or drunk when he lists for a soldier to be knocked on the head for 3s. 6d. a week.'

"True, the high wages that prevailed were not always turned to the best account. They were higher here than in any other country in the world, but whereas a Dutchman with 20s. a week would be sure to grow rich and to leave his children in very good condition, an Englishman could often but just live, as it was called, might, perhaps, hardly have a pair of shoes to his feet, or clothes to cover his nakedness, and might have his wife and children kept by the parish. But then this was caused entirely by the extravagant humor of our poor people in eating and drinking, for they ate and drank, but especially the latter, three times as much in value as any sort of foreigners of the same dimensions in the world. If it had not been for the ale-house, every one might have lived comfortably, for it was incontestable that there was more labor than hands to perform it, and that the meanest labor in the nation afforded the workman sufficient to provide for himself and his family.

"Not even Macaulay's eloquence and ingenuity can countervail these sturdy affirmations of Defoe, which place beyond dispute that there has not, since the earlier writer lived, been any such marked or general rise of money wages as the other imagined. Besides, money wages a century or two ago were very far from representing so accurately as at present the sum total of their recipient's resources. Among the proceedings, legal or other, which, with whatever motive instituted, have, together with

many beneficial results, had the baneful one of utterly divorcing the English laborer from the soil, the most efficacious have been inclosure bills, which did not come much into fashion until the middle of George II's reign. Previously, whoever wished to build himself a cottage, might, without much objection, squat himself down on one of the many tracts of neglected land which, scattered about on every side, then made up a full fourth of the whole area of the kingdom; while the ease with which rent-free dwellings were thus obtainable, necessarily lowered the rent of other dwellings of a similar class. Laborers, consequently, in rural districts had to pay little or nothing for lodgings, and no small portion of their board also was procurable on equally easy terms.

"The peasant's garden, cribbed probably, like the site of his cottage, from the waste, supplied him with roots and herbs; on the adjoining common he had grazing for a cow and a few sheep, as well as for pigs and poultry; some neighboring wood or heath furnished him with fuel for the gathering, and he was lucky if he lived too far from a meer or marsh to allow of his catching an occasional eel or mallard, as well as the ague. It may be that where he once fed a flock of geese, is now an orchard rich with apple blossoms; and that the fen in which he snared wild fowl, has long since been drained and divided into corn-fields and turnip-fields; that the moor where he cut turf among the furze bushes, is now a meadow bright with clover, and renowned for butter and cheese. But of whatever advantage such transformations may be to the country at large, to the poor countryman they have been of less than no advan-His share of the gain resulting from them is a miserable set-off against his concomitant loss, for what he has gained is simply access to shops and markets, stocked more abundantly than before from the augmented produce of the improved land, while what he has lost is all that the same land would have yielded if left in a state of nature. It was by supplemental aids derived from land in that state that the Yorkshire hind, when earning no more than 5s. a week in money, was nevertheless enabled, as we are expressly told he was, to live much better than working men in any of the manufacturing countries of Germany, France, or Italy. When this was the case in Yorkshire, where labor was cheapest, it is very certain that in Kent and Sussex, and in the southern counties generally, where agricultural wages were on an average twice as high as in the north, and were supplemented in the same manner, the condition of the laborers in husbandry cannot have been one which their successors have any reason to look back to with contempt."

The apparent discrepancies between Macaulay's conclusions and the statements of Defoe may, perhaps, be explained in part by an actual improvement in the condition of the working-classes having taken place between 1685, the year to which Mr. Macaulay's description refers, and 1704, the date at which was published the pamphlet from which Mr. Thornton has quoted.† Mr. Rogers, in the work heretofore mentioned, says that the mass of the people recovered to some extent during the

t Giving alms no charity.



[•]Mr. Thornton does not here bring in question the great inclosing movement of the attenth century. The later inclosures by act of Parliament are a different matter, though contributing largely to the same result, namely the monopoly of the soil by the anistoracy. Macaulay says that the number of inclosure acts passed since the accession of George II to the throne exceeds four thousand, and that the area inclosed under the authority thereby conferred exceeds, on a moderate calculation, ten thousand square niles. The inclosure of this area was doubtless a desirable thing in itself, but this might surely have been accomplished without taking it away from the people to annex it to the estates of the nobility.

seventeenth century from the depression into which, from various causes, they had fallen during the sixteenth, and that they "had a golden age during the first half of the eighteenth." Whether they had attained a condition which warranted this description as early as 1704 may, indeed. be doubted: but that their circumstances were better than they had been at the close of the reign of Charles II is quite probable. The war with France which followed the accession of William III to the throne in 1688 occasioned a considerable falling off in external trade, the amount of shipping clearing outwards from English ports having declined from 285,800 tons in 1688 to 174,791 tons in 1696, while the value of merchandise exported fell in the same period from £4,086,089 to £2,729,520. This decline in commerce was, however, accompanied with increased activity in a number of domestic industries. This was the case in the manufacture of copper and brass, silk, and the finer descriptions of glass, which latter had up to that time been chiefly imported from France. A swordblade company which had settled in Yorkshire, established a prosperous business, and so great was the improvement in the manufacture of men's hats, previously imported in large numbers from Normandy, that the English article soon excluded its foreign competitor, than which it was at once better and lower in price. These and other improvements in manufactures were largely promoted by the influx of French refugees which followed the revocation of the edict of Nantes in 1685. The intolerant bigotry of Louis XIV drove from his kingdom nearly half a million of his Protestant subjects,* who were among the most industrious, enterprising, and intelligent of the population. Consisting largely of manufacturers and skilled artisans, they carried their experience. skill, and artistic taste, as well as a large amount of capital, to the several countries of Protestant Europe in which they found refuge. believed that not less than fifty thousand of them settled in England. Voltaire, in his Age of Louis XIV, states that a part of the suburbs of London (Spitalfields) was peopled entirely with French manufacturers of silk, while thousands of French refugees, engaged in other industries, established themselves in the suburbs of Soho and St. Giles. Others. he says, carried to England the art of making crystal in perfection, which for that same reason was about this same time lost in France. Anderson, in his History of Commerce, (Vol. II, page 569) estimates the amount of capital, in money and effects, brought into the country by these immigrants at an aggregate of three million pounds sterling, and says: "To the French refugees England owes the improvement of several of its manufactures of slight woolen stuffs, of silk, linen, paper, glass, and hats, (the last two since brought to perfection by us.) The silks called à la mode and lustrings were entirely owing to them; also brocades, satins, black and colored mantuas, black paduasoys, ducapes, watered tabbies, and black velvets; also watches, cutlery-ware, clocks, jacks, locks, surgeons' instruments, hardware, toys, &c."

The peace of Ryswick, negotiated in September, 1697, was quickly followed by evidences of increased prosperity. The improvements which had been made in manufactures, and the new industries introduced, now co-operated with a revived commerce to produce an era of increased industrial activity. In 1697 the merchandise shipped from English ports amounted to only £3,525,907. During the first three years of peace it averaged £6,709,881 per annum. The increased activity of internal traffic may be in part inferred from the great increase which occurred in the use of the mails. During the eight years of the war the revenue of

^{*}The number has been variously estimated at from three hundred thousand to one million.



the post-office amounted to only £67,222 per annum. Its annual revenue during the first four years of peace averaged £82,319. Among other causes of the improved condition of trade have been mentioned the recoinage of the silver, with the withdrawal of debased coin, the establishment of the Bank of England in 1694, the enlargement of the bounds of religious toleration, and the augmented confidence in the future which arose from a more definite settlement of the political constitution of the kingdom.

The reign of Anne, extending from 1702 to 1714, was distinguished for the successful military campaigns of the famous Duke of Marlborough. Out of the entire period, only two years were years of peace. It does not appear, however, that the activity of internal trade and industry was interrupted; and though foreign commerce may have languished for a time, it did not suffer as it had done during the preceding reign. It was more seriously crippled during the earlier years of the reign of George I, under whom England was successively involved in petty wars with various states which had sheltered the pretender to the British throne. There are evidences, however, that the country was in a prosperous condition. The taxes yielded increased revenues; money was abundant; the government seldom borrowed at a higher rate than 4 per cent., and at the close of George's reign in 1727 the market rate of interest was but 3 per cent. The abundance of capital did not fail to arouse the cupidity of the speculator, and it was during this period that the famous South-Sea bubble expanded and collapsed.

The following brief account of the condition of the country during the reign of George II (1727 to 1760) is given by John Wade in his his-

tory of the middle and working classes:

Of the thirty-three years of this king's government, only thirteen were years of war; the remainder of peace, prosperity, and great internal improvements. Shipping increased; agriculture, commerce, and the manufacturing arts flourished. Under numerous inclosure acts, the waste lands were reclaimed; new roads were opened and old ones improved; bridges were erected, and numerous rivers widened and despened for facilitating internal communication; vast quantities of corn were annually exported. The balance of payments in return for the excess of exports in grain and other commodities kept up the circulation almost without the aid of a paper currency; commercial interest ran steadily at 3 per cent. The prices of the public securities rose above par, so that ministers were enabled to reduce the annuities, by stering the usual alternative to the creditors, of either the payment of the principal,

the acceptance of a lower rate of interest.

The activity of national industry and abundance of capital are evidenced by the extent of local improvements, especially in London and Edinburgh. In London no fewer than eight new parishes were erected between the Revolution and the end of the reign of George II. An act had passed in Queen Anne's reign for the building of thy additional churches in the metropolis. The extension of commerce and manufactures caused a great addition to the population in the chief seats of industry and enterprise in the country—in Manchester, Birmingham, Liverpool, Bristol, Glasgow, Leeds, Sheffield, Frome. One source of the general prosperity was the growing importance and increasing tempations held out by the colonies of North America. Already the New World had become the land of refuge and of hope to the needy and adventurous both from England and the continental states. In one year, that of 1729, there emigrated to the single province of Pennsylvania no fewer than 6,208 persons, of whom, as in the existing stream of emigration, the great mass were Irish, forced into exile, as at present, by high rents and destitution.

In the following paragraph Mr. Wade mentions a few of the leading improvements in agricultural industry introduced during the first half of the eighteenth century:

In 1710 the winnowing-machine was introduced from Holland, and about the same time the thrashing-machine began to be used in the northern parts of the island. In 1732 the celebrated Jethro Tull commenced his experiments on his farm in Berkshire, but thirty years elapsed before they excited much practical atten-

tion and before the more valuable parts of his system began to be adopted by intelligent agriculturists. He introduced the drill-husbandry and recommended the substitution of labor and arrangement in the place of manure and fallow in the culture of land. A rotation of crops and the cultivation of turnips, clover, and potatoes in the field became more general. That agriculture was extending is shown by the course of legislation. More land was demanded for cultivation. In the belligerent reign of William III not a single act was passed for the inclosure of wastes or the draining of marshes. In the equally fighting reign of Anne there were only two inclosure-acts, but in that of George I the number was twenty-six, and in the thirty-three years' reign of George II two hundred and twenty-six were passed.*

The period under consideration witnessed the birth of a number of those inventions which, after successive improvements, were destined to effect a revolution in most of the industrial arts. The revival of Greek learning had brought to the knowledge of modern scholars certain ancient applications of the power of steam which, trifling as they were. contained the germs of those stupendous applications of the same force with which we are now familiar. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the subject had occupied the minds of a number of mechanicians. and in 1663 the Marquis of Worcester, in his "Century of Inventions," announced that he had invented and constructed a steam-machine, by means of which he could raise a column of water to the height of forty This was improved upon by Savery a few years later, and in 1690 the piston, in a rude form, was devised by Dr. Dennis Papin. In 1705 Thomas Newcomen patented an engine which gradually came into very general use for pumping water out of mines, and which, after successive improvements by Potter, Beighton, Smeaton, and others, formed the basis for the famous inventions of James Watt, the first of which was patented on January 5, 1769.

In the year 1738 Mr. John Kay, a native of Bury, in Lancashire, then residing at Colchester, one of the seats of the woolen manufacture, suggested a new mode of throwing the shuttle, by the use of which a weaver was enabled to turn out nearly twice as much cloth as he could before. In the same year a patent was taken out by Lewis Paul for spinning cotton or wool by the aid of rollers; and although his machine was unsuccessful in practice, it contained the principle subsequently developed by Arkwright in the spinning-frame, which he patented in 1769, within a few months of the time when Watt obtained his patent for the engine, in conjunction with which the new devices for spinning were soon to

work such wonders. †

These and other inventions of the same period did not begin to produce their great effects upon manufacturing industry until near the close of the century; but they are evidences of the intellectual energy that marked the period now under consideration, and of an industrial activity which taxed to the utmost the modes of production then in use, thus stimulating inventive genius to those efforts that were soon to achieve such magnificent triumphs.

The growth of the cotton-manufacture between 1697 and 1764 is illustrated by the following table, showing the quantity of cotton-wool im-

† The spinning-jenny was invented by Hargreaves about 1764, and patented in 1770. In 1775 Samuel Crompton invented a machine, since known as the mule, which combined the actions of Arkwright's frame and Hargreaves's jenny, and in 1785 the power-

loom was invented by Cartright.



^{*} That the large number of inclosure-acts passed during these two reigns is an evidence of the flourishing condition of the country at the time may readily be admitted; but we need not, therefore, infer that the permanence of this condition was promoted by the measures in question. To bring the common lands under cultivation was obviously a means of increasing the aggregate resources of the country. To annex them to the great estates of the nobility was not the way to make their cultivation most conducive to the welfare of the masses of the working people.

ported to, and the value of cotton goods exported from, Great Britain at different times between the years just mentioned:

Y ears.	Quantity of cot- ton - wool im- ported.	Value of cotton goods exported.
1667	Pounds. 1, 976, 359 1, 985, 866 715, 008 1, 972, 805 1, 545, 472 1, 645, 031 2, 976, 610 3, 870, 392	£5, 915 23, 253 5, 696 16, 300 13, 524 20, 709 45, 9e6 200, 354

It will be seen from these figures that the exports of cotton goods in 1741 were more than three times as great as they were in 1697, and that in 1764 they were nearly five times as great as in 1741.*

Defoe, speaking of Manchester, in his "Tour through the Whole Island of Great Britain," published in 1727, says:

Here, as at Liverpool, and also at Frome, in Somersetshire, the town is extending in a very surprising manner, being almost double what it was a few years ago. • • • The grand manufacture which has so much raised this town is that of cotton in all its varieties, which, like all our other manufactures, is very much increased within these thirty or forty years.

An article in the Daily Advertiser, of September 5, 1739, and which was also copied into the Gentleman's Magazine, says:

The manufacture of cotton, mixed and plain, is arrived at so great perfection within these twenty years, that we not only make enough for our own consumption, but supply our colonies and many of the nations of Europe. The benefits arising from this branch are such as to enable the manufacturers of Manchester alone to lay out about £30,000 a year, for many years past, on additional buildings. This computed that two thousand new houses have been built in that industrious town within these twenty years.

During the same period considerable improvement took place in the manufacture of iron, and before the middle of the century Lord Dudley's plan of smelting iron with coal, instead of charcoal, was successfully carried on at various points. The increase of production thus effected led to the use of iron for purposes to which it had never before been applied, and thus stimulated improvement in other directions. The hardware manufacture steadily grew in importance, and Birmingham and Sheffield, the chief centers of this industry, rapidly increased in wealth and population. The various operations connected with this industry were carried on chiefly by hand, but machinery was used in the rolling of metal sheets, the stamping of dies, and other processes requiring a greater power than human muscle could apply. In the

^{*}The growth of the woolen manufacture is indicated by the number of pieces of broadcloth milled at the various fulling-mills in the West-Riding of Yorkshire at different dates from 1727 to 1795, inclusive, which was as follows:

Dates.	Number of pieces.	Dates.	Number of pieces.
1777	31,744 1 50,453	1765	95, 878 157, 275

making of nails, an industry which was extensively carried on in the neighborhood of Birmingham, it was not uncommon to employ the labor of females, as appears from the following passage in Hutton's history of that town:

When I first approached Birmingham, in 1741, I was surprised at the prodigious number of blacksmiths' shops upon the road, and could not conceive how the country, though populous, could support so many people of the same occupation. In some of these shops I observed one or more females, stripped of their upper garments, and not overcharged with their lower, wielding the hammer with all the grace of their sex. The beauties of their face were rather eclipsed by the smut of the anvil. Struck with the novelty, I inquired whether the ladies of this country shoed horses, but was auswered with a smile, "They are nailers."

It is evident that the growth of these manufactures and of many others which either came into existence, or were greatly improved, during the same period, must have reacted powerfully upon agriculture by furnishing an ample and ready market for its various products. The advantages arising from this source appear to have been enjoyed for many years by the farmers, and, probably also, to a considerable extent, by their laborers, before the landlords, by a general enhancement of rents, asserted their claim to the increased pecuniary returns obtained from their lands. A neighbor of Arthur Young informed that eminent agricultural writer, that between 1770 and 1780 an aged relative of his had frequently expressed surprise at the rise of rents that was then taking place, for during the long period through which his experience extended the renewal of leases had been commonly regarded as a matter of course; and father, son, and grandson, in turn had occupied the same farm without such a thing as an increase of the rent entering into the thoughts of either landlord or tenant.

To this fact, in conjunction with the activity of the various industries. the prosperity of the working-classes, during the period in question, was doubtless mainly due: while the raising of rents, the extension of land monopoly by the inclosure acts, and the disturbance of industry incident to a period of transition in the methods of production co-operated with war and commercial revulsions to produce that deterioration in their circumstances which occurred in the latter part of the century. Of the improvement in their condition between the revolution of 1688 and the accession of George III in 1760, an indication is afforded by the fact that at the earlier date the use of wheaten bread by the common people was mainly confined to a small proportion of the inhabitants of the southern counties; whereas, at the later, it was used by about fiveeighths of the population of England. That the fare of the laboring people was by no means scanty may reasonably be inferred from the treatment of the inmates of work-houses. The following account taken from a parliamentary return, shows the expense of maintaining the work house at Saint Giles's in the Fields for they ear ended April 18, 1727:

ž de se	₽.	d.
	13	
For milk	1	3
For butcher's meat	0	6
For cheese 81	7	2
For bread and flour 321	6	6
For oat-meal	3	9
For peas	10	0
For beer	12	6
For shop-goods 61	9	6 1
For mackerel	6	4

903 16 34

Considering the comparatively low price of meat at the time in question,* the amount obtained for the expenditure above given must have been quite liberal, while the supply of beer, then worth about 1½d. per gallon, was large enough to attest the generosity of the managers of the establishment, however unfavorably it may impress us in regard to their indepent.

The bill of fare of the inmates of the work-house at Bedford about the same time was as follows:

Day of week.	Breakfast.	Dinner.	Supper.
Wednesday Thursday Friday	Bread and cheese	The same as Tuesday	Do. Do. ` Do.

The writer who furnishes this information further says:

Their bread is wheat dressed down and made into large household loaves by a woman in the house. Their drink is beer, turned in from the public brew-house at three half-pence per gallon. The overseers do sometimes put a cow upon the common for them; and that nothing may be wasted or lost, they have a pig or two brought in to live upon their wash and dregs, and fragments; which when well grown, is fed and killed for the house. They have also a little garden for herbs, onions, &c.

Mr. Wade states that from 1720 to 1760, there was no material variation either in the prices of provisions or the rates of wages. "Throughout the whole of that period," says he, "wheat kept steadily at from 32s. to 35s. the quarter, which was lower than it had been about the time of the revolution. Wages of husbandmen rose a little toward the close of the reign of George II, but not those of artificers. According to Mr. Barton's tables wages in husbandry were in 1725, per week, 5s. 4d.; in 1751, 6s.; in 1770, 7s. 4d." Eden, however, writing near the close of the eighteenth century, expresses the opinion that in most parts of England, except in the vicinity of the large towns, the price of labor had nearly doubled within the preceding sixty years.

The following statement shows the expense of maintaining the family of an agricultural laborer in 1762, the second year of the reign of George III:

	Per v	wook.
Bread, flour, oat-meal Rots, greens, beans, peas, fruit Fring, 6d., candles, 3d., soap, 2½d Milk, 1½d., butter, 1½d., cheese, 5d Plech, 6d., rent, 6d., pins, worsted, thread, &c., 1d Clothes, repairs, bedding, shoes Salt, beer, exotics, vinegar, spices	2	5 111
Total per week	7	41

As these are actual expenses, they indicate the mode as well as the cost of living at the time in question.

^{*}According to a table published further on, the average price of mutton from 1706 to 1730, was only 1s. 8d. per stone of 8 pounds, or 2\darksqd per pound. In 1740 the same price was paid for beef by the victualing office, and four years later the same meat was purchased for 1\darksqd per pound.



The following statement shows the contract-rates of wages at Greenwich Hospital in 1760:

	8.	۵.
Carpenter, per day	2	6
Bricklayer, per day	2	6
Mason, per day	2	8
Plumber, per day	3	6

The contract-rate of wages for artificers had undergone no change from 1729, and continued without variation till about 1795, when they suddenly rose from 2s. 6d. to 5s. per day.

The contract-prices for provisions and clothing in 1760 at the same

hospital were as follows:

-	£.	8.	d.	£		8.	đ.
Flesh, per cwt	1	11	6	Beer, per barrel 0		5	71
Bread, for 131 ounces	0	0	1	Candles, per dozen pounds 0		6	6
Butter, per pound	0	0	5 1	Shoes, per pair 0		4	0
Cheese, per pound	0	0	3	Coals, per chaldron 1		12	8
Pease, per bushel	0	3	6			1	8
Oatmeal, per bushel	0	4	D	Hats, each 0			
Salt, per bushel	0	4	0	Suit of bedding 0)	4	44
Malt, per quarter	1	4	9	Coats, each 1		1	0
Hops, per cwt	4	13	4	·			

Mr. Howlett, in a pamphlet on "the insufficiency of the causes to which the increase of our poor and of the poor's rates has been ascribed," published in 1788, maintained that, for a considerable period prior to the time he wrote, the rates of wages had not kept pace with the rise in the prices of provisions. An expensive war had brought an additional debt of more than one hundred millions sterling, and the increased taxes thus occasioned had fallen in part on articles which were necessaries of life, even among the poorest of the people, such as soap, leather, candles, &c. Within twelve years the price of these articles had increased one-fifth. Wheat, in the mean time, had cost the poor man nearly 6s. a bushel; butter and cheese had risen three half-pence a pound, and meat a penny. The general increase in the price of these commodities he reckons at one-fifth. or 20 per cent., and asks, "What advantage have they (the working-classes) had to enable them to bear this augmented burden? What advance within the last ten or twelve years has been made in their wages? Very little indeed; in their daily labor nothing at all, either in husbandry or manufactures. In some branches of the latter, by the iniquitous, oppressive practices of those who have the direction of them, they are at this moment considerably lower. The only advantage they enjoy more than they did a few years ago is in piece work." He thinks, however, that while this "augments the wages of the workmen it shortens the duration of their lives, and of their capacity for labor." Extending his review to a somewhat longer period, Mr. Howlett says that wheat, "which, between the years 1746 and 1765, was only 32s. a quarter, was almost from that time to the year 1776, above 45s." To counterbalance this, "the rise in the price of labor was very little, if anything, more than twopence on the shilling, except only the money earned by piecework, which, ten or twelve years ago, was not nearly so general as at present."

To show the very moderate rise of wages in the south of England, during the fifty years from 1737 to 1787, he gives the following state-

ment:

w age	в рег	ањеш
wage 17	737.	1787.
Agriculture:	d.	ፈ
Laborers out of doors, in the country	10	12
Threshers		12
Laborers out of doors, near great towns		16

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Cloth-manufacturers:		
Beribblers		15
Shearmen		18
Momon abunners	U	•

The wages of weavers during the same period, he says, had been raised "about 2d. a day in the coarse trade and nothing at all in the superfine."

Below are presented a number of tables, extracts from old accounts, official orders, &c., illustrating the rates of wages and the cost of living during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries:

WAGES AND PRICES FROM 1596 TO 1796.

Table I.—Showing the wages of servants, laborers, and artificers in the county of Chester as fixed by the justices of the peace of the said county, at the said city of Chester, in the thirty-eighth year of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, (A.D. 1596.)

	Wages by	the year.	Wagos b the day
Occupation.	With meat and drink.	Without meat and drink.	With mes
	2. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s.
iith	1 11 8	5 0 0	0.0
heelwright	200	5 10 0	1
owwright	1 10 0	5 0 0	
llwright	1 3 4	5 10 0	
ster carpenter.	2 13 4	5 13 4 3 10 0	l
rvant carpenteriper	1 0 0	4 0 0	
ugh-mason	1 6 8	5 0 0	
egu-ungou		5 0 0	
wver	1 80	4 10 0	
ne-maker	1 30	4 6 8	
ick-laver		4 0 0	
ck-man	1 60	4 10 0	
er	1 5 0	3 13 4	l
ler	1 60	4 0 0	
e-maker		4 0 0	
en-weaver	1 0 0	4 0 0	:
mer	16 0	3 0 0	
oden-weaver	1 80	3 13 4	1
oper	1 10 0	4 0 0	1
Mer	1 10 0	3 13 4	
alker		4 0 0	
Matcher	1 0 0	4 0 0	
ingler	1 10 0	4 0 0	
carman	1 0 0	3 13 4	
ter	1 68	3 13 4	
siers	1 3 0	3 10 0	
semaker	1 10 0	4 0 0	
nners		4 0 0	
wtererskers	1 0 0 16 0	3 13 4 3 10 0	
owers	160	3 10 0	
overs	1 68	3 16 0	
tiers	1 70	4 10 0	
ddlers	1 50	4 0 0	
orriers	1 5 0	4 0 0	
P-makers	1 0 0	3 10 0	
l-maker	1 10 0	4 10 0	
wiers, (bow-makers)	1 8 0	4 0 0	
etchers	1 0 0	3 10 0	
row-head makers	15 0	3 10 0	
itchera	1 68	3 10 0	
oks iliffs of husbandry	1 0 0	3 5 0 4 0 0	
owers of grass		1 00	
Migera			
Papers			
owers of corn			
ervants of the best sort	1 0 0	3 10 0	
evants of the second sort	10 0	2 10 0	
ervants of the third sort	80	1 16 0	

TABLE II.—Showing the wages of servants, laborers, and artificers, as fixed by the justices of the peace at Okeham, in the county of Rutland, on the 28th day of April. 1610.

the 28th day of April, 1610.			
•	Wage		r
	£.	8.	d.
A bailiff of husbandry, having charge of a plow-land, at least		12	
make a rick, thatch and hedge the same, and kill a hog, sheep, or calf A common servant of husbandry, who can mow, and cannot expertly make	2	10	0
a rick and thatch it, nor kill and dress a hog, sheep, or calf	2	·	0
sow and mow	1	9	0
A boy under sixteen years of age	1	9	0
WAGES OF WOMEN-SERVANTS.			
A chief woman-servant, who can cook, bake, brew, make malt, and oversee other servants.	1	e	8
A second woman-servant of the best sort, who cannot dress meat nor make		U	0
malt, but can brew, &c.	1	9	4
A "mean or simple woman-servant," who can do only out-work and drudg-	_	_	-
ing		16 14	
A girl under sixteen years of age	U	14	•
WAGES OF MILLERS.			
A chief miller, who can "expertly beat, lay, grind, and govern his mill" A common miller, who cannot, &c	2 1	6 11	0 8
WAGES OF SHEPHERDS.			
▲ chief shepherd, who is skillful in the ordinary of his cattle, winter and summer	1	10 5	0

WAGES OF MOWERS AND HARVEST-FOLK.

Occupations.	With meat.	With- out meat.
	d .	đ.
A mower by the day	d . 5	10
A man reaper		8
A woman reaper		
A man hay-maker	4	6 8 5
A woman hay-maker	2	5
A follower of scythes	3	6
A raker of barley and peas	3	6
A hedger	4	8
A ditcher Every other laborer not before set down, (harvest excepted,) shall	4	8
have from Easter to Michaelmas	3	7
And afterward, every such laborer shall have from Michaelmas to Easter	2	6

WAGES OF ARTIFICERS AND THEIR APPRENTICES.

	From Easter to Michaelmas.			Iichael- Easter.
Occupations.	With meat.	With- out meat.	With meat.	With- out meat.
Chief joiner, per day Joiner's apprentice, per day Master sawyer, per day Plow-wright, per day Thatcher, per day Hurdle-maker, per day Horse-collar-maker, per day Master mason, per day Master mason, per day Master carpenter, per day Expert carpenter, per day Expert carpenter, per day Bricklayer, per day Tiler or slater, per day Tiler or slater, per day Turner, per day Gardener, per day Tailor, per day Tailor, per day Tailor, per day	46555688585858585866	d. 12 8 12 10 9 9 10 12 10 14 10 7 7 10 7 10 7	d. 44 44 44 44 64 24 24 26 44 26 44 24 26 44 46 44 46 44 46 44 46 44 46 44 46 46	8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8

It appears, by the high constable's catalogues of persons hired under the statutes from 1626 to 1634, that the rate of wages for servants above given was then complied with.

Table III.—Showing the wages of artificers, laborers, and servants as fixed by the justices of the peace at Chelmsford, in the county of Essex, on the 8th of April, 1651, "according to the true meaning of a statute made in the twenty-ninth year of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, having a special regard and consideration to the prices at this time of all kinds of victuals and apparel, both linen and woolen, and all other necessary charges wherevith artificers, laborers, and servants have been more grievously charged than in times past."

Occupations.	from	n March from Sep Septem tember to March.		arch from Sep- tem- tember to March.		hole
Couperous.	With board.	Without board.	With board.	Without board.	Wages.	Livery.
A master mason A master rough mason	đ. 12 10	d. 18 17	đ. 10 8	d. 16 14	£ s. d. 4 0 0 3 0 0	s. d. 10 0 10 0
A master mason's servants and apprentices, above the age of fourteen and under eighteen A master carpenter. A master carpenter, journeymen, and servants, above	4 12	10 18	3 10	7 16	1 10 0 4 0 0	8 0 10 0
eighteen and under twenty-four years A master carpenter, servants and apprentices, above fourteen and under twenty-four years	8 6	14 12	6 6	12 10	2 10 0 1 4 0	8 0
A master sawyer	18	16	8 8	14 12 12	4 10 0 4 0 0 4 0 0	10 0 8 0 10 0
Rivers of pale and clap-board and laths A millwright A plow-wright and cartwright.	12 10	18 18 18	8 10 8	16 16 16	4 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0
Copers A master shipwright A hewer or common shipwright	16	16 24 18	6 12 8	14 16 14	0 0 0	

TABLE III.—Showing the wages of artificers, laborers, and servants, &c.—Continued.

Occupations.		ne day March eptem-	By the from temi	er to	By the year	
	With board.	Without board.	With board.	Without board.	Wages.	Livery.
An able clencher	d .	d. 18	đ.	d. 14	2 s. d.	8. d. 0 0
An able holder	8	14	7	12	0 0 0	ŏŏ
A master calker.	14	24	10	16	0 0 0	0 0
A calker, laboring by tide	10	18 16	8	. 14 14	0 0 0	0 0
A master joiner or carver	10	18	8	16	4 0 0	10 0
A master joiner or carver's servants and apprentices, above eighteen and under twenty-four years	8	14	6	12	3 10 6	10 0
above fourteen and under twenty-four years	6	9	5	8	1 13 4	6 0
A master fourteen and under twenty-four years. A master bricklayer, tiler, plasterer, and shingler. Second bricklayers, tilers, and slaters, above sixteen and under twenty-four years. Their servants and apprentices, above twelve and under	10	18	8	16	4 0 0	10 6
Their servants and apprentices, shows twelve and under	8	16	6	14	800	10 0
twenty-four years. Brick and tile makers, burners of wood, ashes, and lime.	6	10	5	. 8	000	0 0
Brick and tile makers, burners of wood, ashes, and lime.	8	16	6 5	12 10	3 0 0 2 10 0	10 0
Their servants and laborers	6 10	11 16	8	14	2 10 0 3 5 0	10 0
Their servants and apprentices, above fourteen and up.		l				
der twenty-four years	6	10	5	8	1 10 4	6 4
Master thatchers	10	16 13	8	14 12	3 0 0 2 10 0	10 0 10 0
Woodcutters, ditchers, hedgers, thrashers, and all other common laborers, (the time of harvest excepted) Loaders of corn and meal			l .	i		
common laborers, (the time of harvest excepted)	8	14	6	19	3 5 0	10 0
Knackers, collar-makers, and armorers	9	18	8	14	6 0 0	10 0
A bailiff of husbandry	ŏ	ŏ	ŏ	ō	5 0 0	10 0
A chief hind, best plowman, carter, shepherd, or neat-			,	١.		
herd	0	0	0	0	4 10 0 3 10 0	10 0 10 9
Apprentice at husbandry, with board and clothes	۱ŏ	ŏ	ŏ	lŏ	0 0 0	l ŏ ŏ
Apprentice at husbandry, with board and clothes The best woman-servant, being a cook able to take				١.		
charge of a household	0	0	0	0	2 10 0	0 0
A dairy-maid or wash-maid.	lő	ŏ	Ö	lŏ	2 5 0	0 0
A chamber-maid	0	0	0	0	2 10 0	0 0
Gardeners	8 8	16 12	7	12	3 0 0	10 0
women	5	10	ŏ	l ŏ	1 0 0 0	0 0
Weeders of corn	1 4	9	0	0	0 0 0	0 0
Mowers of corn and grass. A fallower.	10	18 15	0	0	0 0 0	0 0
Reapers, men	12	22	6	Ö	0 0 0	0 0
women	8	14	0	0	0 0 0	0 0
Best journeyman clothiers	0	0	0	0	3 10 0	0 0
Best journeyman weavers in fine cloths	0		0	0	3 0 0 1 10 0	10 0 8 0
A journeyman wool-comber, above the age of twenty- four	"	1	1	-		" "
Weel comband deing their work by tech for	0	0	0	0	3 0 0	10 0
Wool-combers doing their work by task, for every warp*. A journeyman tucker, fuller, shearman, and dyer.	6	8	0	0	0 0 0 2 10 0	10 0
A journeyman tucker, fuller, shearman, and dyer Tailors and hosiers	8	14	6	12	2 10 0	10 ŏ
Shoemakers, cutlers, smiths, farriers, saddlers, spurriers, tanners, and coopers	0	0	0		9 10 0	10 0
Millers, bakers, brewers, butchers, and cooks.	0	0	6	0	2 10 0	10 O
Millers, bakers, brewers, butchers, and cooks	ŏ	ŏ	ŏ	ŏ		i ě ŏ
* Weavers doing their work at home were left to ma	ke their	ownas	reemen	ts with	the clothi	er.
WAGES OF ARTIFICERS AND LABORERS, BY TA						
DRINK.	on, on	0	,	*******	OI MEA.	

	£	8.	d.
The mowing of an acre of grass, after land-measure	0	1	8
carry	0	2	0
tlyn*tlyn*	•	3	4
The reaping, binding, and shocking of an acre of barley The reaping, binding, and shocking of an acre of oats	0		6 6

The reaping, binding, and shocking of an acre of beans	0	3	6
The "making" of an acre of peas, vetches, and tares	Ö	1	9
The mowing of an acre of barley or oats	U	1	2
The follower, making bands, raking and laying the same per acre	Ó	1	Õ
Thrashing and winnowing wheat or rye, per quarter	0	1	10
Thrashing and winnowing barley or oats, per quarter	Ó	Ō	10
Thrashing and winnowing beans, peas, and tares, per quarter	0	0	10
Sawing plank, the hundred, (six score)	0	2	6
Sawing boards, the hundred	0	2	6
Slitting work, the hundred	0	2	6
Riving lath, the hundred	0	0	4
Riving pales, the hundred	0	1	0
Riving clapboards, the hundred	0	4	Ō
The making of a plow, all new with meat and drink	0	1	6
The bodying of a plow, with meat and drink	Ó	ō	10
The heading or bodying of a plow, with the handle, with meat and drink	0	1	0
The making of a pair of cart-wheels, without meat and drink	0	8	0
The hewing of all the stuff of a body of a cart, without meat and drink	0	1	8
The making of the body of a cart, without meat and drink	Λ	3	6
The hewing of every gang of felloes	ŏ	1	4
The setting on of a felloe, without meat and drink	0	0	8
The hewing and riving of every gang of spoke-timber, the gang contain-			
ing 25.	0	1	0
Brick making and burning, straw and all other necessaries being provided			
per thousand. (without meat and drink)	0	2	6
The striking, drying, and setting on piler, every thousand tile, without			
meat and drink	0	0	10
The whiting and nealing of every thousand tile, without meat and drink	Ó	1	0
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	-	_	-

Table IV.—Showing the wages of artificers, laborers, and servants as fixed by the justices of the peace of the county of Warwick, on Tuesday next after the close of Easter, 1684, "according to the laws and statutes of the realm in such case made and provided, having a special regard and consideration to the prices at this time of victuals and apparel, and all other circumstances necessary to be considered."

	By th	e day.
Occupations.	With meat and drink.	Without.
A master mason A master brick-mason Their servants and apprentices, above the age of eighteen years Master carpenters Their servants and journoymen, above the age of eighteen	8. d. 0 6 0 6 0 4 0 6	8. d. 1 4 1 0 0 8 1 0
years Their servants and apprentices Plow-wrights and cart-wrights Master brick-layers Tilers, plasterers, and shinglers Master plasterers Their servants and apprentices, above the age of twelve years Their servants. Their servants.	0 6 0 6 0 6 0 4 0 3	1 0 0 8 1 0 1 0 0 8 0 6 1 0 0 8
Fellers of wood, thrashers, and all other common laborers, the time of harvest excepted Hay-makers, men Hay-makers, women Weeders of corn Mowers of corn and grass. A raker in corn harvest Reapers, men Reapers, women	0 2	0 8 0 8 0 4 1 0 0 6 1 0

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From the middle of September to the middle of March, the wages was to be one penny a day less than the above rates.

THEADRE	DV	TITE	WW A TO	

	£	8.	đ.
A bailiff of husbandry	4	0	0
Chief hind, best plowman and carter	5	15	0
Shepherds	5	0	0
Inferior servant-man			
A woman-servant, able to manage a household	1	15	Ó
A second woman-servant.	ī	6	8
A dairy-maid or wash-maid			

TABLE V.—Showing the wages of artificers, laborers, and servants in the county of Lancaster, as fixed by the justices of the peace at Manchester on the 22d of May, 1725, "upon conference with discreet and grave men of the said county respecting the plenty of the time and other necessary circumstances."

WAGES BY THE YEAR.

•	£	8.	d.
A bailiff of husbandry or chief hind, not above		00	00
Experienced millers, without meat and drink, not above	10	00	00
Experienced millers, with meat and drink, not above		00	00
well, not above	5	00	00
above	4	00	60
Men-servants, from twenty to twenty-four years of age, not above	3	10	00
Men-servants, from sixteen to twenty years of age, not above	2	10	00
above	2	10	00
not above			00
Women-servants under the age of sixteen, not above	1	10	00

WAGES BY THE DAY.

	14.8	
Occupations.	With mest and drink.	Without.
Best farm-laborers, from the middle of March to the middle of September, not above. Ordinary farm-laborers, from the middle of March to the middle of September, not above. Best farm-laborers, from the middle of September to the middle of March, not above. Ordinary farm-laborers, from the middle of September to the middle of March, not above. Hay-makers, men, not above. Hay-makers, women, not above. Reapers, men, not above Reapers, men, not above. Hedgers, ditchers, palers, thrashers, &c., not above. Masons, carpenters, joiners, plumbers, tilers, slaters, coopers, turners, master workmen, not above. Masons, carpenters, joiners, plumbers, tilers, slaters, coopers, turners, who are not master workmen, not above. Brick-layers, plasterers, white-limers, not above. Master brick-layer who has others working under his direction, not above. A pair of sawyers Master tailors Their journeymen and apprentices	0 0 6 0 0 5 0 0 5 0 0 4 0 0 6 0 0 3 0 0 6 0 0 6 0 0 6	0 0 7 0 1 3 0 1 0 0 0 10 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 2

WORK BY TASK.

	£	8.	a.
Threshing, winnowing, or fanning a quarter of oats	0	1	0
Threshing, winnowing, or fanning a quarter of barley, beans, and pease	0	1	6
Threshing, winnowing, or fanning a quarter of wheat and rye	0	2	0
For hewing a gang of felloes	0	1	0
For making a plow	0	2	0
For making brick, including all labor, per thousand, (six score to the hundred).	0	3	0
Miners in a standing delf, for 24 baskets, (one ton)	0	1	0
Miners in a sitting delf, for 24 baskets, (one ton)	0	1	3
Pavers, for every square yard, (the foundation being prepared and the materials			
on the ground)		0	1

The order of the justices provides that the above rates shall not be exceeded in any part of the county, but suggests that as the county is eighty miles long, the work-people in the northern portion of it ought not to demand so much, but should "be content with what the custom of the country hath usually been." The mayor or chief officer of every corporate town is called upon to have the order publicly proclaimed, and the sheriff of the county is to cause it to be proclaimed in every other market-town within the county. After proclamation, publicly and solemnly made on the market-day "at the height of the market," a legible copy of the order is to be posted in some open public place in each of the said market-towns, and "the wages, rates, and allowances" therein established are to remain in force until "an alteration be made, and such alteration afterwards proclaimed." In connection with the order, the justices publish the "denunciations, penalties, punishments, and forfeitures which the statutes appoint to be inflicted impartially upon such as oppose or transgress what is ordered." These are as follows:

1st. As to artificers, workmen, and laborers, that conspire together, concerning their work or wages, every one of them so conspiring shall forfeit, for the first offense, ten pounds to the King, and if he does not pay within six days after conviction by witness, confession, or otherwise, shall suffer twenty days' imprisonment, and during that time shall have no sustenance but bread and water; for the second offense, he shall forfeit twenty pounds, and that not paid within six days, as aforesaid, shall suffer the the pillory; and for the third offense, shall forfeit forty pounds, and that not paid within the said time, shall again suffer the pillory, lose one of his ears, and be forever after taken as a man infamous, and not to be credited. 2 and 3 Edw. VI, chap. 15.

2d. An artificer or laborer who undertakes a piece of work by the task may not leave the same unfinished, unless for not paying the wages or hire agreed on (or to do the King service,) without license of the owner of the work, on pain of imprisonment a month without bail, and five pounds forfeited to the owner of the work, besides his cost and damages,

to be recovered by law.

3d. That master and servant may know that no servant that hath been in service before ought to be retained without showing a testimonial that he or she is legally licensed to depart from his or her last service, and at liberty to serve elsewhere, such testimonial to be registered with the minister of the parish whence the servant departs, and subscribed by the chief officer or constable, and two honest householders in the town. The master or mistress retaining a servant without showing such a testimonial forfeits five pounds; the person wanting such a testimonial shall suffer imprisonment till he procure it; and if he do not produce one within twenty-one days after his imprisonment, or if he show a forged one, to be whipped as a vagabond.

4th. No person shall put away his servant, nor any leave his service, before the end of his term, and none to be put away or depart at the end of the term without a quarter's warning before the end of the said term, unless for causes allowed by one or more justices of the peace. Such as put away a servant without cause so allowed before the end of his term forfeits 40s.; and the servant refusing to serve out his time or departing without cause so allowed shall be committed without bail till they become bound to serve according to their retainer.

5th. The person that gives more wages than is limited and appointed by the justices shall forfeit five pounds and be imprisoned ten days; and the servant retained that takes more wages than by the justices' order

are limited, to be imprisoned twenty-one days without bail.

6th. The forfeitures are, one moiety to the King, the other to the informer, or him that will sue for the same. And lest these penalties and punishments might not suffice to keep masters and servants conformable to the wages limited by the justices' orders, but that some secret agreements might be made to elude them, the statutes further provide that every retainer, promise, gift, or wages, or other thing whatsoever, contrary to such orders, and every writing and bond to be made for that purpose, shall be utterly void and of none effect.

7th, and lastly. We the said justices, as the laws in this case do enjoin us, shall from time to time make strict inquiries and see the defaults against these ancient and useful statutes severally corrected

and punished.

TABLE VI.*—Showing the rates of wages paid for agricultural labor in 1768 at various places in England, with the distance of each place from London.

	Pay per week.									
Places.	Distance.	Harvest	Haytime	† Winter.	Medium.					
	Miles.	4.4.	a. d.	e d.	4.6					
Hatfield		13 3	9 0	6 6	7 6					
Stevenage	38	12 0	9 6	6 6	7 4					
Offley	34	15 0	1 11 0	6 0	7 3					
Houghton		15 0	11 0	70	8 0					
Milton	41	14 3	8 6	5 6	6 6					
Wanden	49	13 9	11 0	5 0	6 4					
Broughton		13 0	9 0	5 6	6 5					
Astwick	46	15 0	8 0	4 3	5 6					
Biddenham	47	15 0	1 8 0	4 6	5 6					
Hale Weston	53	14 6	9 6	6 6	7 5					
Catworth	57	13 0	9 6	4 9	5 10					
Avchurch	70	13 3	11 0	4 9	6 1					
Casterton	83	12 6	11 0	6 0	7 2					
			<u> </u>	i						
Paonton	99	10	9 0	6 0	7 0					
7	112	11 0	~~,,	8 6	9 0					
Fossen	123	ii o	11 0	9 0	9 0					
Cromwell		l ii ö	1 11 0	9 0	9 1					
Drayton	150	10 0	10 0	9 0	9 2					
Cantler	135	10 0	10 0	6 6	7 2					
Coneysbro'	167	10 0		6 0	6 8					
Ecolesfield		8 0	8 6	4 9	5 3					
Woolley	194	10 0	1 2 0	6 0	6 6					
Kiddel	194			4 0						
Wilbersfort	188	11 6 13 0	13 0	,	5 Q 8 5					
Hatton	155		13 0	7 0	8 5					
Risby	185		12 6	7 0	8 5					
Calliandont	192	13 0	13 0	8 0	9 •					
Stillingfleet	193	14 0	14 0	8 6	9 7					
	173	9 6	7 0	6 0	6 5					
Howden	168	12 6	9 6	6 0	7 0					
Thorne.	155	10 0			6 10					
Wentworth		13 0	10 0	6 0						
Driffield	200	13 0	11 0	. 0.0	7 7					

TABLE VI.—Showing the rates of wages paid for agricultural labor, &c.—Continued.

	Pay per week.							
Places.	Distance.	Harvest.		Haytime.		† Winte	r. Media	um
	Miles.	8.	<u>.</u>	8.	d.	8. d.	8.	. d
Feddingham	225	14	6	11	6	9 0	ة ا	
Newton	220	14	ŏ	14	ŏ	80	. 9	3
Sunnington	225	10	Ŏ	10	Õ	7 0	7	7
Kirby	238	8	6	8	6	7 0	7	
Kirkleatham	260	10	6	9	0	5 0	5	
chorton	240	7	9	7	0	6 0	6	
illing	264	15	0	7	6	5 0	6	
Rookby	270	16	0	10	Ŏ	8 0	9	
remington	260		• • • • •	7	0	6 0 5 0	6	
iplinwinton	238 230	10	ò	10	0(7 0	1 . 7	
	232	9	4	10		4 9	5	
maikhill	232	6	6 3	6 7	6	1 7 6	5	
eningford.	235	7	6	6	Ö	5 0	5	
gazth	240	1 4	6	1 7	6	7 0	7	
ът.	250	ģ	9	l é	ŏ	6 6	6	
wworth.	279	9	6	12	6	6 0	7	
orpeth	201	10	ŏ	1 2	6	5 6	6	
hwick	810	18	3	1 8	3	5 0	5	
lford _	325	6	ŏ	6	ő	5 6	\ 5	
SECON	325	9	ŏ	6	6	4 6) 5	
vatora	330	9	ŏ	9	ŏ	6 0	6	
rwick	340	6	ŏ	6	ŏ	5 0	Š	
Abbary	301	10	ğ	8	ğ	6 0	6	
unbo .	290	iŏ	ŏ	10	ē	8 6	ě	
enwelt	276	8	ŏ	7	ŏ	7 0	· 7	
lco\$	296	l š	ŏ	10	ě	8 0	l ė	
arith	282	9	6	8	6	5 6	Ĭ	
awick	286	6	6	6	6	7 0	6	
spp	268	8	6	11	6	7 0	7	
dime	246	10	0	10	Ō	7 0	1 7	
abera	230	10	0	10	Ó	7 0	1 7	,
relang	223	10	0	9	0	7 0	7	
mekirk	200	6	0	4	0	5 0	4	1 1
ltringham	180	7	3	6	6	5 0	5	
noteford	170	9	6	9	6	6 0	6	
olm's-Chapel	158	14	0	14	0	7 0	8	
(ane	141	9	6	7	6	6 6	1 6	
enstone	117	6	6	6	6	5 6	5	5 1
\$10D	112	11	Õ	11	0	8 0	8	
aley	110	11	Ŏ	11	0	6 6	7	
reomagrove	118	11	ŏ	11	0	6 9	1 3	
ershore	102	111	ŏ	11	ŏ	6 9	1 2	
endsworth	96	11	ŏ	9	6	6 6	3	
Icreton.	85	- 13	Ŏ	9	6	- 6 0	7	
ensington	47 35	15	6	6	é	6 6	7	
lealey Isidenhead	27	12	Ö	9	6	6 6	1 7	
amondsworth.	16	12	6	8	6	6 6	1 4	
esington	10	12	6	9	6		1 6	
line	17	14	3	9	Ö	7 0	1 7	
Averages		10	8	9	5	6 5	7	7 1

[&]quot;Tables VI, VII, and VIII are taken from Arthur Young's Northern Tour, Vol. IV, pp. 442, 447, and 470 tUnder the general term "winter" Mr. Young includes the entire year, with the exception of hay-time and harvest, to which he assigns, respectively, six weeks and five weeks.

TABLE VII.—Showing the yearly wages of different classes of farm-servants, and the weekly wages of women employed in field-work in 1768 at various places in England.

^{*}Under the general term "winter," Mr. Young includes the entire year with the exception of hay-time and harvest, to which he assigns, respectively, six weeks and five weeks.

Table VIII.—Showing the weekly wages of operatives in various industries at different places in England in the year 1768.

Places.	Manufactures.	Labor.
	·	8.
edford	Lace	\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \
otherham	Iron, potteries	Men 10 Boys 3
heffield	Plating, cutlery, &c	Men
	i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	Girls
Zakefield	. Cloths	⟨ Boys 1
		(Colliers 11 (Men 8
eds	do	Women 3 Bovs 5
rton	Alum	Girls 1 Men 7
emington		(Men
•		(Boys and girls 3
rlingtonwcastle	. Colliers	Men 8 Men 15
rliale	. Cotton-checks	Men 9
adal	. Stockings, cottons, linsey-woolsey, tannery	Women 3 Children 2
	Call short and the state of the	(Men 8
wrington	. Sail-cloth, sacking, pins, shoes	Women 4 Children 2
rerpool	. Porcelain, stockings, glass	Men 8 (Men 7
nachester	. Fustians, check, hate, small wares	Women 5 Children 3
raleen	. Potteries	Men 9 Women 6
Prostie	Shoes, hate	(Men 7
WCASTIO	. Snoes, nats	Women 4 Children 1
rcester	Porcelain, gloves	Women 9
		(Children 2
		
	•••••	8. 0

	8.	ď	
Average of men	9	6	,
Average of women.	4	7	
Average of children	2	8	,

Tible IX.—Showing the price of meat (chiefly of mutton) at different dates from A. D. 1596 to A. D. 1734, inclusive.

MUTTON.		
	£. s.	
1596. A whole mutton	0 18	0
A fat wether		
1597. A fore-quarter of mutton	0 5	0
A fat wether, in wool	0 18	Ô
A fat sheep		
1610. A mutton weighing 44 pounds or 46 pounds, the stone, (8 pounds)	0 2	3
Alamb	0 6	8
1618. A leg of mutton		
A mutton		
1660 to 1690. Mean price of mutton, the stone, (8 pounds)		
1700. Live sheep, the pound, from	Ŏ Õ	21 to 3
1710. Beef, the pound	o o	$1\frac{1}{10}$
Veal, ditto	ŏŏ	2
Mutton, ditto	ŏŏ	$\tilde{2}^{\circ}$
Lamb, ditto		
1706 to 1730. Mutton, the stone		
1730 to 1760. Mutton, the stone	0 2	ŏ
1734. Mutton at Smithfield market, the stone	ŏõ	9
134. Mutton at Smithheid market, the stone	UU	9

Table X.—Showing the prices paid by the British Victualing Office for beef, pork, and butter, and for Cheshire and Suffolk cheese, from 1740 to 1795.

Date.	Bee	ef.	Por	k.	Butter.	Cheshire cheese.	Suffolk cheese.
	Cwt.	Pound.	Cwt.	Pound.	Pound.	Pound.	Pound
	2 s. d.	d.	2 s. d.	d.	đ.	d.	a
740	1 3 7	21	1 11 0	31	- 		
741 742	1 4 91	2	1 16 3 1 1 12 9	31			• • • • • • • • •
743	0 19 24	2	1 7 2	21			
744	0 18 3	1#	1 2 54	23			
745	0 19 9	2	1 1 9	21			
746	1 1 3	21	1 4 61	2			
747	0 19 4	2	1 4 0	2	•••••		
748	•••••	21 21		24		•••••	15-1
749 750	•••••	2		21	5		13-1
751		21		21	4		11
752		14		3	4"	21	11
753		2		24	51		1
754	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	21		3	5 8 54		1
755	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	21		3 3 3	5}		14
756 757	••••••	21 21		3	5 7-16	3 3 1	7 1
758	•••••	21		41	54 5 7-16	3	7.8
759		21		41 31		24	
760		2		3*	.41 5	21	
761		21		31	5	21 21	
762	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	2		31	6 <u>8</u>	3 7-16	
763		2		٠	5 1	24	
764	••••••	21	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	4	54	3	• • • • • • • • •
765	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	21	•••••	48	5	3	• • • • • • • •
767	1 5 5	21			54	3	
768	1 5 3	2			54	213-16	
769	1 2 9	21	1 13 0	31	5 9-16	24	
770	1 2 2	21	2 1 5	34 4	5 1	21 31	
71	1 2 6	21	2 3 34	44 54	6	34 34	
779	1 6 3	24	2 12 6	51	64	34	
773	1 4 0	2½ 3	2 9 11 1 18 3	5 1	7	3 1 34 ·	•••••
775	1 10 4	31	2 4 7	43	64 51	31	
776	1 8 7	3	2 2 113	41	6	3	
777	1 8 51	3	2 3 11	4	71	3 <u>1</u> 34	
778	1 5 8	21	2 3 0	4	l 8⁻ i	34	
779	1 13 2	34 31	1 18 6	4	84	31	•••••
781	1 11 2 1 6 3	3 1	2 0 9	44	74	3 34	• • • • • • • •
781	1 6 3	21 21	1 17 6	4 43	5 1 6	32	•••••
783	1 10 0	3	4 (*)		6	4	
784	1 (*)		(-)		71	41	
785	11 5 6	21	t2 5 0	44	6	4	
786	186	3			6	4	
787	1 6 5	24		· · · · · · · · · · · ·	5	4	•••••
788	191	3	2 7 11	5	5	4	••••••
789 790	1 9 2 1 8 9	3	2 3 11 2 3 2	#	4 6	3 4	•••••
791	186	3 3 3	2 6 5	1.1	6	4	
792	1 8 7	3	2 6 5	4	6	1 1	
793	1 10 4	33	2 6 5	4	6	4 1	
94	ī 11 10	31	2 7 7	5	6	4	
195	1 13 11	34	2 11 3	51	7		

* None bought.

t Ready money.

NOTE.—These prices are considerably lower than the price paid by the consumer, which, in 1795, was about 7d. a pound for beef and mutton; they, however, show the proportion between the prices of different periods. In the price per pound fractions less than one-fourth are emitted.

Table XI."—Showing the prices of the principal articles of subsistence in 1768, at different places in England, with the distance of each place from London.

Places.	Dis- tance.	Bread.	Butter.	Cheese.	Mutton.	Beef.	Veal.	Pork.	Average of meats.
Hatfield	20	2	7	4	4	4	3 <u>1</u>		31
Stevenage	32	2	7	31	4	31	4	4	24 34 35 35 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36
Officy	34 37	2.	7		4	4	3	4	3₹
Henghton Milton		11	<u>-</u>	4	4.	3	4	4	32
Wanden	41 49	慧	7	4	31	31 31 31	••••	4.	3
Broughton	75	1	6	4	4 34	4	3	3	3
Biddenham	47	11	6	1	35	•	•••••		32
Weston	53	1	7	1	1 7	31	4	4	
Catworth.	57	11 12 2	6		34	4	31	1	4 34 34 35 34 34 34 34 34 35 34 35 34 35 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 34
Avehurch	70	12	6	4 4 3		34	_	•	1 4
Sesterton	85		. 6	1 3	34	3	3	••••	36
Byten	92		4	4	31	4	34		31
abnton	99		6	4	3	31			31
omen	112		6	4	3	34 34			31
romwell	123 134	. .	6 7 7	I 4	3 3	4			3
rayton	134	• • • • • • • •	7	4	3	2			3₹
antler oseysbrough	150	[. 	7	4	3	3	2		3
oseysorougn	155	· • • · · • • • ·	6	4	34	3	3 3		3
otherham	161	1	6 8	4	34	3	3	4	34
cejesfield	167	14	8	34	31	33.3	3	4	3-}
Veelley Vakefield	165		6 7	4	31	3	<u>:</u>		3 1
eds	178 190	11	7.	·····;··	31 31 31 4		3		34 34 34 34
iddel	•	14	61	4	_	4	24	4	-
iddel Vhinmoor	} 194		64	4	34	3	21	l	3
Vilberafort	192	1	64	9	3	1			
etton	188		ai ai		3	3 <u>4</u>			379
laby	188 185		1 31	1 3	3.	3	4		31
isiby Stillingfleet	192	i	61 51 52	21 21 2 3	31		•		38
lowden	173	i	51	9	31	1 21		31	38
horne	168	ī	4	3	31	31	24	31	31
round Wentworth	155	i	6	3	31	1 3	21	-2	%
riffield	200		6	2	3	3	~5		9
lonanby	900 925 920	1	6	2 2	31	3			3
ewion	220	i ŧ	51	1 9	3	3	3	4	34
Sunnington	225		44 74 64 64 74	21	3	3		4	3.
lirby lirkleatham	238	1; 1; 1; 1; 1;	7	21	3	31	4		3
WEICALDAM	260	13	64	12	3	34	34	4	3.[
chorton	940 964 970	14	6	2	3	3	3		3
Alling Rockby	304	1 11	71	24	3	3			3
bones	280	1 4	6	21	31	3	2		3
rengh Temington Iplin	230	12	61 51 51 51 51 51	जेता वर्ष अंदर्भ	3		31 31 31 31 31		34 14 14 14 15 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
Takin	939	12	25	×*	3	3	34	3	3
mint on	938 930	-4	5	2	3	32	***	34 34 34] **
mikhill	232	i	51	iş	31	31	١٠	3	3,
raikhill	232	i	5	32	34	3.2		31	32
maby	235	l i	61	١٩	31	31	3	4	1 81
egarth	940 950	1	61 51 61	2	3	3 31 31 31		•	31
29 Y	250	1	6	21	3₽	31	34	4	31
owcastle	276	1 1	7	21 11 2	24	3	"و ا		21
orpeth hwiek	291		8	2	3	3	3	4	31
mwiek	310		6	24	24 24	24	2	3	24
Micro	325 325	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	51	3	21	31 3 3 3	2		2
	320 330		5	2	3	3	2	3	2
ethbury	301	•••••	5 5 5	21 3 21 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22	3	3	3 2 2 2 2 2	3	1 24
mbo	290		2.	24	3	4	24	34	3
kawelt	978	•••••	4 1 6	×	3	3	<u>-</u>	· · · · <u>·</u> · · ·	3
BEO\$	276 296	1	6	2	5 5	3	8	3	21
enrith	282	1	51	1 8	, ×	3.	21	4	**
eswick	286	1	5 1 5 1	1 8	2	21	2	3 3	24
mÓD	268	.	6	31	91	7,	3,	3.	<u>**</u>
endal	956	1	ىھ ا	2.5		25	21	44	102
dine	246		1 3	31	53	23	39	33	3
abers	946 930	1	Ř	1 3	10 2	oi.	75	4	, 2 1
aralang	223	i	64 54 8 7	21 3 3 3 3	विद्यातीय व व ज	21 21 21 3	•••••	3	3
arrington	182		71	ข	3	3	3	4	3.
rerpool	200	14	71	31	31	91	4	4	3,
kringham	180		6	31 31 31	3 1 3	21	3	31	34
netaford	170		6	21	31	21	4	4	31
netaford. olmes-Chapel	158		6	2j 3i 3 2j	34 34	21 21 21 3	31	34	35
ewcalle ninger Labe	150	1	l š	l š⁵	3	3	3	28	
benstone	117	1	8	21	21	21		3	91
etan	112	1	8	21	2	21		3 1 31	01
agley	110	Ĩ,	ě		34	3			

^{*}Tables XI, XII, and XIII are taken from Arthur Young's "Northern Tour," vol. iv, pp. 424, 435, and 469.

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TABLE XI.—Showing the prices of the principal articles of subsistence, &c.—Continued.

Places.	Dis- tance.	Bread.	Butter.	Cheese.	Mutton.	Beef.	Veal.	Pork.	Average of meats.
Broomagrove Pershore Bendaworth Moreton Bensington Henley Maidenhead Harmsworth Kensington	85 47 35 27 16	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	61 7 8 7 6 7 7	31 3 31 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	34 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	3 3 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	91 9 3 9 3 3 4 4 4 4 4	4 4 3 4 4 4 4	37 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 4 3 4 3 4 4 3 4 4 4 4
Averages		114	6	3	3	3	3	31	3

TABLE XII.—Showing the yearly expenditures of workingmen for house-rent, fuel, and the wear of tools, at various places in England in 1768.

Places.	House- rent.	Firing.	Tools.	Places.	House- rent.	Firing.	Tools.
	2 s. d.	2 s. d.	£ s. d.		2 s. d.	2 a d	2 . 4
Hatfield	2 15 0	2 0 0	1 5 0	Asgarth	0 15 0	1 10 0	0 5 •
Stevenage	2 0 0	1000	liio	Raby	1 15 0	1 5 0	0 0 6
Offley	2 2 6	1 10 0	1 10 0	Newcastle	1 10 0	1 10 0	
Houghton	2 0 0	2 10 0	0 12 0	Gosworth	1 10 0	1 10 0	
Milton	1 10 0	1 5 0	0 6 0	Morpeth	0 10 0	0 10 0	
Wanden	2 0 0	0 0 0	0 15 0	Alnwick	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 9 9
Broughton	īŏŏ	2 10 0	1 0 0	Belford	iŏŏ	1 4 0	0 0
Hale-Weston	1 7 6	1 10 0	1 0 0	Hetton	0 10 0	0 15 0	0 0 0
Catworth	iòŏ	1 5 0	0 8 6	Berwick	1 0 0	1 5 0	• • •
Aychurch	0 3 9	2 10 0	0 8 0		0 10 6	1 0 0	0 0 0
Casterton	0 14 0	2 10 0	1000	Fenton	0 15 0	1 0 0	1
Byten	0 19 0	1 10 0		Rothbury		0 16 0	
Paonton	2 10 0	2 0 0		Cambo	0 10 0	0 10 0	1
				Glenwelt		0.10 0	
Fossen				Ascot	0 15 0		
Cromwell		1 0 0		Penrith	1 0 0	1 10 0	
Drayton	1 0 0	1 15 0		Keswick	1 0 0	1 5 0	
Cantler	1 10 0	1 0 0	0 5 0	Shapp	1 10 0	150	
Coneysbrough	1 10 0	1 4 0	0 5 0	Kendal manufac			i
Ecclesfield	200	1 0 0	0 6 0	(utco	1 10 0	276	
Wooliey	1 10 0	0 12 0		Holme		176	
Wakefield manu-			i	Kabers	100	100	0 10 6
_ factures	2 5 0	1 0 0		Garslang	176	1 10 0	
Leeds manufactures		1 0 0		Warrington man-	!	1	ł
Kiddel	0 18 0	1 0 0	0 5 0	ufactures	1 5 9	0 16 0	
Wilbersfort	1 0 0	1 10 0	'	Liverpool	1 5 0	0 17 6	
Hatton	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 10 0		1 10 0	1 0 0	
Risby	1 0 0	0 5 0	0 15 0	Knotsford	2 5 0	1 0 0	
Stillingfleet	1 0 0	100	0 5 0	Holmes-Chapel	1 7 6	1 1 0	
Howden	1 10 0	0 15 0		Newcastle manu-			
Thorne	1 5 0	0 12 0	0 5 0	factures	2 12 6	1 2 6	
Wentworth	1 5 0	0 12 0	0 4 0	Stone			
Driffield	1 10 0	1 10 0	0 0 0	Shenstone	1 15 0	1 10 0	
Newton		1 5 0	0 5 0	Aston	2 0 0	1 5 0	0 7 6
Nunnington			0 10 0	Hagley	2 15 0	1 10 0	0 5
Kirby	1 5 0		0 5 0	Broomsgrove	2 0 0	1 10 0	1
Kirkleatham	1 0 0		0 2 6	Persbore	1 5 0	1 10 0	0 10
Schorton	iŏŏ		0 5 0	Bendsworth	0 18 6	1 5 0	0 2
Gilling					1 7 72 7	0 0 0	
Rookby			1 7 7 7 1	Moreton	1 10 0	1 5 0	0 2 6
			1	Bensington	2 5 0	2 0 0	0 8 9
Brough				Henley	2 10 0	2 10 0	
Fremington				Maidenhead			
Kiplin				Harmondsworth	3 15 0	000	976
Swinton				Kensington	5 0 0		
Craikhill				North Mims	3 10 0	000	076
Sleningford				1 .			A 2 2
Danby	0 17 6	0 17 6	0 12 2	Averages	1 8 2	1 3 11	0 7 11

TABLE XIII.—Showing the yearly value of servants' board, washing, and lodging at various places in England in 1768.

	£.	8.	a.
Danby	8	13	4
Ormskirk	9	Ō	ō
Altringham		13	4
Knotsford	10	8	ō
Stone		10	ŏ
Shenstone	9	Ŏ	ě

Hagley	6	0	0
Average	0	^	_

TABLE XIV.—Showing the prices of provisions in the hundreds of Colneis and Carlford, in the county of Suffolk, England, from 1792 to 1796.

	First quar-	First quar-	First quar-	First quar-	First quar-
	ter 1792.	ter 1793.	ter 1794.	ter 1795.	ter 1796.
Second flour, the eack Third flour, the sack Mat, bushel Espa cwt Best cwt Mutico, pound Soffolk cheese, cwt Derly cheese, cwt Best cheese, cwt Candles, dozen pounds Casls, the chaldron Butter, the firkin Potatoes, the sack	1 9 0 1 1 0 4 12 0 1 11 0 0 0 4 1 1 0 0 2 6 0 2 16 0 0 7 2 1 3 0 1 16 0	& s. d. 1 14 6 1 13 0 1 2 0 0 1 13 6 0 0 4 0 17 0 2 12 0 2 12 0 1 9 6	2 s. d. 1 15 6 1 13 6 1 3 0 5 5 0 1 15 6 0 0 4 0 19 0 2 16 0 0 7 0 1 9 6	2 s. d. 2 s 6 0 1 2 6 6 15 0 1 17 0 0 0 4 0 17 6 0 17 6 0 7 6	£ s. d. 4 0 0 3 18 0 1 3 6 2 6 0 0 0 5 1 2 0 4 0 0 . 0 9 3

Tible XV.—Showing the expenses and earnings of two families of agricultural laborers in a manufacturing parish near Carlisle, Cumberland.

	No. 1.—Fo	our persons.	No. 2.—S	ix persons.
	1792.	1794.	1793.	1795.
EXPENSES BY THE WEEK. Bread, flour, or oatmeal Yeast and salt Bacon or pork. Tea sugar, and butter Sasp. Condies Small beer Milk Petatees Thread and worsted Total per week Total per year EARNINGS FEE WEEK.	0 0 1½ 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 0 1½ 0 0 1½ 0 0 0 6 0 0 5 0 0 1½	2 s. d. 0 3 6 0 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 0 22 0 0 12 0 0 7 0 0 5 18 14 10	8 s. d. 0 4 1 0 0 2 0 0 2 0 0 0 2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	£ s. d. 0 4 6 0 0 2 0 0 2 0 0 6 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 7 5 19 7 10
Min. average	0 7 6 0 1 4	0 8 0 0 1 4	0 7 0 0 2 0	0 7 6 0 2 0
Total per week	0 8 10 22 19 4	0 9 4 24 5 4	0 9 0 23 8 0	0 9 6 22 14 0
Provisions, as above	2 10 0 2 0 0 2 0 0	18 14 10 2 10 0 2 0 0 2 10 0	18 5 1 1 7 0 1 14 4 1 16 0 0 1 0	19 7 10 1 7 8 1 14 4 2 0 0
Total expenses per year	22 19 4	25 14 10 24 5 4	23 3 5 23 8 0	24 9 8 24 14 0
Surplus, (+;). deficiency, (-)	-1 2 9	-196	+047	+ 0 4 10

Norn.—No. 1 is a decent family, living well, and managing economically; the man 35, woman 30, children under 7 years of age. No. 2, the man 35 years, wife the same, and four small children; often is great distress.

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TABLE XVI.—Showing the expenses and earnings of two families of agricultural laborers at Buckden, in Huntingdonskire.

•	No.	1	-Fo	ur pe	180	DS.	No	. 2.	—Si	x perso	DS.			
	1739. 1		1739.			179	5-'9	26.	1	793		1795	-'96	
EXPENSES PER WEEK. Bread, flour, or oatmeal. Bacon or other meat. Tea, sugar, and butter. Soap and blue. Candles. Yeast and salt Cheese. Beer Potatoes. Thread and worsted: Total per week	0 0 0 0	3 0 0 0 0	10 0 9 11	0	2 1 1 0 0 0 0		0	0	10 9 11	0 0 0	ö.	101 0 25 3 3		
Total per year	16			16	7				9*		15			
Man, average Woman, average Children, average	0	7 0 0	5	0 0		5	0	7	3 2	0	7 1	3		
Total earnings per week Total earnings per annum	55 3	8 12	7		19 19	7		17	5 8		8 17			
expenses per annum.								==						
Provisions, as above. Rent Fuel Shoes Other clothes and furniture Births, burials, aickness.	9 1 2	16 2 3 5 18	0	2		0	1 3	13 7 6 0	 0 0	1 3	15 7 11 11 11	ō		
Total expenses per year	25	13	11	26 22	19	2 4	26 21	7 17	9 8	!	6	5 8		
Surplus, (+;) deficiency, (-)		1	7	-3	8	8	-4	10	1	-5	8	9		

Note.—The parish allows barley at 3s, the Winchester bushel. Even with this indulgence No. 2 live almost entirely on barley, water, and a few potatoes.

No. 1.—Man and wife under 40, boy 16 years, and a baby. This man, as well as No. 2, is a shepherd, and thoir wages are lower than those of other laborers. They make up their deficiencies by keeping two pigs and cultivating a little garden.

No. 2.—Man and wife under middle age, girl 11, boy 9, girl 6, girl 21, a boy at service. During last year the family received 1s. a week from the parish.

TABLE XVII .- Showing the expenses and earnings of three families of agricultural laborers at Clopshill, in Bedfordshire, England, in 1795.

Expenses by the week.	No. 1.—Four Persons. No. 2.—Six persons.		No. 3.—Six persons.		
Bread, flour, or oat-meal Bacon or other meat Yeast and salt Thread and worsted Tea, sugar, and butter Soap Candles Cheese Beer Potatoes	0 0 9 0 0 3 0 0 1 0 0 10 0 0 11 0 0 4	0 7 6 0 1 6 0 0 2 0 0 2 0 1 0 0 0 2 0 0 5 0 0 0 0 0 4	0 7 6 0 1 6 0 0 3 0 0 2 0 0 10 0 0 5 0 0 5 0 0 0		
Total per week	0 7 11 20 11 8	0 12 4½ 32 2 5	0 11 eq 30 8 10		

Table XVII.—Showing the expenses and earnings of three families of agricultural laborers at Clopskill, in Bedfordskire, England, in 1795.—Continued.

Expenses by the week.	No. 1.—Four	No. 2.—Six	No. 3.—Six
	persons.	persons.	persons.
EARNINGS PER WEEK. Man, average	0 1 6	& s. d. 0 8 0 0 0 0 0 2 6	2 s. d. 0 7 6 0 1 6 0 4 0
Total per week		0 10 6 27 6 0	0 13 0 33 16 0
For provisions, as above	20 11 8	32 2 5	30 8 10
	1 15 0	1 10 0	1 10 0
	1 10 0	0 13 0	1 12 6
	1 11 6	1 11 6	2 2 0
	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
Total expenses per annum Total earnings per annum	25 13 2	36 1 11	35 18 4
	23 8 0	27 6 0	33 16 0
Deficiency *	2 5 2	8 15 11	2 2 4

^{*} Harvest earnings not included; they go a great way toward making up deficiencies.

EXTRACTS FROM THE HALLIWELL COLLECTION OF MANUSCRIPTS.

Below are presented a few extracts from a large collection of bills. accounts, and inventories, illustrating the history of prices between the years 1650 and 1750, presented to the Smithsonian Institution in 1852, by James Orchard Halliwell, esq., of Brixton Hill, near London, and now embraced in the Library of Congress. The collection comprises about seven thousand separate documents, bound in fifty-four volumes. and intended as materials for a projected work on the history of prices, The design of preparing such a work having been abandoned, the collector of these valuable manuscripts presented them "to the people of the United States, who, beyond all others," says he, "are most likely to produce a writer on the history of commerce willing to make use of materials which will strikingly illustrate the immense commercial progress the world has achieved during two centuries."

The following entries, culled from the household account-book of the

Archer family, illustrate the rates of wages in 1710.

	EXPENDITURES FOR LABOR.			
17	710.	£	8.	đ.
Mar.	5th. Paid George Hill for 4 weekes worke	0	9	6
	12th. Paid Goodman Mills for 2 days' work		1	8
	18th. Paid Wm. Judge 6 days		9	ŏ
	George Hill 6 days and 1		5	5
	John Hearth 6 days and 1		2	2
	John Fisher 6 days and 1		2	2
	Mills, serving Whisler, 7 days		6	8
	26th. Paid ve tayler for makeing my coate.		1	6
May	bth. Paid my br. for 2 weeks to ve workmen	3	17	- 1
•	8th Given we carnenter as drew we dranght of we farm-house	1	1	6
July	11th. Paid Wm. Austin for half a yeare's washing	_	6	Õ
,	20th Paid Whisler and his man one day		2	6
	23d. Paid for makeing 34 qr. and 6 bushells of malt	9	7	ŏ
	wer I and the memorial as dr. entr a preparent or management	-	•	•

No. 1.—Eldest child, 3 years; youngest a baby.

No. 2.—One girl 10, second 8; two others under 5 years. This family has a large garden and keeps a pig. The parish allows 1s. a week.

No. 3.—Eldest girl 13, other girl 10, two boys under 5 years. The laborer is allowed by his master barley at 3s. bushel.

1710.	£	8.	a.
July 25. Paid Booth for fining the ale	-0	10	4
July 25. Paid Booth for fining the ale			_
br's shirts		8	0
27th. Paid ve washerwoman for 2 days		ŏ	6
30th. Paid Mrs. How for doing my gown		8 0 7	ŏ
30th. Paid Mrs. How for doing my gown Aug't 28th. Paid Horwood's bill 37 weeks work	10	12	ŏ
29th. Paid Rose for 9 days' washing		- 2	6
Oct. 12. Paid the tayler for 4 dayes' work		ã	ň
23d. Paid Rose for 12 days' washing		3	Ă
Nov. 3d. Paid John Dore 2 weekes' worke		10	Ă
Dec'r 8th. Paid George Hill half a year's wages	9	10	
Paid Alice half a year's wages due to her 29th September	õ	10	X
raid Ance han a year a wages due to her sent September	z	ΤŌ	
Paid Home for 5 weeks' work	1	5	0
Paid Mr. Rawlins, for surveying the woods and measuring ye			
brewhouse	66	15	0
			-

PRICES IN 1710 AND 1711.

From the same source the following entries are selected as examples of the prices of a large number of commodities purchased between June 21, 1710, and August 21, 1711:

21, 1	.u, and August 21, 1711:		
13	£	۰	∂.
June		12	6
o uno	22. Paid for 2 qr. and a half of oates		ŏ
	25. Paid for 3 yards of ribon		ĕ
	26. Paid for a tin sauce pan) 0	6
	28. Paid for six yards of lace		Ö
	Paid for a salmon and bread.		6
71-	29. Paid for a side of mutton		6
July	6. Paid for a looking-glase and 2 knives		0
	Given Robin to buy a whip		0
	14. Paid for 4 groce of corks		0
	15. Given Greeve's maid for a pig.		0
	17. Paid for 7 chickings		4
	17. Paid for 7 chickings		6
	Paid for more crawfish		4
	19. Paid for anchoves, one pound) 1	8
	Given for a shoulder of vension	5	0
	Paid ye postman for letters	1	6
	21. Paid Daniell Heathcoate for a sheep	13	6
	24. Given White's man for a lamb	5	0
	25. Paid for 5 couple of rabitts	5	0
	27. Paid ye washer woman for 2 dayes	0 (6
Aug.	1st. Paid for 2 couple of rabbitts and a pd. of capers	3	6
	Paid for a sheep, weight 75 pound.		6
	Paid for a sheep, weight 75 pound		ŏ
		·19	ŏ
	6th. Paid for 10 ducks		ŏ
	th. Paid for Sue Eyre's gloves		ŏ
	Oth. Paid for 6 pd. of butter		3
	Paid for two couple of rabitta		ŏ
	Paid for a bushell of salt		š
	Paid for 2 dozen and 9 orringes		6
	Paid for musheroomes		
	th. Paid for a pair of shoes.		6
	th. Paid for a pair of shoes		6
	Given ye Duke of Devolshire's keeper and his man for a buck		6
	th. Given for two pair of stockings		0
	th. Paid for 6 pd. of butter		3
	Paid for 14 pd. bscon, at 5d. peny		5
	Paid for a salmon		6
	8th. Paid Mary Vicars for carrying water		41
	th. Paid Mr. Charles Bagshaw for 16 qr. of oates		0
		18	0
	Paid ye tayler for a busk		6
	Paid for a handkerchief		0
	Brd. Paid for 2 pair of shoes	7	0
	Paid Daniel Heathcott for a calf	13	6
	Given to Ward and his man for a buck	l 4	0
	Cara	L	

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			_		_
17	10.		£	8.	đ,
Sept.	1st.	Given a maid for a pig	O	2	6
•	6th.	Paid for this dayes bread. Paid ye miller for 5 bushells of barley	0	1	2
	11th.	Paid ve miller for 5 bushells of barley	Ó	15	
		Paid for a nart in a mine	Ř	10	Ŏ
		Paid for a part in a mine. Given Sr. Philip Gell's boy for a side of vension	ŏ	5	ŏ
	95+h	Poid Mr. Ambood for 9 on of notes	1		ŏ
	20ш.	Paid Mr. Awood for 2 qr. of oates	1	5	
		Paid for a coach glase	1	5	0
		Given for a hare	0	2	0
Oct.	3rd.	Paid for 2 geese Paid for 8 qr. of oates, at 13s. and 4d. per Paid for 2 dayes bread	0	3	0
•		Paid for 8 qr. of oates, at 13s. and 4d. per	5	6	8
	4th.	Paid for 2 dayes bread	0	3	6
	5th.	Paid for 2 quarts of white wine	Ó	4	0
		Paid we bressier for a sauce non and condlestly	ŏ	5	Ğ
		Paid for manding we windows	ŏ	ĭ	6
	C+L	Paid for mending ye windows	X		
	oen.	Paid for 3 couple of rapolts and mending ye warming-pan	0	4	0
		Paid for a peck of potatoes	0	0	6
	6th.	Paid for a peck of potatoes	0	2	6
	9th.	Paid for 6 pd. of butter	0	2	3
		Paid for 12 chickings	0	3	0
	16th.	Paid for setting 2 hares	0	2	0
	23rd	Paid for 5 dozen of soape	ŏ	5	Ŏ
	-0. u .	Paid for 2 pd. of brisketts	ŏ	3	ĕ
	9043	Doid for 11 northidese	Ä	3	8
	29th.	Paid for 11 partridges	0		
	. .	Paid for a pair of shoes	0	4	0
	318 t.	Paid ye Duke of Devon quitt rent	1		0
		Paid for boyled wheat	0	1	0
Nov.	lst.	Paid Mr. Bosley for cureing my eye	1	12	3
		Given Mr. Bosley for leting me blood	Ō	5	0
	4th	Paid The Johnson we miller for 15 leads of malt and 5 husballs	•	•	•
	7022			2	0
	CAL	and a half of barley	21		
	otn.	Paid for 2 ounces of nuttmegs		1	0
		Paid for 3 couple of rabbitts	0	2	0
		Paid for 16 pd. of butter	0	6	0
	7th.	Paid Tom Eyre for 38 st. of bacon	0	17	0
	9th.	Paid my mother her first rent	26	8	9
		Paid for 2 pecks of apples	0	2	8
	10th	Paid John Dale for 5 pair of stockings	ŏ		š
	TOTAL.	Paid for 4 pair of gloves	ő	8	ŏ
		Doid for a subsellarment	Ž		
		Paid for a wheelbarrow		5	0
		Paid for starch and indegoe	0	1	6
		Paid for 3 ells of Holland	0	2	0
		Paid Mrs. Buxton for 33 vds. of cloath	- 1	17	6
	10th.	Paid for half a dozen of brooms	0	10	06
		Given Mr. Ward's man for 2 shours, of ven	0	5	00
	16th	Paid for a hind qr. of mutton	_		00
	10000	Given to the poor of Bakewell	ശ		
	994	Paid for a pair of landing strings	02	-6	00
	OEAL.	Paid for a pair of leading-strings			
	ZOUL.	Paid my sister Carter for my stays	~~	10	w
Λ.	antp.	Paid for lace for 2 heads and ruffles	υ7	υž	υö
Decr.	2d.	Paid for a hatt at Dunstable		8	00
		Paid for a pair of bodice		15	00
		Paid the coachman as carried my dear down into Essex		08	00
•	5th.	Paid Robin for a weekes hoard wages			00
		Paid Robin for a weekes board wages	5	15	
		Paid for a buckle for little Will.	·		06
	C+L	Doid for a main of conings	ഹാ		
	OLD.	Paid for a pair of earings	US	w	w
		Paid for playthings for ye child		υz	00
		Paid Mr. Burchett for ye picture	12	18	00
		Paid for a vessell of beer		5	00
	8th.	Paid for my handkerchift and 2 girdles	04	01	00
	10th	Paid my aunt Gell's interest due at Michaelmas 1710	20	15	00
		Paid for a barrel of beer			ŏŏ
		Doid for 2 hoir of alores for we skild		ທິ	8
		Paid for 3 pair of gloves for ye child	Δ4	O3	W
	10.1	raid for paper and wax and ink	UΙ	Δľ	Ň
	17th.	Paid for 2 lobsters		03	UG
	19th.	Paid for a common-prayer book and St. Austine's Meditations	01	06	00
		Paid for wine and beer, and a cart and porter, and for musterd,			
				17	06
	924	and for bringing billetts	05		

	40		•	_	
	10.	Daid Mantin for a seach plans		8. 16	00
Decr.	23.	Paid Martin for a coach glase	v		00
		Paid for a pair of patenings and clogs			06
		Paid for a tin baskett for plates			00
		Paid for a dozen pair of gloves	01		
	96+h	Paid for a dozen of sope plates	VI.	17	00
	жош.	Paid for 2 box irons and a candlestick			00
		Paid for a pair of slipers			00
		Paid for wash balls and sweet water			00
	96	Paid for a dozen of mops			00
	20.	Paid Mr. Bright's bill for ye horses standing 25 night	19		
		Paid for making a gown and pettycoate, and scouring it	ñĭ	10	00
	98th	Given Parson Sharlay's man	•-	05	00
	2001	Given Parson Sherley's man	11	16	06
15	711.	TO DI. COOK for my miness			-
Tan 1	711. 7419th	. Paid for 2 pair of stockings and 3 mettings		18	00
Jan.	15th	Paid all our men for a yeare's washing to this day twelvementh	04		
77.0	200H.	Given R. for going to Newbury when I was ill	74	10	00
3,		Paid for 6 nd and 1 of solls			
	96+h	Paid for 6 pd. and ½ of eells	Λ1	10	ñã
	97	Daid for & nair of mittings and natahas	VI.	14	00
	21 of	Paid for 6 pair of mittings and patches			06
	2190.	Daid Many Wassell for 0 nd of hutt			06
Feb.	94	Paid Mary Hassell for 9 pd. of butt			06
reu.	æu.	Paid Dr. Cook to return to London	11	00	00
	114h	Paid J. Winkwork for 2 pair of shoes for myself, and a pair of	11	w	v
	II WI.			15	00
		boots for Johnathan			06
	1142	Paid for O large planck solves	9	10	
	1100.	Paid for 2 large plumb-cakes	ő	2	
		Pd. for boxes to put ym. in	_	õ	_
		Daid for heinging it from me inn	0	ŏ	_
		Paid for bringing it from ye inn	ŏ	ŏ	
	164h	Pd. for one glass for ye specticles	ŏ	ŏ	
	1746	Paid for a letter	3	ŏ	
	1710.	Paid for a letter	_	_	_
	25.	Paid for a letter	0	0 2	
		Paid for a pr. of white sattin shoes for little master			
		Paid for 2 pr. of stockins for little master		.2	
M	4542	Paid for a pr. of clowded wosted	•	10	
Mar.	loth.	Paid for an ounce and 1 of gold thred, at 6s. 8d		10	
	OAL	Paid for 3 qrs. of a yeard of plain muslin and starching		6	
	ZULD.	Paid for a pattern for an apron.		1	
	24 th.	For 6 pownd of tobaccoe and a box			2 6
	0442	Paid for a peice of diaper tape	Λ	1	
	24 tn.	Paid for 1 peice of narrower ditto	0	0	_
		Paid for 1 a hundred of needles		0	
	OOA2	Paid for a hatt and a silver edging to it		9 5	
	29111.	Paid for 2 bottles of Doctr. Bifield's drops		9	
	21 of	Paid for another hatt end silver edging		10	
A	10+	Paid for a paice of rich silke for a pr. of shoes and faceing		3	
Apr.	100.	Paid for 2 brass knockers for a dore and a hatch		17	
		For 12 pd. of tobacco and a 16 pd. box	1	_	_
	CIL	Poid for little meeters white temps seet		10	
		Paid for little master's white tammy cont			
	9111.	Paid for 2 hundred of sparraguse and a basket	0	5 5	
	20.	Paid for 4 yds. 1 of brocaded silke for mastr. coate	2	0	
Mar.	54h	For ‡ a pd. of pack thred. Paid for a new lid for an old box to send ye coat in		ŏ	
May	Sth.	Poid for a dozon of hid gloves	9	10	
	то 12	Paid for a dozen of kid gloves Paid for ye loadstone		10	
	ye 13.	Paid for 0 nd of coffe	~	12	
	J 0 22.	Paid for 2 pd. of coffy		2	
Ma-		Paid for a pair of white satting shoes of little master	1	9	
may ;	y 0 2000	a. Paid for a guilt correll	2		
Anne	ye zu	Doid Willott for demograph and Demont for a anto of elethor	$\tilde{\tilde{2}}$	6 19	
2.	e om.	Paid Willett for druggett, and Durant for a sute of clothes			
	041	Paid ye mantoewoman's bill for making ye gown and coate, &c.	1	6	_
	0442	Paid for a pr. of wosted stockins for Mr. Archer	1	4	
July	~1011.	Paid for a new telliscope	1	. 5	
o ai y		. A tirk rot je ozing nometo ouk je bottle		U	

17	11			a
July	22. For makeing six shirts for Mr. Tho. Eyer, and buttons	õi	ñ.	2
Augt.			9	õ
Aug.			-	ğ.
	4th. Paid for a piece of tape			-
	Paid for a pair of bodys		-	0
	5th. Paid for a new lid for ye box to send ye stays in		0	2
	Paid for a firkin of sope	1	6	0
	6th. Paid for 3 qrs. and 1 of cherry and scarlett silk for robeings, &c.,	_	5	6
	12th. Paid for dying ye greene gowne and pettycoate		-	ŏ
		_		
	18th. Paid Mrs. Cousin's bill for ye 2 gowns and pettycoats, &c	2		
	29th. Paid for 3 ells of Hollond, at 6s. ell		8	0
	Paid for 2 pr. of cherry collered silk stockins	1	4	0
	31st. Paid for 1 a doz. of marble wash balls		2	6
	Paid for a qr. of a pd. of pomatum and pott		0	8
Sep.	10th. Paid for 2 glasses for ye bird cage			6
	15th. Paid Mary Lincoln for bringing ye mantoe from Pickadily			6
	21st. Paid for a strong box			ŏ
	Doid for one and manage to make up Down		ŏ	-
	Paid for cord and paper to pack ye Box up		U	5

MISCELLANEOUS EXPENDITURES.

The following entries, which, like those that precede, have been culled from the household account-book of the Archer family, are presented not so much on account of their statistical value as for the illustrations which many of them furnish of social and domestic life at the period to which they relate. The fact that Mr. Archer, a country gentleman of good estate, gives the cook an extra five shillings "for dressing two dinners" when his tenants "paid their rent at Coopersale," and varying soms for extra trouble on other occasions, indicates a due appreciation of that domestic's position in the household, and suggests that the state of here temper may have had something to do with the quality of her dinners. That it was found expedient to treat her with consideration is further indicated by an entry which records the payment to her of 2s. 6d. "for saving the suet." As an incentive to economy, this method was, no doubt, found to be far more effective than verbal exhortations. Indeed, Mr. Archer appears to have found it an incentive to various other virtues, for we find him paying 5s. to Robin and Jack "for coming home sober," 9s. to Tom and Jonathan "for saying their catechism," 8s. to Jonathan and Will "for reading four Sunday nights," 2s. 6d. "to the scolers at Wickham," to encourage them in their studies, no doubt, and 5t. "to Katty for teaching Willy his prayers." One feels a shade of disappointment, however, in finding that on the same day that he makes this last payment he gives 11s. to his brother John "to play at cards." On the 21st of January, 1711, he pays "Betty" £1 1s. 6d. for looking after him "in the small-pox;" on the 27th of the same month he pays 7s. 6d. to a barber for shaving his head; and on the 29th of March he buys a periwig for 19s. Perhaps his illness had led him to serious meditations, for about this time he expends 8s. 6d. "for 3 Whole Dutys of Man," and at sacrament he contributes as much as 10s. for himself and 10s. for his wife, to whom he always refers as "my dear." The following are but a few out of many hundreds of similar entries:

1710.		£	8.	d.
June 18.	Given to lame soldiers	0	2	0
	Given to our tenant's servants	0	9	0
21.	To my dear and myself	2	3	6
July 6.	Given a poor woman			
12.	Given Mr. Winterton's maid for ye use of ye cradle	0	5	0
	Given old Elston's maid and 2 men	0	10	0
	Given Goody Top	0	2	6
13.	Given her mother	0	2	6
	Given ye poor people	0	2	6

^{*}It is not unlikely that the cook was a male, since the record affords no positive evidence to the contrary.

			_		
17	10.	Cines no sin man at Malannall	£		ď
July	17.	Given ye ringers at Blakewell	1	1	ğ
July	19.	Given at Chatsworth, for seeing ye house	0	5 6	0
	21.	Given to see ye gardens at Chats	Ä	7	6
	26.	Given Robert Stayley, the fidler	ŏ	2	6
Aug.	6th.	Given at ye sacrement	ŏ	5	ŏ
•	7th.	Given a woman as brought a pig	0	2	6
	13th.	Given nurse and James for being blooded	0	2	0
	15th.	Given Betty for dressing ye dinner	0	2	6
		Given Robin for breaking ye horse	0	2	6
	zard.	Given Shepard, ye fidler, and a poor man	0	3	0
	ZOLD.	Given Jonathan for reading	0	0	6
gan+	29th.	Given to Parson Firn	0	10	0
Bept.	om.	Given ye ringers at Wirksworth	0	10	0
	25th	Given to ve servents at Honton	3	10 8	3
	20 UII.	Given to ye servants at Hopton	ő	2	6
Oct.	11th.	Given to a maid as brought a pr. of stockings	ŏ	$\tilde{2}$	ŏ
	14th.	Given Annie Twigg for dear little Wm	ŏ	5	ŏ
	30th.	Given Annie Twigg for dear little WmLost at shuffellboard, and given Jack and Tom	Õ	4	Ŏ
Nov.	10th.	Given Wm. Bassford for going to Derby, and Jn. Cope for put-			-
		tipg out his shoulder	0	10	0
	711.				
Jan'y	21st.	Given to Betty for looking after me in the small-pox	01	01	96
		Brother Frank's allowance for Oct. last, and Dr. and apothicary	40		00
	OZŁ	Paid ye barber for shaving my head	,17	04	W
Feb.	Rth.	Paid Tames for to have manufact and livered and bette and		U/	vo
r on.	Uш.	hreeches	40	m	00
	Sth.	breeches Paid Mrs. Cheveley for to buy mourning for me	25	m	200
	12th.	Paid for 2 blunder busses	$\tilde{2}$	00	00
		Paid Frank Fisher for 2 woodco	~	02	
	21st.	Paid for a suit of cloathes for my dear	3	15	00
		Paid for a hatt and lace	1	00	00
	25th.	Paid for a hatt and lace	1	09	00
Mar.	3d.	Paid for 2 turkeys of T. Butcher		05	
	8th.	To Dr. Cook for dear little Will'm		03	
	12th.	Paid for 2 wigs		12	-
	Ioth.	Given nurse for looking after d'r Willy when he had ye small-pox	1	1	6
	10ш.	Given James for buying my horse	1	0	6
		Paid for ye horse	10	2	6
		Given ye cook for saving ye suet		3	ŏ
	26th.	Paid my sister Carter part of her money, so yt ye interest must		•	•
		not go on	50	0	0
	27th.	Paid for ye Queen's tax for Benham		13	4
		Paid for 3 Whole Duty's of Man		8	6
		Given Robin for selling ye horse		2	6
	29th.	Paid for a perrywig		19	0
Apr.	18t.	Paid for a hatt for little Willy, and for letters			00
	64	Given Mr. Packer's man for a dog	9		00
		Given John thewton for ye poors rate to Easter		i	00
		Paid for Cambden's Brittaine		10	
	16.	Paid Edward Young for ve window tax	ĩ		00
	20.	Paid Edward Young for ye window tax	_		06
		Paid Jn. Webb ye Queen's tax and gaol money	8	9	03
		Paid Mr. White for measuring land	1	0	03
		Given Robin for bringing the writtings safe		5	00
May		Given Jn. Cox for cowcumbers	_		06
-	20th.	Paid Mr. Web for 16 gosslens	1	_	00
	on :	Paid Mr. Lyte for ye 2 guns	б		03 03
	23d.	Paid Pohin for letters and both		_	06 00
Tono	918ľ.	Paid Robin for letters and bath waters		_	00
June	11th	Given Robin and Jack for coming home sober from my cousin		J	•
	~ ~ ville	Packer's		5	00
				_	

^{*}The superfluous cyphers, which appear in the original, are omitted in subsequent, as some have been in preceding, entries.

To servis	£2	16 5	8
•			_
Pigro		2	ŏ
Sparrow grasse		2 1	Ö
Six chickens		7	6 0
A shoulder of mutton and sallet		3	6
A breast of veale		4	0
A neck and breast of mutton and broath.		15 5	0
Read and beere		16 15	4
Breed and house	£	8. 1.0	
A tavern bill, 1675.	_		
of the Halliwell collection:			
Below are given a number of miscellaneous accounts forming	z a	pa	rt
		-	
of Eping is one, and I don't know ye otherGiven old Sole's prentice for his Christmas-box		18 5	ŏ
26. Paid Mr. Pool two small bills he has brought in twice—the carrier		10	0
Given at ye sacrament, my dear and myself	1	0	0
Paid for pipes and tobacco		1	6
23d. Paid for 4 bottles of wine		10	ŏ
Given the cook for dressing 2 diners when the tenants paid their rent at Coopersale		5	0
20th. Given the carrier's man for his Xmas-box		5	0
19. Paid for bricks to do the washing with		10	0
Given my br. Jn. to play at cards		1	ŏ
15th. Given Katty for teaching Willy his prayers		5 11	0
8th. Paid Richard Kimber for mending odd things		2	0
Dec. 4. Given Tom to buy him spurs and a whip		2	6
28. Paid for a bottle of cinnamon water		14	6
26. Paid a plumber for a pump to our house Paid James for his old leather breeches for Jonathan	z	10	ŏ
Paid Robin for a razor	2	3 4	0
Paid for 4 aprons for Betty Mills		9	Ŏ
23. Paid Robin for the cloaths yt were Jack's	5	0	0
8th. Paid Dr. Cook to return up to Lendon	100	0	0
1711.		L	U
Nov. 5. Given Humphrey Fisher, now he is ill of the small-pox		10 2	0
28. Given ye cook for the parson's suppling here twice		5	0
Oct. 12. Given Jonathan and Will for reading four Sunday nights		8	0
25. Paid Mary Young for four geese		10	ŏ
23. Given James for an apron, and to learn to do up napkins		15	ŏ
Sept. 6. Lost at cards and given Jack		7 4	6 0
Paid for 3 seals		10	0
28. Paid for 2 pair of stays		12	0
16. Paid for silver buttons for my dear's frock	=	12	ö
Aug. 9th. Paid for a sissers case and penknife		7 16	0
Paid for a chaire for little Willy	1	6	6
30. To the surgeon for letting me blood		10	9
23. Paid Mrs. Webb for 6 ducks		2	6
Given my br. John what he lost at cards		11	ŏ
Paid for lacing ye men's hatts		5 19	6 6
Given at Queen's Colledge		2	0
18th. Given where wee dined	•	10	0
Paid for collyflower		6	Ó
12. Paid Robin for going down with Strowd to be cured of ve farcy.		4	ŏ
Given Tom and Jonathan for saying their catichism July 11th. Paid for makeing my br. John's shirts		6	0
24. Given Frank Adams for strawberries		2 9	0
13. Paid for 2 barrells of gunpowder	1	1	6
June 11th Given James for disapointing him when Jack was to go sway	_	10	0
1711.		8.	d.

BLACK BOY, CHELMSFORD, May 15th, 1675.

Mr. John Moore's bill-1676.			
Ye 26th of December.	£	8.	
Owinge for lodginge		16 10	
For a secude		7	
Ffor flaggetts For a barrall of eall.	_	1	0
For a pound of tobackoe and pipes	1	4 2	
For moer drink		ž	
For ye woman searchers		1	
For links		3 1	
Ye porter		8	
For ye man that lookt after him in his siknes		5	0
Ye wosherwoman		1	2
Ye sum tis	4	3	
The clark's ffees		19	0
Totall	5	2	4
2000	•	_	-
Disbursements—1675.	_		
Aug. 10th. Paid unto John Swallow for mending 2 sutes of clothes of my mas-	£	8.	d.
ter's		2	8
ter's		•	0
pipes		1	2 6
25th. Paid for a quarter of a pound of tobaccoe		•	9
27th. Paid for mending my master's golesshooe			2
Sept. 14. For a letter by the post unto Valentine Broughton			2
Oct. 11th. Paid John Swallow for mending my master's wastecoate and			_
doublett			6 1
Ffor 2 pounds of candles			11
Paid for a bottle of scurvy grasse.			3
Disburs'd in the whole	0	17	10
Bps. Storford—Feb. ye 1st, 1675.	_		_
1 horse 6 nights' hay	£	8. A	d .
15 bushell of oats	2	ō	0
One bushell 3 pecks of beens		7	0 4
mail a duament of mault		1	4
Bott off Judith Gresham-No. ye 9, 1706.			
1 main of aborner plants	£		d.
1 pair of shamey gloves	2		6 6
1 white gause handkercheiff	~	3	G
1 black ffann with India sticks		4	
1 broad crape hood		17 11	
1 black girdle		1	4
1 black fferbelo apron		15 2	6 6
Making 5 ant's of night cloths		7	6
Making 3 pair of double ruffles		3	0
Making 3 long tuckers		2 10	6 6
2 yds. of ribin ffor ye apron 5 yds. and quarter off muslin ffor 2 heads, and 7 pr. of ruffles			6
5 yds. and quarter off muslin ffor 2 heads, and 7 pr. of ruffles	1	14 2	0 6
Starching the 5 yds. off muslin	1	19	0
2 yds. 3 quarters off ffine lawn	3	3	0
4 yds. off muslin ffor 2 aprons	1	14 2	0
MAKATITHE 10 mampin		~	~

		_	• •
Making ye aprons 3 yds. halff ell off white Spanish. 1 white silk girdle. 1 fine stick ffan wth gause. 6 yds. off white and silver ribin 6 yds. off ffine plain ground lace, att 44sh 6 yds. off plain ground ffor night cloths, at 28sh 4 yds. off lace ffor ruffles, at 15sh 1 yd. and quarter off ffine lace ffor ye bosome	1 13 8 3	1 16 13 4	6 9 4 0 0 0
Laid out for Madam Archer-1711.			
March 6th. Paid for six bottles of Hungary water. 19th. Paid for 2 yds. 3 qrs. of plain muslin, at 8s. ye yd. 27th. Pd. for 3 qrs. and \(\frac{1}{2} \) of one striped muslin. 28th. Virginia tobaccoe, 12 pd. and a box. 25th. For making 2 hemed night heads. For makeing 2 day heads, single laps. For makeing 6 hemed tuckers. April 4th. Paid for a past bord box. 14th. Paid for 8 o. and qr. of clowded wosted, at 8d. ye ounce. 19th. Paid for a pr. of pumps. 23d. Paid for a pr. of pumps. 24th. Paid for 2 yds. of white sarcnett for a hood. 25th. Paid for 2 pr. of shammy gloves. Paid for 5 pr. of black lether gloves. May 13th. For 1,000 of ye best stiff pins. 24th. Paid for a duzen of oringes. Paid for a doz. of leamons. June 2d. Paid for a pr. of ereings. July 5th. Paid for a pd. of Bohe tea. Paid for a yd. of best black lute string. 12th. Paid for 2 new glasses for ye spectacles. 15. Paid for 300 of wallnuts to pickell. Paid ye basket woman for bringing ym home. Paid for boyling ye silver buttons. Paid for dying ye night gowne lying.		72 50 43 1 53 16 67 61 13 23 46 11 1	d. 603404614 600080066060014
Sir John Newton's bill-1701.			
Bought of James Lund and Lluellin Aspley, at the Crane in the Poultry 29°, 1701.			
1 pair of fine China jarrs, painted with gold 1 pair of blew China Roulwaggons. 4 China chocolet cups and 4 saucers, in colers 2 ditto chocolet cups and 2 two saucers 4 small china bottles 1 china teapot. 3 pair bottles and 3 faulty cups. 12 delf saucers	1	3	0
1 pair small bottles with gold	4	7 2 3	10 6 0
Agreed to a bolt [abate] for the upper percell	4	13 2	4 10
A poulterer's bill.		10	6
Due to me upon the ballance. Decr. 31st. For a lamb and pluck. For side of veal and head, at 2½d. p. pound. For 3 shell ducks and 2 widgions. For dish fifsh. For 2 turkeys.	£	18 8 8 2	d. 10 0 9 10 6

For 8 geese For 200 hundr. oysters For a curlow Jan. 1st. For a turkey. For 6 pell. buter For eggs Paid for hire of a large tray Paid for looking after ye bacon. 4th. For 2 ducks and a teal. 6th. For a dish fish For mustard seed. For 4 pullets 8th. For 2 teal.		2. 16 4 22 21 12 16 22 4	9 6 6 0 0 11 3 0
Christmas boxes, 1711.	£4	16	0
Recd. 16 06.			
December 26th. Watchman, waits, turncock, and brewer's men, each	er's	2	0
man, the post, gardner's man, and clerk, each		1	6
Butcher's man, sadler's man, tayler's boys, locksmith's men, frier's man, foreign postman, and Mr. Gover's son, each	ar-	1	0
	•	14	_
Washing a suite of night-cloas and ruffles Washing two heads, 6d.; one sheet of pines, 4d. Quarter and \(\frac{1}{2}\) of holand for 2 pr. of mittins 3 yards \(\frac{1}{2}\) of riben, 2d., to bind ym. Washing a suite of night cloas. 2 yds. \(\frac{1}{2}\) ell of scarlet edging, 6 yd. for her workt A black silk apron 4/6; sawing silk, 2d. \(\frac{1}{2}\) of an ounce of thred, 2\(\frac{1}{2}\) needles, 2d. Washing and dresing her best lacet head and ruffles 2 yds. \(\frac{1}{2}\) of white riben, 13d. yd. A black and white fann, 14d.; a paper of patches. \(\frac{1}{2}\) ell of black riben, 3 powder 4 yds. of yelow riben, 2d. yd.; 3 nailes of broad \(\frac{1}{2}\). 3 halfe sheets of pines Washing and dresing a plane head and ruffles. 5 nailes of stript cambrick 10d. yd. Making, starching, and dress, her night cloas. Making and starching her rufles, 6d.; tape, 1d. 2 yds. of black and white riben, 17d. yd. Making one shift, one apron, and 3 tuckers yd. \(\frac{1}{2}\) of muslin in an apron 4/6 yd. \(\frac{1}{2}\) and \(\frac{1}{2}\) of spotted cambrick for single rufles 5 nailes of plane muslin for tuckers, and one pr. of rufles. Holand tape for shifts, tuckers, and apron Washing and dresing 2 heads, 12d.; washing a suite of nitcloas, 3d. Washing and dresing 2 heads, 12d.; washing a suite of nitcloas, 3d.	0 0 0 0	0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	10 80 33 84 10 85 10 81 47 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10
Washing and dresing a head and 4 pr. of rufles Washing 2 suites of night-cloas ‡ a sheet of pines 3d.; washing and dresing a head, 6d. Washing a suite of night-cloas, 3d.; and ‡ pd. of powder. Washing and dresing yr. best head and rufles Washing and dresing a plane head, 6d.; one sheet of pines, 6d. Washing her 2-stript night-cloas and ruffles. Washing 2 suites of plane night-cloas, 6d.; thred 2½		1	6 9 5 0 6 8 1

The following "mem'm" may interest the merchants of Boston, showing as it does the kinds of goods most in demand 168 years ago. The statement that "goods well bt, in London will fetch 140 to 150 p. c. advance" will cause regret that "ye good old times" have passed away :

Hem'm of the most staple goods in general at Boston, in New Engl'd, we 4th 8ber, 1706.

Double damasks, mock, do., but few, if any, toyes, and all other fashionable stuffs for women's wear.

Rossel damasks, sort'd, viz, a few with red and white flowers, most of blue and

white, and a few grave, modest coulers.

Elack crapes, wch. cost abt. 40 or 45 apce.; most of the former.

Shalloones, sorted, viz. blue, red, and lemo. colr., pretty fine, and other graver, fashional coulors, and some black.

Cressed serges, wch. cost abt. 35/apce., first cost.

Duffils of a good steel blue, and no other coulors. Flannels sorted, viz, some yellow, some blue and red, most white, and some of them must be fine, from 13 to 18 per yard, first cost.

Welch and Kendal cottons, blue, red, and a few white.

Some druggets of grave coulors.

Some sad could. serges, mixt. wth. blue and white, of 11 yd. wide.

Low-prised cloths, of a drab coulr., from 5/ to 8/ cost; most of the former. Wide britches-ticking, with five, narrow, bright-blue stripes,; narrow, ditto. English and Dutch checks, few of them high prised. Stroud waters, blue and red; most of the former; costs 2/6 or 3/pr. yd.

A course sort of calicoes, abt. \(\frac{1}{2} \) ell wide, flowd. with red and white flowers, and some with the same flowers of 1\(\frac{1}{4} \) or yard wide.

Ozenbrigg's white and browne. Plain muslins of different finenesses, shaded, of 11 yard wide.

Shear muslins, fit for headdresses and neckcloths.

Striped muslins, a few.

Low prised hollands to sell here for abt. 3 to 5 an ell.

Hambro dowlass of different finenesses.

A sortable parcel of pinns packt. up by themselves in barrls. or trunks.

Gold and silver thread and twist.

Silke gloves, bla. and could.

Bla. silke gauze. Silke and thread laces.

Mohair coate and breast buttons; halfe of the latter, and of each some black.

Bread and narrow gartering.
Bread and narrow alamode is still much wanted; ye last sold was at 12/per ell. Ordinary writeing-paper costs about 5/or 6/a reame.

A sortmt. of fashonable flowd. silkes, from 4/ to 6/6, or 2/a yard cost, will sell well

all ye summer, with some good bla. flowd. silke amongs it.
A parcel of the best and largt wool-cards, halfe thicks, blue, red, and sad coulors; \$3 of the former.

Hollands duck is worth here £7 to £7 10, more or less, as in goodness. Cordage sorted as pr. memo. 70/per c. here.

Powder is worth here £14 a barrl.

Ambros Crowley's nailes sorted as hereafter mentioned.

Scythes and sickles of the best makers', good goods.

Spanish iron, worth here £40 per pr. tunn.

Swedes, ditto, £34 to £35 per tunn.

Lead, in piggs, £25 pr. tunn.
Lead, in barrs, worth £26 to 27 pr. c.
Shott, sorted, vizt, goose, one-halfe; ye other 1, duck, pigeon, and bird, is now scarce with upwards of £30 pr. tunn.

Grocery-ware, vizt, raisins, solis, new, and in half barrils, £5 10 pr. c. here.

Current and figgs in ye caskes are imported in if possible.

Spice, sorted, vizt, 100 lb. of nutmegs, 25 lb. of cloves, 6 lb. of mace, 5 cwt. of pepper in small casks, worth here now 3 /fper lb.

A parcel of hatts, sorted, vizt, elts and castors, cloth or Carolina hatts.

Note.—What goods have no price affixt to them will fetch here (seing well bt. in Londo.) 140 to 150 p. advance, and more, if any perticulars happen to be extraordminaly wanted when they arryve.

THE ERA OF MACHINERY.

The inventions which distinguished the latter part of the eighteenth century inaugurated a new era in productive industry. The new devices for spinning, already referred to, were used at first in connection with water-power; but it was not long before the steam-engine was brought into requisition to give them increased efficiency and a wider sphere of operation. Once successfully applied to the moving of machinery, this great motor seemed to stimulate the inventive faculties of man to preternatural activity; and one labor-saving device was quickly followed by another, until a great proportion of all manufacturing industry, was

largely performed by the aid of machinery.

This great change in the methods of production—a change which has progressed steadily from the latter part of the last century to the present time—was inaugurated in Great Britain, and it was there that the new system received its earliest and most signal development. Augmenting to a prodigious extent the aggregate product of labor,* it necessarily gave rise to a vast increase in the aggregate wealth of the community; and in this increase the working-classes have undoubtedly shared to a considerable extent, though in a degree not at all comparable to that in which the wealthier classes have been benefited. Indeed, each new application of machinery was a source of temporary inconvenience, or even of severe distress, to the particular class of workmen whose manual labor it superseded.

But the most important bearing of the new methods of production upon the relations between labor and capital and the condition of the working-classes grew out of the necessity which they created for associated industry, and for large establishments, carried on by accumulated capital. Nowhere is this more forcibly illustrated than in the manufacture of textile fabrics, which from time immemorial had been in an eminent degree a household industry. The language of Words-

worth-

"Maids at the wheel, the weaver at his loom, Sat blithe and happy"—

would doubtless have answered almost equally well to describe an ancient Egyptian household in the era of the pyramids, or the occupations of an ordinary Lancashire family in the middle of the eighteenth century. Almost every farm-house and cottage in the manufacturing districts of England had its spinning-wheel,† which furnished in-door occupation for women and children, while the men were engaged in the labors of the field. The invention of the fly-shuttle in 1738 had very much increased the rapidity with which weaving could be done, and the business of spinning was thus stimulated to great activity, the earnings of spinners being unprecedentedly large. While the textile industries were in this condition Hargreaves invented the spinning-jenny,‡ and Arkwright the spinning-frame, sometimes called the water-frame or throstle;§ and a few years later these were followed by a still more elaborate machine,|| in which the operations of both of them were combined. So great was the superiority of the new machines that the old-fashioned

† In many cases several. ‡ About 1764.

; About 1764. § Patented in 1769.

[•] It is calculated in Kennedy's "Rise and Progress of the Cotton Trade" that, as early as 1815, one person, aided by machinery, could produce as much as two hundred cottage spinners could have produced in 1760.

I The "mule," invented by Samuel Crompton in 1775.

wheel was quickly banished from the field of competition, and spinning, as a household industry, was practically at an end. Weaving, however, still held its place, and was even stimulated to extraordinary activity by the rapid increase in the product of yarn which followed the inventions just referred to. In the manufacturing districts of Lancashire, barns and other out-buildings were quickly converted into loom-shops; and when these no longer sufficed to meet the new demand, weavers' cottages, with loom-shops attached, arose on every side. The era, however, was one of rapid change, and ere long the power-loom, worked by water or steam, began to compete with the hand-loom. The wages of weavers, which under the first impulse communicated by the new spinning-machinery had risen to an unusual height and attracted large numbers to the business, gradually sank to a pittance, scarcely sufficient to afford the workpeople the most wretched subsistence.

The triumph of machinery, however, had been only a question of time. In weaving, as in spinning, separate domestic industry was compelled to give place to collective industry in large establishments. The workman who had pursued the even tenor of his way at his own loom, and the housewife who had plied her busy task over the wheel at her own freside, were compelled by the force of irresistible circumstances to take their places along with hundreds of others in "the mill," and to regulate their hours of labor, as well as their meals and their hours of rest, by

the sound of its peremptory bell.

The concentration of capital, which was necessary to the prosecution of manufacturing industry under the new system, was greatly facilitated by the high prices which manufacturers at first obtained for their "Yarn of a quality which in 1815 was sold for three shillings a pound brought in the infancy of the manufacture as high as thirty shillings. The British mulled muslins which, when first manufactured, were eagerly bought up by the rich at \$2.50 a yard, are now offered to the poor—of less durable quality, however—for six cents a yard." So it must have been in many other industries, for the public were accustomed to the prices they had paid for the products of manual labor. and these the manufacturers could readily undersell, while retaining an enormous profit for themselves. It was not till machine-made goods had taken possession of the market that the competition between rival manufacturers brought prices down to a proper level and gave the consamer a reasonable share in the reduced cost of production. In the mean time vast fortunes had been rapidly accumulated, and to the new capital thus made available for manufacturing purposes was added that which enterprises yielding such magnificent pecuniary results attracted from every side. Thus the industrial revolution inaugurated by Watt, in conjunction with Hargreaves, Arkwright, and Crompton, gained added impetus with each year's progress, and with marvelous rapidity produced its transforming effects upon economic and social conditions.

The comprehension of the nature and effects of that revolution will greatly facilitate a correct understanding of the labor question of the present day. Indeed, it is out of that revolution mainly that the labor question in its present form has grown. It has already been remarked that the new methods of production created a necessity "for associated industry and for large establishments carried on by accumulated capital." The full significance of this fact may not at once be apparent, but a little reflection will make it so. By "accumulated capital," as just used, is meant masses of capital vastly in excess of the average posses-

^{*} Autobiography of R. D. Owen, p. 13.

sions of individuals, even in the most prosperous communities—masses so large that the possession of one such mass by any individual implies, as its necessary counterpart, the comparative poverty of scores or even hundreds of others, and their dependence upon the one for employment.

When industry was carried on in small separate establishments, a steady and industrious workman might reasonably hope to accumulate the means of setting up in business for himself. and thus the workman of this year might next year be numbered among the employers. retically this is so still, for it is a common boast in our own country, at least, that the avenues to wealth and the honors of official life are open Circumstances, however, are sometimes stronger than the laws, and inexorably deny what the laws very freely permit. It is quite evident that the number of industries which may be prosecuted by separate individuals on a small scale, and which may be started with such an amount of capital as a working-man can save out of his wages, is now comparatively small, and that it is steadily diminishing as the sphere of machinery extends. One may still see the shoemaker's shop. with its modest array of tools and its little stock of leather, representing a total capital of a few hundred dollars, or even less; but the sphere of such shops is now comparatively limited, and the proportion of boots and shoes made by machinery in large factories is increasing year by In like manner one may still see the shop of the blacksmith, the wheelwright, the carpenter, and the cabinet-maker; but in all of these and in other trades, the amount of work executed in large establishments by the aid of machinery is immense, and is constantly augmenting.

It is hardly necessary to say that this is not referred to as a thing to be regretted. The vast increase in man's productive powers which machinery has brought with it is an incalculable blessing; it would not be wise, however, to close our eyes to the incidental evils-temporary in their character, it is to be hoped—by which this blessing is accompanied. The alarmists who imagined that machinery, by doing the work which had been done by human hands, would leave the hands without employment were not long in learning from experience and observation how groundless were their fears. What machinery has done is not, if we except occasional temporary consequences of its introduction, to deprive men of employment, but to change the conditions under which they work. Except in the co-operative enterprises, which within a few years past have been successfully carried out, its effect has been to divide all that large portion of society employed in connection with it into two distinct and, in respect to their circumstances, widely separated classes. the one consisting mainly of a few very rich employers, the other embracing a multitude of employés, who, if not absolutely very poor, are at least extremely poor in comparison with the members of the other

This wide contrast of conditions is probably one of the causes of the discontent of the working-classes; but the principal cause, both of this discontent and of their aggressive attitude toward capital, is to be found in the fact that to the great mass these conditions appear to be practically permanent. The journeyman mechanic who could see a prospect that within ten years he might himself become the owner of a shop was not disposed to feel or act unkindly toward a class of which he hoped so soon to become a member, viz, toward the employers; but to the operative the possession of a factory is a thing so remote from probability that it scarcely enters into his wildest dreams of future success. So it is in all the industries carried on in those great establish.

ments, against which the competition of little shops, in any extended sphere, is each year becoming more difficult.

It is thus that machine labor has imparted to the great body of the working-people the cohesion and the common sentiments of a permanent class apart from the class of employers. But while it has thus furnished the occasion for their combination in defense of their common interests, it has at the same time contributed in another way to render that combination powerful and efficient. By creating gregarious industry and greatly extending the sphere of urban life, it afforded to the working-classes enlarged opportunities for mutual intercourse, and thus gave rise to an unwonted degree of intellectual activity. The result has been a marked increase in popular intelligence and a corresponding improvement in the methods and purposes of combination among workingmen. The breaking of machinery and the "ratting" of workmen not connected with trades-unions are now happily becoming comparatively rare, and mutual benefit, such as relief out of society funds in sickness or old age, together with co-operation, is attracting an increasing share of the attention of the working-class. There is reason to hope that the last-mentioned form of combination may yet afford the means of reconciling machinery and associated labor with that personal independence which they at first seemed likely to place quite beyond the reach of the mass of workingmen. By the union of many small sums. associations of workmen may succeed in forming out of their own earnings those aggregations of capital which are necessary to the prosecution of industry with the aid of the best modern appliances. If they can do this and also supply out of their own ranks efficient oversight and business management, the great capitalist, towering among his operatives like a mountain among hillocks, will cease to be an industrial

But the consideration of this subject, co-operation, as well as of tradesunions and strikes, must be postponed until something has been said of the more immediate effects of the factory system during the earlier period of its development, and of the public questions and legislative measures to which those effects gave rise. Upon these points the Duke of Argyle, in Chapter VII of his "Reign of Law," presents some highlyinteresting facts and reflections. After observing that the factory system began under the old motive-power of water before the steam-engine was made available, he continues as follows:

Very soon the course of every mountain stream in Laucashire and Yorkshire was marked by factories. This again had another consequence. It was a necessity of the case that such factories must, generally, be situated at a distance from pre-existing populations, and, therefore, from a full supply of labor. Consequently they had to create communities for themselves. From this necessity, again, it arose that the earlier mills were worked under a system of apprenticeship. The due attendance of the requisite number of "hands" was secured by engagements which bound the laborer to his work for a definite period.

And now, for the first time, appeared some of the consequences of gregarious labor under the working of natural laws, and under no restrictions from positive institutions. The mill-owners collected, as apprentices, boys and girls, youths and men, and women, of all ages. In very many cases no provision adequate, or even decent, was provided for their accommodation. The hours of labor were excessive. The ceaseless and untiring agency of machines kept no reckoning of the exhaustion of human nerves. The factory system had not been many years in operation when its effects were seen. A whole generation were growing up under conditions of physical degeneracy, of mental ignorance, and of moral corruption. The first public man to bring it under the notice of Parliament with a view to remedy, was, to his immortal honor, a master-manufacture, to whom the new industry had brought wealth, and power, and station. In 1802 the elder Sir Robert Peel was the first to introduce a bill to interfere by law with the natural effects of the unrestricted competition in human labor. It is characteristic of the slow progress of new ideas in the English mind, and of its strong instinct to adopt

no measure which does not stand in some clear relation to pre-existing laws, that Sir Robert Peel's bill was limited strictly to the regulation of the labor of apprentices. Children and young persons who were not apprentices, might be subject to the same evils, but for them no remedy was asked or provided. The notion was, that as apprentices were already under statutory provisions, and were subjects of a legal contract, it was permissible that their hours of labor should be regulated by positive enactment. But the Parliament which was familiar with restrictions on the products of labor, and with restrictions of monopoly on labor itself—which restrictions were for the purpose of securing supposed economic benefits—would not listen to any proposal to regulate "free" labor for the purpose of avoiding even the most frightful moral evils. These evils, however great they might be, were the result of "natural laws," and were incident to the personal freedom of employers and employed. In the case of apprentices, however, it was conceded that restrictions might be tolerated. And so, through this narrow door the first of the factory acts was passed. It is a history which illustrates, in the clearest light, the sense in which human conduct, both individually and collectively is determined by natural law. If Watt's steam-engine had been invented earlier—if mills had not been at first erected away from the centers of population, in order to follow the course of streams—if, consequently, the evils of the factory system had not begun to be observable in the labor of apprentices, there is no saying how much longer those evils might have been allowed to fester without even an assertion of the right to check them. The act of 1802," though useless in every other sense, was invaluable at least in making this assertion.

Meanwhile Watt's great invention had been completed. And now a new cycle of events began. When the perfected steam-engine became applicable to mills, it was no longer always cheaper to erect them in rural districts; on the contrary, it was often cheaper to have them in the towns, near a full supply of labor and a cheap supply of fuel. With this change came the abandonment of the system of apprenticeship. It was now "free" labor which more and more supplied the mills. But this only led to the same evils in an aggravated form. Children and women were especially valuable in the work of mills. There were parts of the machinery which might be fed by almost infant "hands." The earnings of children became an irresistible temptation to the parents. They were sent to the factory at the earliest age, and they worked during the whole hours that the machinery was kept at work. The result of this system was soon apparent. In 1815, thirteen years after he had obtained the act of 1802, Sir Robert Peel came back to Parliament and told them that the former act had become necless; that mills were now generally worked not by water, but by steam; that apprentices had been given up, but that the same exhausting and demoralizing labor from which Parliament had intended to relieve apprentices was the lot of thousands and thousands of the children of the free poor. In the following year, 1816, pressing upon the House of Commons a new measure of restriction, he added that unless the legislature extended to these children the same protection which it had intended to afford to the apprentice class, it had come to this, that the great mechanical inventions which were the glory of the age would be a curse rather than a blessing to the country. These were strong words from a master-manufacturer, but they were not more strong than true.

^{* 42} and 43 George III, cap. 73.

[†]Prominent among those who labored to bring these evils to the attention of Parliament and the country was Robert Owen, himself a wealthy and successful manufacturer, though more widely known at a later period for his extreme opinions on social questions. His son, in his recently published volume entitled "Threading My Way," gives the following account of his observations during a journey which he made with his father through England and Scotland in 1815 for the purpose of collecting evidence touching the condition of children employed in the cotton, woolen, linen, and silk factories of the kingdom:

[&]quot;The facts we collected seemed to me terrible almost beyond belief. Not in exceptional cases, but as a rule, we found children of ten years old worked regularly fourteen hours a day, with but half an hour's interval for the mid-day meal, which was eaten in the factory. In the fine-yarn cotton-mills, (producing from 120 to 300 hanks to the pound,) they were subjected to this labor in a temperature usually exceeding 75°; and in all the cotton-factories they breathed an atmosphere more or less injurious to the lungs because of the dust and minute cotton fibers that pervaded it.

[&]quot;In some cases we found that greed of gain had impelled the mill-owners to still greater extremes of inhumanity, utterly disgraceful, indeed, to a civilized nation. Their mills were run fifteen, and, in exceptional cases, sixteen hours a day, with a single set of hands; and they did not scruple to employ children of both sexes from the age of eight. We actually found a considerable number under that age.

[&]quot;It need not be said that such a system could not be maintained without corporal punishment. Most of the overseers openly carried stout leather thongs, and we frequently saw even the youngest children severely beaten.

Thus began that great debate which in principle may be said to be not ended yet—the debate, how far it is legitimate or wise in positive institutions to interfere for moral ends with the freedom of the individual will. Cobbett denounced the opposition to restrictive measures as a contest of "mammon against merey." No doubt personal interests were strong in the forming of opinion, and some indignation was natural against those who seemed to regard the absolute neglect of a whole generation, and the total abandonment of them to the debasing effects of excessive toil, as nothing compared with the slightest check in the accumulations of the warehouse. But the opposition was not in the main due either to selfishness or indifference. False intellectual conceptions, false views, both of principle and of fact, were its real foundation. Some of the ablest men in Parliament, who were wholly unaffected by any bias of personal interest, declared that nothing would induce them to interfere with the labor which they called "free." Had not the working-classes a right to employ their children as they pleased? Who were better able to judge than fathers and mothers of the capacities of their children? Why interfere for the protection of those who already had the best and most natural of all protections? Such were some of the arguments against interfering with free labor.

Now, in what sense was this labor free? It was free from legal compulsion; that is to say, it was free from that kind of compulsion which arises out of the public will of the whole community, imposed by authority upon the conduct of individuals. But there was another kind of force from which this labor was not free—the force of overpowering motive operating on the will of the laborers themselves. If one parent, more careful than others of the welfare of his children, and moved less exclusively by the desire of gain, withdrew his children at an earlier hour than others from factory-work,

his children were liable to be dismissed and not employed at all."

On the other hand, motives hardly less powerful were in constant operation on the masters. The ceaseless, and increasing, and unrestricted competition among themselves, the eagerness with which human energies rush into new openings for capital, for enterprise, and for skill, made them, as a class, insensible to the frightful evils which were arising from that competition for the means of subsistence, which is the

impelling motive of labor.

Nor were there wanting arguments, founded on the constancy of natural laws, against any attempt on the part of legislative authority to interfere with the "freedom" of individual will. The competition between the possessors of capital was a competition not confined to our own country. It was also an international competition. In Belgium, especially, and in other countries, there was the same rush along the new paths of industry. If the children's hours of labor were curtailed, it would involve of necessity a curtailment also of the adult labor, which would not be available when left alone. This would be a curtailment of the working-time of the whole mill; and this would involve a corresponding reduction of the produce. Outside of certain limits this is not by any means a necessary inference. No similar reduction of produce would arise in foreign mills. In competition with them the margin of profit was already small. The diminution of produce, from restricted labor, would destroy that margin. Capital would be driven to countries where labor was still free from such restrictions, and the result would be more fatal to the interests of the working-classes of the English towns than any of the results arising from the existing hours of work. All these consequences were represented as inevitable. They must arise out of the operation of invariable laws.

"When we expressed surprise that parents should voluntarily condemn their sons and daughters to slavery so intolerable, the explanation seemed to be that many of the fathers were out of work themselves, and so were, in a measure, driven to the sacrific for lack of bread; while others, imbruted by intemperance, saw with indifference an abuse of the infant faculties compared to which the infanticide of China may almost

be termed humane.

"In London my father laid before several members of Parliament the mass of evidence he had collected, and a bill which he had prepared forbidding the employment in factories of child workers under twelve years of age, and fixing the hours they might be employed at ten a day. Finally he obtained from the elder Sir Robert Peel a promise to introduce this humane measure in the House of Commons.

The bill dragged through the house for four sessions, and when passed at last it was in a mutilated and comparatively valueless form."

This was very forcibly explained, both by Sir Robert and by his son, Mr. Peel, in

the debate of February 23, 1818.



[&]quot;We sought out the surgeons who were in the habit of attending these children, soing their names and the facts to which they testified. Their stories haunted my dreams. In some large factories from one-fourth to one-fifth of the children were either cripples or otherwise deformed, or permanently injured by excessive toil, sometimes by brutal abuse. The younger children seldom held out more than three or four years without severe illness, often ending in death.

Such were the arguments, urged in every variety of form and supported by every kind of statistical detail, by which the first factory acts were vehemently opposed. And, indeed, in looking back at the debates of that time we cannot fail to see that the reasoning of those who opposed restriction on free labor met with no adequate reply. Not only were the supporters of restriction hampered by a desire to keep their conclusions within the scope of a very limited measure; not only were they anxious to repudiate consequences which did legitimately follow from their own premises, but they were themselves really ignorant of the fundamental principles which were at issue in the strife. Their conclusions were arrived at through instincts of the heart. The pale faces of little children, stunted and outworn, carried them to their result across every difficulty of argument and in defiance of the alleged opposition of inevitable laws. And yet, if the supporters of the factory acts had only known it, all true abstract argument on the subject was their own. The conclusions to which they pointed were as true in the light of reason as they felt them to be true in the light of conscience.

The debate resulted in the passage of the act of 1819, (59 Geo. III, c. 66,) which, being the first measure restricting the labor of unapprenticed children, was, properly speaking, the first of the factory acts. This act, however, as well as one passed in 1825, remained practically a dead letter for want of adequate enforcing clauses, and it was not until the passage of Lord Ashley's bill in 1833, establishing a stringent system of government inspection, that any progress was made in mitigating the evils which the factory system had developed. Speaking of Manchester in 1832, Sir J. P. K. Shuttleworth says:

The population employed in the cotton factories rises at 5 o'clock in the morning works in the mills from 6 till 8, and returns home for half an hour or forty minutes to breakfast. This meal generally consists of tea or coffee, with a little bread. -The tea is almost always of a bad, and sometimes of a deleterious quality. The operatives return to the mills and workshops until 12 o'clock, when an hour is allowed for dinner. Among those who obtain the lower rate of wages this meal generally consists of boiled potatoes. The mess of potatoes is put into one large dish, melted lard and butter are poured upon them, and a few pieces of fried fat bacon are sometimes mingled with them, and, but seldom, a little meat. Those who obtain better wages add a greater proportion of animal food to this meal at least three times in the week, but the quantity consumed by the laboring population is not great. The family sits around the table, and each rapidly appropriates his portion in a plate, or they will plunge their spoons into the dish, and with an animal eagerness satisfy the cravings of their appetites.

The population nourished on this aliment is crowded into one dense mass in cottages separated by narrow, unpaved and almost pestilential streets, in an atmosphere loaded with smoke, and the exhalations of a large manufacturing city. The operatives are congregated into mills and workshops during twelve hours in the day, in an enervating, heated atmosphere, which is frequently loaded with dust or the filaments of cotton, or impure from constant respiration, or from other causes. They are drudges who watch the movements and assist the operations of a mighty material force, which toils with an energy ever unconscious of fatigue. The state of the streets powerfully affects the health of their inhabitants; sporadic cases of typhus chiefly appear in those which are narrow, ill-ventilated, unpaved, or which contain heaps of refuse of stagnant pools.

The following passages, referring to the same subject, are taken from a small volume on the Progress of the Working-Class, the joint production of Messrs. J. M. Ludlow and Lloyd Jones:

Let it be recollected that the evils of such a state of things pressed no less on the weak woman, the helpless child, than on the man. "From the whole of the evidence laid before us," say the commissioners of 1832, "we find first, that the children employed in all the principal branches of manufacture throughout the kingdom work during the same number of hours as the adults." "In some rare instances," they say elsewhere, "children begin to work in factories at five years old. It is not uncommon to find them there at six. Many are under seven, still more under eight; but the greatest number are under nine. Form sheer fatigue, the poor creatures would go supperless to bed, be unable to take off their clothes at night, or to put them on in the morning. Pains in the limbs, back, loins, and side," say the commissioners, "are frequent. The frequency and severity of the pain uniformly bear a strict relation to the tender age of the child and the severity of the labor. Girls suffer from pain more commonly than boys, and

up to a more advanced age." Again, "The effects of labor during such hours are in a great number of cases permanent deterioration of the physical constitution, the production of disease wholly irremovable, and the partial or entire exclusion (by reason of excessive fatigue) from the means of obtaining adequate education and acquiring

of excessive fatigue) from the means of obtaining adequate education and acquiring useful habits, or of profiting by those means when afforded."

"The deformities produced," says Mr. Robert Baker, one of the inspectors of factories, who, from 1528 to 1832, was, as a medical practitioner in Leeds, professionally engaged in the daily and nightly visitation of several factories, "consisted of in-knee, fat-foot, and curvature of the spine. The first of these deformities was familiarly known in the manufacturing districts as the 'factory leg.' There was scarcely a thoroughfare in any of them where they were not to be seen." Another gentleman whom he quotes, Mr. S. Smith, senior surgeon of the Leeds Infirmary, says: "In 1832 that fravener to receive to pass through a district at pass when the bards were lear I had frequent occasion to pass through a district at noon, when the hands were leaving work for dinner. A large majority of them were pale, thin, emaciated, down-heatted looking creatures, showing no disposition to mirth and cheerfulness. At the proper age the hips were wide but sharp and angular, the shoulders pointed, the head not held up, but a considerable stoop."

That an education worthy of the name was impossible for a population under such conditions, results avowedly from the statements of the commissioners of 1832. Factory-workers were in those early days, for the most part, grossly ignorant. Even the fine spinners, who were the best paid, were only distinguished from the rest by their

extravagant riotousness.

Ignorant themselves, what wonder if they cared little to educate their children, eaw in them too often only instruments for money-making-means of self-indulgence. Hideous instances might be quoted from the blue-books of the driving of mere infants to the mill by their parents, simply that they might live in riotous idleness out of the fruit of their children's earnings. But the first great struggle of the factory-reformers was less for education than for its necessary condition—the relaxation of overtoil for the child—and hence the former subject appears only in a subordinate rank among the grievances detailed in the earlier reports. What, in fact, education must have been in 1832, appears thus best from such documents as the reports of the inspectors of factorice from 1839 to 1843, when overwork was to some extent stopped, and the educational machinery of the factories acts was already in operation. Thus, in 1843, Mr. Leonard Horner was able to report that in an area of eight miles by four, comprising the large borough of Oldham and that of Ashton, for a population of 105,000, there was not, at the date of his then last quarterly report, one public day-school for the children of the humbler ranks.

What were the amusements of the masses thus overworked, ill-fed, ill-housed, left for the most part uneducated? Large numbers of working-people attended fairs and wakes, at the latter of which jumping in sacks, climbing greased poles, grinning through horse-collars for tobacco, hunting pigs with scaped tails, were the choicest diversions. An almost general unchastity—the proofs of which are as abundant as they would be painful to adduce—prevailed among the women employed in factories, and generally throughout the lowest ranks of the working population. But drink was the main spring of enjoyment. When Saturday evening came, indulgences begon, which continued till Sunday evening. Fiddles were to be heard on all sides, and limp-looking men and pale-faced women througed the public houses, and reeled and jigged till they were turned, drunk, and riotous, into the streets at most unseasonable hours. On the Sunday morning the public houses were again thronged, that the thirst following the indulgence of the night might be quenched. When church hour approached, however, the church-wardens, with long staves tipped with silver, sallied forth, and, when possible, seized all the drunken and unkempt upon whom they could lay their bands, and these, being carefully lodged in a pew provided for them, were left there to enjoy the sermon, while their captors usually adjourned to some tavern near at hand for the purpose of rewarding themselves with a glass or two for the important services they had rendered to morality and religion. In fact, sullen, silent work, alternated with noisy, drunken riot, and Easter and Whitsuntide debauches, with an occasional outbreak during some favorite "wakes," rounded the whole life of the factory worker.

The ordinary artisan of the workshop at the same period is described as a far different man, having had more education in childhood, and more time for study after commencing a trade. Still, he was apt to be intemperate, and in the highest-priced trades many men only began their week on a Thursday. Nevertheless, there were many good influences to be found in the workshop. "There were grave men, who employed their leisure hours in reading or study; entomologists, florists,

botanists, students in chemistry and astronomy: men there were—politicians, dabblers in theology-who, when work was not actively on foot. kept the conversation among their fellows from sinking into inanity or vice, or who discouraged such practical joking as was mischievous or painful. But these men were exceptional, and sometimes, notwithstanding their studies, they were as fond of a glass as their most graceless neighbors."

"Moreover, as invention after invention brought new trades into the factory system, as the war of competition raged fiercer and fiercer, the numbers of these outlying trades were becoming always fewer and weaker in the midst of the swelling mass of factory workers: and if the strenuous efforts of many of them tended to pull that mass up, its weight

was, in turn, always tending to drag them down."

But with the reform acts of 1832, and Lord Ashley's measure in regard to factories in 1833, there commenced an era of improvement. It would be interesting to trace the history of British legislation, in regard to labor and the laboring class, from that time to the present, but this would be too long a task. The following passage, however, from the work of Messrs Ludlow & Jones, already cited, will serve, without specifying particular laws or the dates of their passage, to give a good idea of the aggregate of legislative work in the interest of the class under consideration which was accomplished by the British Parliament between the years 1832 and 1867:

The reform acts of 1832 found the factory workers, under twenty-one, in the cotton trade, only protected from night-work between 8.30 p. m. and 5.30 a. m.; those under eighteen restricted to twelve hours' labor, or nine on Saturdays; children under nine forbidden to be employed. Eighteen hundred and sixty-seven sees the workers in all the leading branches of our textile industry, cotton, woolen, worsted, hemp, flax, tow, linen, silk, when worked under steam power, enjoying the reduced hours of ten and a half a day, with a Saturday half-holiday after 2 p. m. If children are allowed to work at eight years of age, provision is made for their education. Various other branches of industry, such as print-works, bleach and dra works, and leas factories. branches of industry, such as print-works, bleach and dye works, and lace factories, and processes connected with the protected manufactures, have been brought, with slight variations of detail, into the system; and finally, though by a measure which has not yet had time to produce any effects on a large scale, a number of other manufactures and employments; whilst an efficient system of inspection has been instituted to see the system carried out.

The reform acts of 1832 found our mines and collieries worked, in great measure, by women and children—those degraded, those crushed by the labor. Eighteen hundred and sixty-seven sees female underground labor absolutely prohibited, as well as boy labor unless educated, in coal or connected iron-stone mines, under ten; otherwise, both in these and in all other mines, under twelve; whilst here also a system of inspection is at work, powerfully aided by the independent action of the workers themselves.

To say nothing of chimney-sweeps and bakers, the reform acts of 1832 found our sailors almost without protection in purse, health, or safety. Eighteen hundred and sixty-seven finds a vast code in existence which endeavors to secure all three; and although palpably insufficient in many respects, (especially through the exclusion of the coasting trade from various of its provisions,) shows at least a vast advance in public

consideration for the merchant seamen.

The legislation in force in 1832, allowed the working classes no banking facilities except through the pawnbroker or the private savings-bank, no legalized field of associative self-help but the friendly society; to which all federative expansion was denied. Eighteen hundred and sixty-seven finds the savings-bank system more efficient in itself, yet largely supplemented by the post-office savings-bank, which stakes the credit of the state on the safety of the poor man's deposit; finds the loan society, the bandit balling society the industrial or provident society recognized and regulated benefit building society, the industrial or provident society, recognized and regulated by law, the large friendly societies with branches or harmless oaths or tests brought within its pale, the trade society struggling for recognition, and last, not least, the association of the worker to profits allowed without the risks of partnership.

In 1832, sanitary science, as distinct from curative medicine, may be said to have been unknown, and the only protection to life against other than personally injurious action, to have lain in the common law of nuisance, and the building acts of the metropolis, and of a few large towns; 1867 sees abroad a very flood of sanitary legislation. In every place large enough to maintain a local board, the right to pure air, pure

water, safe and wholesome dwellings, sweet and well-ordered streets, and public spaces, is, in fact, recognized by law. Many special facilities and provisions have been enacted for the construction of dwellings for the poor classes, and providing

them with open spaces for recreation.

In 1832, the right of the English citizen, as such, to education, was wholly ignored, By 1867, nearly £700,000 a year is spent by the state in furthering the education of the classes able to contribute somewhat themselves for the purpose, who frequent our National British, and other assisted schools; whilst district schools for the pauper child, certified industrial schools for the vagrant and disorderly, reformatory schools for the criminal, tend alike to convert the useless or the burdensome into useful members of society. The Mechanics' Institute of the earlier period has been able to develop itself and to obtain some legal protection. Legal facilities have been given for the establishment of free libraries, museums, and schools of art. The inventive powers of the working-class have been stimulated by the copyright of designs acts, by an amended patent-act, by the protection given to articles exhibited at industrial exhi-

Eighteen hundred and thirty-two knew only a newspaper-press shackled in a hunand the ways, operating under the constant terror of the common informer, weighed down by stamp-duties, advertisement-duties, and paper-duties. Eighteen hundred and sixty-seven sees that press absolutely free from all imports, the stamp only remaining as the price of an optional privilege. Notwithstanding the initiation of commercial reform by Huskisson, the reform acts of 1832 left the whole trade of the country and the industry of the workingman doubly fettered by a mischievous fiscal system which enhanced at once the cost of consumption and of production, taxed safety, cleanliness, providence, light; whilst leaving the income of the rich untouched. Eighteen hundred and sixty-seven sees every necessary of life, every element of production, either free or subject to moderate duties; the window-tax gone, with the soap, brick, and timber duties; the duty on fire insurance greatly reduced; property and incomes directly charged to the state.

In 1832, the post-office was a burden on communication; it is now the most bene-

ficent civil institution in the country.

In 1832 the association of capital, except by special privilege, did not, so to speak, exist. In 1867 almost every form of commercial association is practicable, under the joint-stock companies acts. Limited liability has enabled the working-class to contribute their small capital to the increase of the productive power of the country, and, by a late act, has practically been extended from the company to private establishments. In 1832 the stamp duties threw the ordinary legal transactions of the workingman, the expenses of justice, the enforcement of his legal claims, practically out of the pale of the law. The reduction of the former on the one hand, the establishment (or rather revival) of the county court on the other, have, by 1867, brought both within it. The compensation for accidents act has created a new civil right of especial importance to his class

In 1832 the poor laws were pauperizing and degrading the whole country. In 1867, although the right to live is more fully than ever recognized, the growth of pauperism has at least been stopped, if the evil plant remains far still from being uprooted.

The above extract contains a general outline of British legislation in the interest of the working classes from 1832 to the beginning of 1867. The laws affecting workingmen and their relations to their employers, which have been enacted since the latter date, may be noticed in somewhat greater detail. That which first claims attention is the measure known as the "factory atcs extension act of 1867," which bears date August 15 of that year. This act extends the operation of the factory acts to several large and important industries not previously included within their scope. It provides that, in addition to the establishments defined as factories in previous acts, the meaning of that word shall be so extended as to include blast-furnaces, copper-mills, iron-mills, founderies, and also the following:

1. Any premises in which steam, water, or other mechanical power is used for moving machinery employed-

a. In the manufacture of machinery;

 b. In the manufacture of any article of metal, not being machinery;
 c. In the manufacture of India rubber or gutta-percha, or of articles made wholly or in part of either of these substances;

2. Any premises in which is carried on the manufacture of glass, paper, or tobacco, book or letter-press printing; and,

3. Any premises, whether adjoining or separate, in the same occupation, situate in the same city, town, parish, or place, and constituting one trade-establishment, in which fifty or more persons are employed in any manufacturing process.

Under the provisions of this act no child, young person, or woman may be employed in or about any factory on Sunday, subject to modifications as regards blast-furnaces. No boy under twelve years of age and no female may be employed in any part of a glass-factory in which the process of melting or annealing glass is carried on. No child under eleven years of age may be employed in grinding in the metal trades. the manufacture of glass no child, young person, or woman may be allowed to take his or her meals in any part of the factory where the materials are mixed, or (in the manufacture of flint glass) where the work of grinding, cutting, or polishing is carried on. The owner of an establishment may be required to provide a fan or other apparatus to ventilate his building and free it from dust, the inhalation of which would be injurious to the work-people. 'He is also required to put in proper condition any grindstone worked by steam or other mechanical power, which is so faultily fixed as to be likely to cause bodily injury to the grinder using the same, and a failure to comply with this requirement subjects him to the same penalties incurred by a failure to properly fence machinery under the factory act of 1844.

Her Majesty's principal secretaries of state are empowered to modify certain of the provisions of this act with regard to the necessities of par-

ticular trades.

Another act of the same date (August 15, 1867) authorizes Her Majesty, or one of her principal secretaries of state, to grant licenses for councils of conciliation or arbitration for the adjustment of differences between masters and workmen, when petitioned so to do by a certain number of the masters and workmen in any particular trade in any borough or place. Such councils must consist of a chairman and not less than two nor more than ten masters and workmen, to be elected by the masters and workmen respectively of the trade for which the council may be constituted. Such councils are empowered to settle disputes which otherwise would involve prosecutions and proceedings in court or before the magistrates, but not to fix rates of wages or hours of work.

The "agricultural gang's act" of August 20, 1867, was designed to remedy or mitigate certain well-known abuses connected with the hiring of women, young persons, and children, by contractors called "gangmasters," to be employed in agricultural work on lands not owned or occupied by the employer. It came into force on January 1, 1868, and applies to England only.

Under its provisions no child under eight years of age may be employed in an agricultural gang, females may not be employed in the same gang with males; nor may any female be employed under a male gangmaster, unless a female licensed to act as "gang-master" is present with

the gang.

No person is allowed to act as a gang-master unless he has obtained a license granted by two or more justices in divisional petty sessions on due proof that he is a person of good character and fit to be intrusted with the management of an agricultural gang. No license may be granted to any person who is licensed to sell beer, spirits, or any other excisable liquor.

The penalties under this act consist of fines and withdrawal of license,

and all such penalties may be recovered summarily.

The "workshop regulation act" of August 21, 1867, came into opera-

tion on January 1, 1868, and applies to the whole of the United King. dom. It forbids the employment of any child under eight years old "in any handicraft," which word it defines as meaning "any manual labor, exercised by way of trade, or for purposes of gain, in or incidental to the making any article or part of an article, or * * the altering, repairing, ornamenting, finishing, or otherwise adapting for sale, any article." It does not permit the employment of any child (person under thirteen years of age) in any handicraft more than six and a half hours in any one day, which hours must be between 6 a. m. and 8 p. m. No voung person (person between thirteen and eighteen years of age) or woman (female of eighteen years or upward*) may be employed in any handicraft during any period of twenty-four hours more than twelve hours. out of which not less than one and a half hours must be allowed for meals. and the employment must take place between 5 a.m. and 9 p.m. child, young person, or woman may be employed in any handicraft on Sunday, or after 2 p. m. on Saturday, except in establishments where not more than five persons are employed in making articles to be sold by retail on the premises, or in repairing articles of a like nature to those so sold.

No child under eleven years of age may be employed in grinding in

the metal trades or in fustian cutting.

The willful infraction of the above provisions subjects an employer to a penalty not to exceed three pounds, and the parent or person deriving any direct benefit from the labor of the person employed to a penalty

not to exceed twenty shillings.

In every workshop where grinding or other process is carried on, whereby dust is generated and inhaled by the workmen to an injurious extent, the local authority or the inspector of factories may require the owner of the workshop to provide, within a reasonable time, a fan or such other mechanical appliance as may, from time to time, be approved by one of Her Majesty's principal secretaries of state, for the purpose of mitigating the evil mentioned.

The enforcement of the above provisions is intrusted mainly to the local authorities, it being left to the option of the inspectors of factories

whether or not to visit and inspect any workshop.

Every child employed in a workshop must attend a school, having a properly-qualified teacher, at least ten hours in each week that he is so employed, and no time spent at school on Sundays, or before 8 a. m., or after 6 p. m., or in excess of three hours at any one time or of five hours in any one day, may be counted as a part of the ten hours de-

manded by the act.

In connection with the legislation of 1867, "the masters and servants' act" of that year, requires notice, as one which has caused much dissatisfaction among workingmen, whose principal objection to it is founded on the fourteenth section of the law, which makes breach of contract on the part of the workman a criminal act, whereas on the part of the employer it is only an offense against civil law. In presenting this matter to the consideration of the home secretary in November, 1873, Mr. George Howell, secretary of the Trades-Union Parliamentary Committee, referred to the provision in question as follows:

This is quite an exception in the law of contract, and does not apply to contracts of any other description. Whatever interest may be involved in any other breach of contract, it is not dealt with criminally; but, under this law, if a man commits a breach of contract, and the magistrate thinks there are some aggravating circumstances con-

[•] The definitions of "child," "young person," and "woman," are those adopted in this particular act.



meeted with it, this man is liable at any moment to be dragged off to prison as a common felon for absenting himself from work. * * The impossibility of applying the master and servants' act to breaches of contract committed by employers leads me to say, that, although this act was designed to be perfectly fair to both sides in its operation, it is not so, because it is impossible to prosecute employers. We admit that the act has had most beneficial results, and that the number of cases has diminished enormously since its enactment, for which we feel sincerely thankful; but we still think that the provision to which we object is not in accordance with the spirit of modern legislation, and that, if such a provision was ever necessary, it was only necessary when the people were less educated than they are now. If the law of contract be allowed to rest on its own basis, as a matter of equity between man and man, it may be trusted to accomplish all the purposes which justice requires.

An act "to provide better dwellings for artisans and laborers," which bears date July 31, 1868, was designed "to make provision for taking down or improving dwellings occupied by workingmen and their families which are unfit for human habitation, and for the building and maintenance of better dwellings for such persons." It provides for the official inspection of such dwellings, and contains provisions to compel the owners of buildings so occupied to comply with its requirements.

The "wages attachment abolition act" of 1870 (July 14) provides that after its passage no order for the attachment of the wages of any servant, laborer, or workman shall be made by the judge of any court of record or inferior court.

A similar act "to limit wages arrestment in Scotland" is dated August 9, 1870. It provides that from and after January 1, 1871, the wages of all laborers, farm servants, manufacturers, artificers, and work-people shall cease to be liable to arrestment for debts contracted subsequent to the passage of the act, unless such wages exceed twenty shillings per week, when the surplus over that amount may be arrested, but if the costs of such arrestment exceed the amount recovered they

are not to be charged against the debtor.

The "factory and workshop act" of August 9, 1870, extends the definition of "factory" as enacted in the act of August 15, 1867, so as to make it include print-works, i. e., works in which figures, patterns, or designs are printed upon any woven or felted fabric, (not being paper,) and bleaching and dyeing works, or "any premises, whether in the open air or not, in which the processes of bleaching, beetling, dyeing, calendering, finishing, hooking, lapping, and making up and packing any yarn or cloth of any material, or the dressing or finishing of lace, or any one or more of such processes, or any process incidental thereto, is carried on." To all such establishments the regulations of the act of August 15, 1867, in respect to factories as there defined, with certain modifications appended in a schedule, are extended.

An act dated May 25, 1871, exempts persons professing the Jewish religion from penalties incurred in respect of young persons and females professing the said religion working on Sundays, provided that the establishments in which such employment takes place are closed on

Saturday up to sunset.

The trades-union act of June 29, 1871, provides that the purposes of any trades-union shall not, merely because they are in restraint of trade, be deemed to be unlawful, so as to render any member of such trades-union liable to criminal prosecution for conspiracy or otherwise, or to render void or voidable any agreement or trust. But nothing in this act shall enable any court to entertain any legal proceeding instituted with the object of directly enforcing or recovering damages for the breach of any of the following agreements:

1. Any agreement between the members of such union as to the conditions on which any members of such union shall or shall not sell their goods, transact business, employ, or be employed;

- 2. Any agreement for the payment by any person of any subscription or penalty to a trades-union:
 - 3. Any agreement for the application of the funds of a trade-union-

a. To provide benefits to members, or

b. To furnish contributions to any employé or workman not a member of such trades-union, in consideration of such employé or workman acting in conformity with the rules or resolutions of such trades-union, or

c. To discharge any fine imposed upon any person by sentence of a court of jus-

tice; or

4. Any agreement made between one trades-union and another; or

5. Any bond to secure the performance of any of the above agreements. But none of the above agreements are to be deemed unlawful.

The act further makes provision for the registry of trades-unions, authorizes such unions to purchase or lease buildings and land, not to exceed one acre, (and for the purposes of this section makes every branch of a trades-union a distinct union;) vests the property of each union in its trustees, whom it makes responsible for moneys actually received on account of such union, and no further; prescribes the responsibility of the treasurer, and his punishment for withholding from the union money which he holds in trust for it; provides regulations for registry, and requires each union to place a copy of its rules and of any alterations in or amendments to the same in the hands of the registrar; requires each union to submit to the registrar an annual statement of its accounts, including the several objects of expenditure and the amount for each; applies the summary jurisdiction acts to all offenses committed under it, but under certain prescribed regulations allows an appeal to quarter sessions; provides that no interested person shall act as a member of a court of appeal, and defines the term "trades union" as meaning such combination, whether temporary or permanent, for regulating the relations between workmen and masters, or between workmen and workmen, or between masters and masters, or for imposing restrictive

The act in question also repeals the trades-unions' funds acts of 1869. Another act, bearing the same date as the last, (June 29, 1871,) and known as "the criminal law amendment act," has been, and still is, a source of much dissatisfaction and bitter complaint on the part of the working-classes of the United Kingdom. This act makes it an offense punishable with imprisonment, with or without hard labor, for not ex-

conditions on the conduct of any trade or business, as would, if this act had not been passed, have been deemed an unlawful combination by reason of some one or more of its purposes being in restraint of trade.

ceeding three months, to do any one of the following acts:

(1) To use violence to any person or any property.
(2) To threaten or intimidate any person in such a manner as would justify a justice of the peace in binding over the person so threatening or intimidating to keep the

(3) To molest or obstruct any person in the manner defined by this section, with a

view to coerce such person-

(1) Being a master, to dismiss or cease to employ any workman; or, being a work-

man, to quit any employment, or to return work before it is finished; (2) Being a master, not to offer, or, being a workman, not to accept, any employ-

ment or work;

- (3) Being a master or workman, to belong to any temporary or permanent association or combination;
- (4) Being a master or workman, to pay any fine or penalty imposed by any temporary or permanent association or combination;

(5) Being a master, to alter the mode of carrying on his business, or the number or description of any persons employed by him.

For the purposes of this act a person is deemed to molest or obstruct another person in any of the following cases:

(1) If he persistently follow such person about from place to place. (2) If he hide any tools, clothes, or other property owned or used by such person,

deprive him of, or hinder him in, the use thereof.

(3) If he watch or beset the house or other place where such person resides, or works, or carries on business, or happens to be, or the approach to such house or place; or if, with two or more persons, he follow such person in a disorderly manner in or through any street or road.

It is provided that no one shall be punished for doing or conspiring to do any act merely on the ground that such act restrains or tends to

restrain the free course of trade.

Offenses committed under this act are to be prosecuted under the summary-jurisdiction acts, appeals being allowed under certain defined conditions.

In an interview with the home secretary, in November, 1873, Mr. Howell referred to the criminal law amendment act. as follows:

We ask that the entire act may be repealed. It has caused heart-burnings on the part of the workmen such as no other law has. " " Wo feel, moreover, that none of the prosecutions under that act can justify its continuance. Most of them have been unjust and the punishments have been much more severe than the act itself warranted. We feel that if it be necessary really to provide some remedy against particular offenses, for instance, "rattening," this can be provided for in another act dealing with "malicious injury to property," and applying to the whole country; and violence to the person can also be provided against in another act dealing with "offenses against the person." The criminal law amendment act being a special act directed against workingmen in unions, we feel that we have a right to ask the government to remove it. Even if it were just in its principles, it is so intricate and involved, and has been so variously interpreted, that none of us are safe.

An act dated August 16, 1871, and entitled "The industrial and provident societies act amendment," is designed to facilitate the erection of houses, cottages, or other buildings on land held by such societies, and gives them certain new powers to build, sell, lease, mort-

gage, &c.

The "factory and workshop act" of August 21, 1871, takes the duty of enforcing the workshop acts of 1867 to 1871 from the local authorities. and imposes it upon the inspectors and subinspectors of factories. forbids the employment after January 1, 1872, of any female under sixteen years of age, or any child under ten years, in the manufacture of bricks and tiles, (other than ornamental tiles.) It requires that any accident causing loss of life to any one employed in a factory, and any accident produced by machinery, or by explosion, or escape of gas, or steam, or metal, if of such a nature as to prevent the person or persons injured by it from returning to their work in the factory within forty-eight hours after its occurrence, shall be made known to the proper authority. provides that all offenses under the factory acts of 1833 to 1871, inclusive, may be prosecuted and the penalties therefor recovered summarily. certain cases, where the nature of the business carried on in any class of factories or workshops is shown to depend on the weather or the season of the year, and where it is consequently necessary to employ young persons of fourteen years of age and upward and women at certain times of the year for a longer period than is allowed by the factory act's extension acts of 1864 and 1867, or the workshop-regulations act of 1867. one of Her Majesty's principal secretaries of state is authorized to make and publish certain defined exceptions to the provisions of the laws in

The act of August 6, 1872, "to make further provision for arbitration between masters and workmen," authorizes the appointment, by mutual agreement between masters and workmen, of an arbitrator or of arbitrators, and of an umpire to act in cases of disagreement between the arbitrators, for the settlement of disputes between masters and workmen. An agreement under this act is made mutually binding upon the master and the workman, upon the master or his agent giving a printed copy of the agreement to the workman, and the workman accepting the

same; provided that the workman may give notice to the master, within forty-eight hours after receiving a copy of the agreement, that he will not be bound by it; in which case the agreement, as between such

master and such workman, is to be of no effect.

An agreement entered into between a master and a workman is to be binding upon each of them during the continuance of the contract or service in view of which it was made, and so long thereafter as they mutually consent to employ and serve without having rescinded it, or until the expiration of any notice (not to exceed six days) of an intention to cease employing or serving, where such notice has been made a part of the agreement.

The agreement may provide that the parties to it shall, during its continuance, be bound by any rules therein contained, or to be made by the arbitrators, arbitrator, or umpire, as to the rate of wages to be paid, the hours or quantities of work to be performed, or the conditions or regulations under which work is to be done, and may specify penalties to be enforced by the arbitrators, arbitrator, or umpire, for the breach

of any such rule.

The agreement may also provide for referring to the arbitrator, arbitrators, or umpire certain disputes arising out of infractions of law, and upon his or their hearing and determining the same, no other proceeding can be taken before any other court or person for the same matter; but, if the disagreement or dispute is not so heard and determined within twenty-one days from the time when it arose, the jurisdiction of the arbitrators, arbitrator, or umpire ceases, unless the parties have consented in writing, since the disagreement or dispute arose, that it shall be exclusively determined by the arbitrators, &c.

Further provisions of the act relate to the procedure of the arbitrators, the taking of evidence, and the power to compel the attendance of wit-

nesses, &c.

The "coal-mines regulation act" of August 10, 1872, applies to mines of stratified iron-stone, mines of shale, and mines of fire-clay, as well as to coal-mines. It prohibits the employment of any boy under ten years of age, or any woman or girl of any age, underground in such mines. It permits the employment of boys between ten and twelve years of age, when specially allowed by one of Her Majesty's secretaries of state in view of a necessity due to the thinness of the seams, but not for more than six days in a week, and not for more than six hours in a day, if employed more than three days per week; and in any case not more than ten hours in a day.

A boy of twelve years of age, or a "male young person" under the age of sixteen, may not be employed below ground, in any mine to which the act applies, for more than fifty-four hours in any one week, or more

than ten hours in any one day.

Every boy of from ten to twelve years of age, allowed to be employed in mines as mentioned above, is required to attend school for at least twenty hours in every two weeks. Elaborate and stringent provisions are enacted to prevent the violation of this section or any evasion of either the letter or the spirit of the requirement. Thus the school-attendance must not be in the evening, or on Sunday, nor must it exceed three hours at any one time, or five hours in any one day, or twelve in any one week; that is, any time in excess of these periods will not be counted as a part of the twenty hours every two weeks required by the laws. The forging or counterfeiting of a certificate of school-attendance, or the use of a forged or counterfeit certificate, is made punishable with three months' imprisonment, with or without hard labor, and the neglect of

a parent to send his boy to school incurs a penalty not to exceed twenty shillings for each offense. There are other provisions intended to prevent the sending of a boy to an incompetent teacher, one of which is that the government inspector of mines for the district in which the boy is employed may declare a teacher disqualified to issue certificates, subject, however, to an appeal on the part of the teacher to the educa-

tion department.

With respect to the employment of women, young persons, and children above ground in connection with such mines, it is provided that (1) no child under ten years of age shall be so employed, and every child so employed is subject to the regulations (as to hours of labor and school-attendance) mentioned above as applying to boys of from ten to twelve years of age. The regulations with respect to "male young persons" under sixteen years of age are applied to every woman and child employed above ground at the mines, and no woman, young person, or child may be so employed between the hours of 9 at night and 5 the following morning, or on Sunday, or after 2 p. m. on Saturday. The intervals for meals allowed to such persons must not be less than half an hour to each period of employment exceeding five hours, or less than one and one-half hours to every period of employment exceeding eight hours.

As a safeguard against accident, it is provided that the person in charge of any engine or apparatus used in going into or coming out of

the mine shall be a male of at least eighteen years of age.

Wages must not in any case be paid to persons employed in or about a mine at any public house, or other place where spirituous or fermented

liquors are kept for sale.

The act requires that in communication with every seam, with certain defined exceptions, in which persons are employed in mining, there shall be at least two shafts or outlets, separated by natural strata of not less than ten feet in breadth, communicating with each other by a passage at least four feet wide and three feet high, and each provided with proper apparatus for raising or lowering the persons employed in the mine.

Every mine coming under the provisions of this act, with certain specified exceptions, is required to be under the control and daily supervision of a properly qualified manager, (who may be the owner or agent of such mine, but must not be a contracter for getting the mineral in such mine, or a person in the employ of such contractor,) and such manager, though nominated by the owner or agent, must also be provided with a certificate of competency granted by a board of official examiners, and must be registered as having such certificate. A certificate of service, however, showing the requisite past experience in the management of a mine or mines is allowed as an equivalent for a certificate of competency granted under this act. A certificate of either class may be canceled if its holder, upon a proper inquiry, be convicted of incompetence or gross negligence.

Provision is made for the appointment of inspectors of mines, who must be free from certain specified disqualifications calculated to interfere with their disinterestedness, and who shall have the right to enter and inspect any mine to which the act applies, and to see that the act is complied with; and they must also notify the owner, agent, or manager of the mine of any cause of danger not provided against in the rules, but which they may discover in the course of their inspections.

Where the owner, agent, or manager of a mine is unwilling to comply with the requirements of the inspector in regard to a matter not pre-

scribed in the act, the case is to be referred to two arbitrators, one to be selected by the inspector and the other by the owner, agent, or manager of the mine, and neither of them to be interested in the mine to which the arbitration relates. To settle any points of difference that may arise between them, the arbitrators are to select an umpire, whose decision on matters referred to him is to be final, as also is that of the arbitrators on the general case. Every arbitrator must either be a practical mining engineer or a person accustomed to the working of mines.

The act embodies a series of rules in relation to ventilation, the fencing of places (shafts, &c.) not in use, the withdrawal of workmen from the mine in case of danger, the use of safety-lamps and other lights, the employment of gunpowder in blasting, the securing of the shafts, roofs, and sides of a mine, the daily inspection of mines, and various other points touching upon the safety of the persons employed therein. Willful neglect of precautions necessary to safety incurs the penalty of imprisonment. A large part of the act consists of careful provisions, intended to secure its own enforcement and to prevent evasion of its

requirements.

The "metalliferous mines regulation act," bearing the same date as the above, applies to all mines excluded from the operation of that law. Under the provisions of this act no boy under twelve years of age, and no girl or woman of any age, may be employed in any mine below ground. No boy of twelve years of age and under thirteen years, and no young person of from thirteen to sixteen years of age may be employed in a mine below ground for more than fifty-four hours in any one week, or more than ten hours in any one day. An interval of not less than eight hours must be allowed for rest between the period of employment on Friday and the period of employment on the following Saturday, and in other cases the interval between periods of employment must not be less than twelve hours, except in the case of boys and young male persons whose employment is at such a distance from their ordinary place of residence that they do not return there during the intervals of labor. and who are not employed more than forty hours in any week. In such cases an interval of eight hours must be allowed between each period of employment. The period of each employment is deemed to begin at the time of leaving the surface and to end at the time of returning to The regulations in regard to the payment of wages and precautions against accidents have a general similarity to those provided in the "coal-mines regulation act."

The last important act of the series known as "the factory acts" is that of July 30, 1874, entitled "An act to make better provision for improving the health of women, young persons, and children employed in manufactures, and the education of such children, and otherwise to amend the factory acts." This act, which came into operation on the 1st of January, 1875, provides that in every factory to which it applies, the period during which children, young persons, or women may be employed shall be either the period between 6 a. m. and 6 p. m. or the period be-

tween 7 a. m. and 7 p. m.

Where the period between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m. is adopted, a child, young person, or woman shall not be employed except between those hours, and shall not be employed continuously for more than four and a half hours without an interval of at least half an hour for a meal. Between the hours of 6 a.m. and 6 p.m. on every day except Saturday, two hours shall be allowed for meals, of which time at least one hour shall be before 3 p.m. On Saturday, a child, young person, or woman

shall not be employed in any manufacturing process after 1 p. m., or for any purpose whatever after $1\frac{1}{2}$ p. m.; and if, on that day, the time allowed for meals be less than one hour, the time for quitting work shall be half an hour earlier than the hours just named.

The provisions in regard to factories in which the period of employment is from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. are similar to those above, with such changes of time as are necessary in consequence of the difference in the

hours for commencing and quitting work.

In factories to which this act applies, the children may be employed either in morning and afternoon sets, or, on alternate days, for the whole day. When the former plan is adopted, a child who, on any day except Saturday, is employed in the forenoon, shall not be employed after dinner on the same day; nor shall any child be employed on Saturday for two successive weeks, or in any week in which, on any other day, he has been employed more than five hours. Children so employed in factories must attend school, as directed by section 38 of the factory act of 1844.

When children are employed on alternate days, they may be employed during the same hours and with the same hours for meals as young persons and women, but must not be employed on two successive days, and must attend school as provided in section 31 of the factory act of 1844.

After January 1, 1876, in the case of factories to which this act applies, a person of the age of thirteen years and under fourteen years shall be deemed to be a child and not a "young person," unless he has obtained from the proper authorities a certificate of having attained such standard of efficiency in reading, writing, and arithmetic as may from time to time be prescribed. During the year 1875 a child may not be employed in a factory if he is under the age of nine years, and after the expiration of that year he may not be employed if he is under ten years of age. The three last provisions do not apply to persons who may be lawfully employed in factories before the time when they go into effect.

The enactment of the factory act of 1850, or any previous act, which authorized the employment of any child in the silk manufacture during longer hours than those authorized in the case of a child in any other factory to which this act applies, with certain exceptious during the first two years of its operation, are repealed.

Various provisions of a minor character, as well as those details which are intended to secure the enforcement of the act and to guard

against the evasion of its requirements, are omitted.

Another act of the same date as the last, entitled the "hosiery manufacture and wages act," was directed against a custom which had prevailed among employers in the hosiery manufacture of letting out knitting-frames and machinery to the artificers employed by them and the deducting of rents for these frames from the wages of such artificers. The act provides, among other things, that all wages in the hosiery manufacture shall be made payable in net amounts, without any stoppages or deductions whatever, except for bad and disputed workmanship.

Another measure adopted during the same session of Parliament was the "workingmen's dwellings act" of August 7, 1874, which is intended to enable municipal corporations to grant or lease land belonging to them to parties binding themselves to erect thereon dwellings of the class to which the act applies. This act relates only to England

and Wales.

Among the measures for which the British workingmen are now ask-

ing, in addition to the repeal or modification of the two obnoxious laws above named, may be mentioned the amendment of the trades-union and conspiracy acts; the reconstruction of the small-penalties act on the principle that imprisonment should only be used as a means of enforcing payment after all other means have failed; the modification of the law in relation to summary jurisdiction and the qualification of magistrates and jurors respectively, including a reduction in the qualifications of the latter and payment for jury service; an alteration in the law so that workmen or their families may be able to sue employers in event of injury or death from accidents due to negligence; a further extension of the factory and workshop acts, an act to prevent truck, and an act for the protection of seamen's lives by preventing the sending of ill-found and unseaworthy vessels to sea.

TRADES-UNIONS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The legislation of Great Britain for the regulation of factories, mines. and workshops, so far at least as it authorizes or forbids the employment of any person or prescribes the hours during which any person shall labor, has been confined, as has been seen in the foregoing summary, to the protection of "children, young persons, and women." The theory of the legislature has been that adult men were capable of making their own terms with their employers, and that there was, consequently, no occasion for the law to interfere with their agreements, further than to enforce such contracts as workman and employer might voluntarily enter into. Entering, upon these conditions, into the contest with capital, the workmen, in steadily increasing numbers, have sought to gain additional strength by combinations formed among the members of particular trades, and sometimes even by mutual support and assistance among the members of different trades. tions have sometimes been temporary, having been formed for the accomplishment of special purposes, after the attainment of which, or the failure to attain them, they have ceased to exist as associations. But the most common form of combination in recent times, for trade purposes, has been the organization of those permanent societies generally known as trades unions.

Combinations for trade purposes have, indeed, existed in Great Britain and elsewhere in Europe for many centuries; such, for example, as the medieval guilds and trades-companies. These, however, differed very widely from the modern trades-unions, the medieval trades-companies consisting both of employers and workmen, while the guilds were originally formed for the protection of life and property in an age when the state was less successful than at present in the performance of that duty. One of their purposes undoubtedly was to strengthen the urban populations at a time when feudal nobles were accustomed to levy tolls upon commerce and exact heavy contributions from the cities and towns. In the times of the Plantagenets the two great mercantile guilds of London and Bordeaux were co-extensive with their municipal corporations, and were sufficiently powerful to show considerable spirit and independence, even in their dealings with royalty itself. As the guilds increased in power, they became exclusive, and in some cases various classes of workmen were debarred from membership. One regulation required that a workingman should "purge himself by abstinence from work for at least a year and a day before he could enter the sacred chamber of the guild. This sometimes led to the formation of separate associations of tradesmen in one town, which, however, was in some cases followed by a re-union into one guild, such as took place in 1284 at Berwick-on-Tweed.

The medieval trades-companies were composed of small capitalists and workmen, but they had some regulations similar to those of the modern trades-unions. They fixed the relative number of apprentices and iourneymen to be employed by a master, and had rules against working with men who had not regularly learned their trade, as well as against systematic over-time. In some instances they appear to have taken away the tools of members who failed to pay their dues, as a means, perhaps, of coercing them into payment rather than as a pnnishment. Disputes between masters and workmen were settled by the president of the company and its court of assistants. It was one of their rules that any man entering a town and seeking employment in a particular trade, must join the company representing that trade and pay his dues to its funds as a condition of being permitted to work. The fees at first were small, but were raised as the companies increased in power, until admission became very difficult and the companies themselves became oppressive monopolies. The charge for apprenticeship was also raised to a very exorbitant figure. In the twelve great companies of London, (the mercers, grocers, fishmongers, goldsmiths, skinners, merchant tailors, haberdashers, salters, ironmongers, vintners and cloth-workers,) the fee for apprenticeship was successively raised from 10 to 40 and ultimately to 100 pounds, whereas in the early times it was only half a crown. Illegitimate children, and even the sons of peasants, were refused admission as apprentices.

As early as the reign of Edward II, no person could be made a freeman of the city of London unless he belonged to one of the tradescompanies, and in the following reign the court of common council was chosen from the trades and not from the wards of the city, while the Lord Mayor was required to be a member of one of the twelve great companies. To these was transferred the power, which the old guild had formerly possessed, of making or changing trade regulations, and their privileges were confirmed by Edward III, who was himself a member of the company of cloth-workers. In the sixteenth century the members of the trades-companies were divided into three classes: The livery, which included the richer members, the masters, and the free workmen. Their form of government had, by this time, become more aristocratic, the officers being appointed by a committee or court of assistants, instead of being elected in a general assembly of the mem-In short, the trades-companies ceased to be friendly associations between capitalists and workmen, and in the end were controlled by men of considerable wealth, even if they were not composed entirely of that class. By their exorbitant fees for apprenticeship, and their arbitrary restrictions they rendered it difficult, if not impossible for a poor man's son to learn a trade, while by preventing competition they

taxed the public in general for their own benefit.

In English history there are records of a number of coalitions among workingmen for particular purposes, and in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries there were in Germany associations of journeymen formed, apparently for mutual assistance during those years of travel (wanderjähre) which the regulations of the trades-companies required of the young workman on the completion of his apprenticeship; but it was not until the latter part of the eighteenth century that those permanent organizations, now so well known under the name of trades-unions, began to make their appearance. These organizations are, indeed, one of the natural outgrowths of that great revolution in industry which has already been dwelt upon at some length. In an industrial system which was carried on by means of great accumulations of capital on the one hand, and great numbers of laborers without capital on

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the other, and which at the same time collected these laborers into large groups and brought them into constant association with each other, it was almost inevitable that such organizations should spring into existence. To the circumstances just mentioned must be added another which strongly contributed to the progress of association among working people. The new industrial methods had gathered them in vast numbers into the towns where manufactures were established, and where, being unable to cultivate a garden or to keep a cow, a pig, or a few chickens or geese, they were wholly dependent upon employment in their own particular industry; and when, through a collapse of trade, this industry failed to furnish them with work, they were liable to be reduced to a condition of pitiable helplessness and of deep distress. Accordingly many societies were organized for the purpose of mutual assistance and relief, and it was in such friendly purposes that many of the trades unions had their origin. Indeed, mutual relief in sickness, accident, or lack of work, still forms an important feature among the objects to which a majority of the trades-unions are devoted.

Up to 1824, when the coalition act of 1800 was repealed, these associations were illegal, and such as existed were obliged to conduct their proceedings in secrecy. Since that time they have grown very rapidly, although even as late as 1871 the law prohibited them from taking any action calculated to interfere with the free course of trade—such, for instance, as interfering between their members and the employers in regard to rates of wages or hours of labor.

The following list comprises the names of the associations represented in the National Trades Union Congress held at Liverpool in the latter part of January, (January 18 to 23, inclusive,) 1875, with the number of members in each:

Alliance Cabinet-Makers' Association	1,900
Altrincham Trades Council	450
Amalgamated Beamers, Twisters, Drawers' Society, Blackburn	900
Amalgamated Tailors	14,000
Amalgamated Tailors	5,511
Amalgamated Wood-Turners, Sawyers, and Shuttle-Makers	1, 100
Amalgamated Society of Engineers	44,000
Amalgamated Society of Engineers. Amalgamated Council of Woolen Operatives, Yorkshire	430
Amalgamated Association of Cotton-Spinners	14, 200
Amalgamated Association of Miners	45,000
Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants	20,000
Amalgamated Iron and Steel Workers	20,000
Amalgamated Operative Bakers, Liverpool District	400
Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners	13,090
Amalgamated Trades Council of Bury	1, 250
Birmingham Trades Council	9,000
Blackburn Card-Room Operatives' Association	1,200
Bolton Trades Council	2,000
Boiler Makers and Iron-Shipbuilders	15,000
Brick and Tile Makers, North Stafford	150
British Plate-Spoon and Fork-Filers' Society	100
Bury Trades Council	1,250
Chester Trades Council	500
Crewe Trades Council	1,000
Dressers, Dyers, and Finishers	1,764
Dundee United Trades Council	8,000
Durham Colliery Mechanics	2,300
Durham County Colliery Engineers' Association	1.573
East Lancashire Power-Loom Weavers' Amalgamated Association	16,000
East London Operative Society of French Polishers	′ഹഹ
Edge-Tool and Wool-Shear Grinders' Society	250
Edinburgh United Trades Council	10,000
Executive Council Millers' Association	400
Federal Union of Agricultural Laborers	30,000
Filesmithe Union of Sheffield.	3,000
	•

Fire-Iron Workers, Birmingham and District	250
Friendly Conjety of Operative Cobinet Melcare for of Great Britain	1,950
rending Society of Operative Capitale-makers, &c., of Great Diffall	
General Alliance of Operative House Painters	5,000
General Union of Carpenters and Joiners	9,701
General Union of Basket, Skip, and Hamper Makers	700
General Union of Tin-Plate Workers	1, 250
Glass-Bottle Makers, Yorkshire	1,000
Vilas-Dublo Makolo, IVI. Sullo	140,000
Glasgow United Trades Council	140,000
Gravesend and Vicinity Trades Council	200
Hollow-ware Pressers, Potteries Iron-Founders' Society of England, Ireland, and Wales	700
Iron-Founders' Society of England Ireland and Wales	12,075
Kent Agricultural and General Laborers' Union	9,500
Rent Agricultural and Concess Laborets Union	
Leeds and District Trades Council	4,000
Leeds and District Trades Council	
Finishers	1,200
Leicester Trades Council	3, 170
Lincoln Trades Council	500
Lincoln Trides Council	
Liverpool Brick-Makers' Society Liverpool Operative Ship-Painters' Benefit Association	400
Liverpool Operative Ship-Painters' Benefit Association	800
Liverpool No. 2 Branch Operative House-Painters	300
Liverpool and Vicinity United Trades Council	5,760
Liverpool and vicinity United Trades Council	
Liverpool Sail-Makers' Association	408
Liverpool Amalgamated Boot-Makers' Center Men's Men	180
Liverpool United Shipping Trades Council Liverpool Coopers' Friendly Trade and Burial Society	2,610
Liverpool Coopers' Friendly Trade and Burial Society	400
Liverpool Chon Assistantal Trains	620
Liverpool Shop Assistants' Union	
Liverpool Rope-Makers Liverpool Mast and Block Makers	120
Liverpool Mast and Block Makers	152
Liverpool Tin-Plate Workers' Society	210
Liverpool Tin-Plate Workers' Society. London Amalgamated Society of Tin-Plate Workers	500
Loudon Amagumated Society of Tin-Flate Workers	
London Consolidated Bookbinders	830
London Trades Council	13,7 34
Manchester and Salford Trades Council	10,000
Margary Ship, Joinars' Association	500
Mersey Ship-Joiners' Association Mersey Shipwrights' Association	1.020
Mersey Shipwrights Association	
Miners' National Association	140,000
National Agricultural Laborers' Union	60,000
National Amalgamated Union of Operative Boot and Shoe Riveters and Fin-	
ishers	4,000
10HQ10	
National Association of Nut and Bolt Makers	2,000
National Association of Operative Plasterers	3, 300
National Flint-Glass Makers of Great Britain and Ireland	2,000
National Union of Working Women	300
National United Association of Dans and Trains Chinasan of Coast Dates	•
National United Association of Rope and Twine Spinners of Great Britain	
and Ireland	1,600
Nottingham and Neighborhood Association of Organized Trades	3,000
Nottingham Amalgamated Society of Lace-Makers	2,500
North Stafford Engineers' Association	500
Note the language Association	
Oldham Amalgamated Trades Council	3,500
Oldham Operative Cotton-Spinners' Provincial Association	2, 90
Operative Bricklayers' Society. Operative Bricklayers, Sheffield, Manchester Order	3,750
Operative Bricklayers Sheffiold Manchester Order	6, 200
Operative Stone-Masons' Society	
Designated Bloud-masons Society	24,000
Provincial Typographical Association Razor-Blade Grinders, Sheffield	3,800
Razor-Blade Grinders, Sheffield	200
·Rotary Power Framework Kuitters	650
Scissors-Grinders, Sheffield	200
Common Deviced in Contain Tirramon	2. 800
Seamens' Protective Society, Liverpool	
Sheffield File-Grinders	300
Sheffield Trades Council	4,000
Sheffield United Steel-Melters' Association	600
South Yorkshire Colliery Operatives' Association	3. 200
Callabidae Teader Council	
Stalybridge Trades Council	1,200
Steam-Engine Makers' Society	3, 850
Stockport Power-Loom Weavers	2,500
United Kingdom Society of Coach-Makers.	7, 040
United Kingdom General Post-Office and Telegraph-Service Benefit Society	·, 0-81
Oursed Funknom deficust Lost-Omce and Lefektabu-Selvice pencint 2001eth "	
United Journeymen Brass-Founders' Association of Great Britain and Ireland.	1,750
United Journeymen Brass-Founders' Association of Great Britain and Ireland. United Operative Masons' Association of Scotland. Walsall and District Trades Council.	1,750 10,659

Warrington Filesmiths' Union	390
West End London Cabinet-Makers	400
West Surrey District of the Federal Union of Agricultural Laborers	
Wolverhampton Trades Council	1,300

It will be seen that this gives a total of 919,842 members, from which some deductions must be made for duplicate representation.* After making these allowances it will be quite safe to say that the aggregate membership of the trades-unions represented in the congress† did not fall short of 800,000.

AMALGAMATED SOCIETY OF ENGINEERS.

The growth of trades-unionism will, however, be best illustrated and its present position most clearly indicated by presenting statistics of a few of the larger associations. One of the most important and compactly organized of these bodies, though not now the largest in point of numbers, is the "Amalgamated Society of Engineers, Machinists, Millwrights, Smiths, and Pattern-makers," more commonly known, however, as the "Amalgamated Engineers." This great association, numbering at the close of 1874 about 45,000 members, grew out of a "friendly union of mechanics," which was formed in Manchester about the year 1826, or within a short time after the repeal of the coalition act. In its present form, however, it has existed only twenty-four years, or since 1851. Its growth during that period is exhibited by the following table, showing the number of its members, the amount of its accumulated fund, and the average amount per member, at the close of each year, from 1851 to 1873, inclusive:

TABLE I.

	IADLE I.					•	
Year.	Number of members.	Balance on close of			Amo each i		
1851 1852, (June)	11, 829 11, 617 9, 737 10, 757 11, 617 12, 553 13, 405 14, 299 15, 194 17, 790 20, 935 22, 862 24, 234 26, 058 28, 815 30, 984 33, 007 33, 325	£ 21, 705 1, 721 5, 382 17, 812 20, 202 35, 695 43, 207 47, 947 30, 353 36, 831 60, 198 73, 398 67, 615 67, 410 86, 947 115, 357 138, 113	8. 4 2 1 16 11 18 4 12 19 1 16 3 15 13 8 2	d. 111 11 31 7 9 11 31 10 1 1 8 6 01 3 7	£ 1 1 1 2 2 3 3 2 2 2 3 3 4 4 3	8. 16 11 13 14 16 4 7 19 1 17 4 15 11 0 14 3 15	0. 8 0. 11 12 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10
1868	33, 474 33, 539 34, 711 37, 790 41, 075 42, 382	98, 699 76, 176 82, 467 116, 326 158, 313 200, 923	2 7 6 6 15 1	11 10 118 71 101 68	2 2 2 3 3 4	18 5 7 1 17 14	111 11 61 62 1 94
1014	44,000						

^{*}Some of the city "trades councils" above mentioned comprise branches of tradeerganizations separately represented. †Some of these unions have branches in the colonies and in foreign countries.

^{† 1852} was the year of the great lock-out.

§ The effect of the panic of 1866 and the industrial prostration of the succeeding years is visible in a falling off in the society's funds.

The following table shows the amounts expended for beneficial purposes by the Amalgamated Society of Engineers during the twenty-three years from 1851 to 1873, inclusive, with the amount expended for each purpose, and the average amount of expenditure per member:

TABLE II.

. Class of benefit.	Amount ex	Average per member.				
Donations to members *	£ 561,827 252,441 89,856 22,800 80,687	8. 0 0 0 0	d. 0 0 0 0	£ 24 9 2	11 18 19 18 3	d. 84 91 111 81 71
Benevolent grants, (nineteen years)	1, 007, 611 20, 553	0 0 0	0 0 0	41	12 13 11 18	9 84 7

^{*} By "donations" is meant the stated pecuniary assistance rendered to members when out of work.

The following table shows the expenditures of the same association for the year 1873, with the different objects of expenditure and the average amount per member:

TABLE III.

Objects of expenditure.	Aggre	Amount per member.				
Donations, fares to situations, and beds to non-free members. Contingent benefit. Sick benefits, stewards and medical certificates	£ 13,645 1,916 18,022 9,477	18 5	d. 5 1 0 9	£	5. 6	d. 51 101 6
Superannuation benefit Accidents, &c., per twenty-third rule* Funerals Grants from benevolent fund Printing, etationery, emblems, postage, and parcels. Branch-officers, executive council, secretaries, treasurers, auditors, banking expenses, delegations, and bonds of security.	1, 800 6, 567 1, 436 3, 950 6, 276	.10 16	0 2 8 8 81 11		3 1 2	52 101 11 81 101 11
Rents, rates, coal, and gas. Purchasing new property, including club-boxes, locks for ditto, &c. Telegrams, bad coin, &c. Grants to other trades	1, 343 118 567 694	16 13 6 0	21 21 91 0			71 02 31 4
Grants to London trades council, trades parliamentary committee, gas-stokers' defense fund. Unacknowledged remittances	65, 875 1, 324	6	8 51 0	1	11	1
	67, 199	17	51			

^{*} The twenty-third rule relates to assistance to members in emigration, and will be noticed hereafter.

At the end of 1873 this society had 358 branches, of which 259 were in England and Wales, 39 in Scotland, 11 in Ireland, 7 in Australia, 1 each in New Zealand, Queensland, and the East Indies, 5 in Canada, 1 in Malta, 2 in Turkey, 1 in France, and 30 in the United States. The average number of members to each branch at the date mentioned was a fraction over 118; the largest branch (located at Crewe, in Cheshire,) having 458, and the smallest only 6. Under the revised rules of the association, adopted May 25, 1874, a branch cannot be organized with less than twelve members, and the local councils have the power to discontinue all existing branches having not more than ten members.

The American branches (i. e., those in the United States) comprise an aggregate membership of 1,405, or an average of 47, less a small fraction, to each branch. They are located at the following places: Allegheny City, Altoona, Atlanta, Bloomington, (Ill.,) Boston, Brooklyn, Buffalo, Chicago, Cleveland, Detroit, Dunkirk, Elizabethport, (N. J.,) Fall River, (Mass.,) Louisville, Nashville, Newark and New Brunswick, (N. J.,) New York City, (two branches,) Omaha, Paterson, (N. J.,) Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Port Huron, (Mich.,) Providence, Rochester, San Francisco, Schenectady, Saint Louis, and a town in New Jersey, the name of which

is omitted.

The income of the society during the year 1873 from the regular payments of members and other sources (including £3,851 14s. 6d. as interest on money deposited in bank) was £109,809 3s. 2d. Its expenditures for the year, as already shown, were £67,199 17s. 5½d., leaving £42,609 5s. 8½d. to add to the surplus fund, which was thus swelled to the figure already given, namely, £200,923 1s. 6¾d., or an average of £4 14s. 9¾d.

(about \$26 in United States paper currency) per member.

An applicant for admission into this society must not be under 21, (with a few specified exceptions,) or over 40 years of age. He must have worked five years at his trade, and must be earning the ordinary rate of wages in the district in which he is employed. He must also be a person of "steady habits and good moral character," and must be free from certain specified physical disabilities, such as being deaf or dumb, having lost a limb, or two entire fingers off one hand, being ruptured, subject to fits, or obliged to use glasses at his work in consequence of imperfect vision. A member who wittingly proposes an ineligible candidate for membership is liable to a fine of £1.

The fee for admission to membership varies according to the age of the member, rising gradually from 15s., the fee at 25 years of age, to £3, the fee at 40 years of age. The regular contribution is 1s. per week from each member; but when the accumulated fund falls below £3 per member, the contribution is increased by such sum as will sustain the

fund at the amount named.

Every "free member" in good standing, who is out of work under circumstances satisfactory to the branch to which he belongs, receives a donation of 10s. per week for fourteen weeks, 7s. per week for the next thirty weeks, and a further sum of 6s. per week until employment is obtained, making a total of £19 18s. in any period of fifty-two weeks, provided the member should be out of employment so long. A member receiving "short donation" of either 7s. or 6s. per week cannot again draw "full donation" without having worked four successive weeks at the trade, and at the ordinary wages of the shop in which he is employed; nor can any member receive the "full donation" for more than fourteen weeks in any period of fifty-two weeks. A member losing his employment through drunkenness or disorderly conduct is not entitled to donation until he has been again employed eight weeks at his own branch of the trade, and at full wages. Digitized by Google

A "free member" on donation may obtain a "traveling card" from the secretary of his own branch of the society, and on complying with certain prescribed regulations, may receive his donation from the secretaries of branches situated in the different towns or cities to which he may go in search of work. A "non-free member," who has paid the whole of his entrance money, and is not more than 10s in arrears, is allowed 8d. for a bed in each town or city to which he may travel; and where there are three or more branches, he may be furnished with a bed for three nights. The secretary of a branch in any town to which the traveler goes must direct him to any place where he thinks it likely he may find employment; and the officers of a branch have discretionary power to detain a member a few days, if they see a prospect of obtaining employment for him.

A member, being a pattern-maker, a millwright, or a machine-joiner, registered for "tool-benefit" and losing tools by fire, upon satisfactory proof of his loss, receives compensation therefor, though not to exceed £10. The amount is raised by an equal levy on the registered members of the above-mentioned departments of the trade.

Any free member,* when visited by mental disease, bodily sickness, or lameness, (not occasioned by drunkenness or disorderly conduct, or any disease improperly contracted,) receives 10s. per week for twenty six weeks, and 5s. per week so long as he continues ill, making a total of £19 10s. in fifty-two weeks.

When the funds of the society are £3, and upward, per member, exclusive of permanent investments, if $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the members are out of employment, a limited number of the unemployed members may be assisted to emigrate to the amount of £6; but no member shall be allowed the benefit of this rule unless the number of unemployed members of the society in the place to which he wishes to emigrate is below $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Any "free member," not more than 16s. in arrears, who, through losing a limb or having one disabled by accident or otherwise, or through blindness, imperfect vision, apoplexy, epilepsy, or paralysis, may be rendered permanently unable to follow any of the departments of the trade, provided his disability is not the result of intemperance or other improper conduct, will receive the sum of £100; subject to the condition that the amount must be refunded if at any future time the member is able to resume work.

A member in good standing who is not less than fifty years old, and who through the infirmities of age is unable to obtain the ordinary rate of wages, is entitled to a superannuation benefit, varying according to the length of time he has been in the society, as follows:

To members of less than twenty-five years' standing, 7s. per week. To members of twenty-five years' and less than thirty-years' standing, 8s. per week.

To members of thirty years' and less than forty years' standing, 9s. per week.

To members of forty years' standing and upward, 10s. per week.

These payments are continued during the life of the member. A member of not less than eighteen years' standing in the society and not less than fifty years old, if disabled by any of the causes above mentioned as giving a title to the "accident benefit" of £100, may take his choice between that and the superannuation benefit.

^{*}This regulation is not applicable to a class of members who, on account of defective health on entering the society, have not been admitted to the "sick benefit," and have paid 2d. a week less than other members.

On the death of a free member who is not more than 16s, in arrears. £12 is paid to his widow, next of kin, or legal representative, for his funeral expenses. On the death of a member's wife, he receives £5 for her funeral expenses, leaving £7 for his own. If a member die while traveling in search of work, and his remains cannot be removed to his own home, the branch of the society nearest the place of his death is to take charge of the funeral, the expense of which must not exceed £6: and if his widow, nominee, or next of kin, apply for the surplus, (the remaining £6 of this "funeral benefit,") it is to be paid.

The salaries of officers (i. e., of those to whom salaries are allowed) vary according to the number of members in the branch to which they belong, or to the nature and extent of their duties. Thus the salary of a branch secretary varies from £1 10s, per annum—the sum allowed for a branch comprising ten members—to £12 15s, in the case of branches having 360 members, the rules providing minutely for all intermediate numbers as well as for all in excess of 360. It may be noted here, en passant, that no member who keeps a public-house, or beer-house, is eligible to the position of branch secretary.

One of the most useful regulations of the society is that which relates to the finding of employment for members. A member out of employment and drawing "donation benefit," is required at stated times (usually every day) to sign a book known as "the vacant-book," which is either kept at the branch office, or, in the case of large towns where there are several branches, at some central office. In Manchester the "vacant-book" is an institution of such importance that the officer in charge of it receives a stated salary of £2 2s. per week, with an allowance of 7s. 6d. per week for a messenger, and has rent-free quarters, with coal and gas, at the society's office, where he is required to reside.

Any member who knows of a vacancy, either present or prospective, is required to give information of it within twenty-four hours to the secretary of the branch to which he belongs, and failing to do so is liable to a fine of 5s. A member on donation benefit refusing to accept employment, or neglecting to apply when informed of a vacancy, is suspended from donation until he obtains employment, unless he can show a satis-

factory reason for his conduct.

Any secretary on receiving notice that men are wanted in a particular district, must send to that district any members of his branch who are out of employment and in receipt of donation or contingent benefit, if he considers them qualified for the vacant positions. The fare of mem. bers so sent is paid, and if they fail to obtain situations, their return fare is also paid to their own place of residence. The amount allowed, however, is not to exceed £1 10s. Any member on benefit refusing to remove to another place in order to obtain employment is suspended from donation, and, in some cases, may also be subjected to some further The regulations in regard to the "vacant-book" and the transmission of information in regard to vacant situations from one locality to another constitute the society a most effective intelligenceagency, both for particular localities and for the entire field over which its branches extend. Some other societies have similar regulations.

One of the society's rules is directed against piece-work, the acceptance of which, in shops where it has not already been introduced, incurs a fine of 10s. for the first offense, of 20s. for the second, and the penalty of expulsion for the third. Any member taking work by the piece is, moreover, required to share in equal proportions with his fellow-workmen (they being members) all that he earns over the regular weekly wages; and any member working for or under any piece master, and not receiving an equal share in any such surplus, is required to leave his employment.

Any member boasting of his independence toward his employer or employers in consequence of his membership in this society is subject to a fine of 2s. 6d. for the first offense, 5s. for the second, and 10s. for the

third or any subsequent repetition of the offense.

The above is only a brief statement of some of the leading provisions of the constitution or rules of the Engineers' Association. Many minor regulations for special cases, as well as the provisions in regard to the care and investment of funds, the equalization of funds among the branches, or, more properly, the annual settlement between debtor and creditor branches, the election, qualification, and duties of officers and committeemen, along with various other matters of minor importance, are omitted. The governmental organization of societies of this class is, however, illustrated to some extent in the abstract of the rules of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, to be presented below.

AMALGAMATED SOCIETY OF CARPENTERS AND JOINERS.

The following table shows the number of branches, number of members, and cash balance of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners of Great Britain, Ireland, and America,* at the end of each year from 1860 to 1874, inclusive:

TABLE I.

Years ended December 31.	Number of branches.	Number of members.	Cash bal han		on
1860 1861 1862 1863 1864 1865 1866 1867 1868 1869 1871 1872 1873	20 32 38 53 81 134 187 203 218 224 236 242 242 249 265	618 650 949 1,718 3,279 5,670 8,002 8,022 8,736 9,305 10,178 9,764 11,236 12,789 13,890	£ 321 593 849 2, 042 4, 566 8, 320 13, 052 15, 153 17, 179 17, 626 17, 568 16, 829 19, 849 30, 450 †38, 125	8. 3 12 8 11 10 13 4 11 16 14 19 7 8 11	d. 21 01 10 3 01 7 31 1 61 4 11 61 31 0

The following table shows the expenditures for benefits of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners for the year ended December 31, 1873, and for the thirteen and one-half years from the organiza-

t The cash balance for 1874 may be subject to a slight correction.

^{*}This association has 265 branches, of which 231 are in England and Wales, 11 in Ireland, 5 in Scotland, 14 in the United States, and 4 in Canada. The branches in the United States comprise 447 members. Of the 14 branches, 2 are in New York, and 1 each in Albany, Baltimore, Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, Fall River, Newark, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Saint Louis, San Francisco, and Washington, D.C. The returns from the United States in the monthly report for January, 1875, represent the state of trade as "bad," "dull," or "slack," with the exception of San Francisco, where it is reported "good," and Newark, as "improving." The returns from the English and Welsh branches generally report trade as "moderate," while those from the Irish are chiefly unfavorable.

tion of the society in June, 1860, to the same date, with the average cost per member on each account:

TABLE II.

	Expenditu cer	res í uber	or ye 31, 1	ar ended .873.	De-
Items of expenditure.	Aggregate socie		the	Average	
Donations Tools On account of sickness On account of funerals On account of accidents To superannuated members On account of trade privileges Benevolent grants Grants and loans to other trades Total	1,248 300 97 2,964	8. 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	d. 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	8. 4 9 1	d. 10 10 2 11 5 12 7 13 7

Y	Expenditu Dec			∳ yea , 1873		aded
Items of expenditure.	Aggregate socie		the		en be	per er.
Donations Tools On account of sickness On account of funerals On account of accidents To superannuated members. On account of trade privileges Benevolent grants Grants and loans to other trades	£ 45, 9.17 4, 286 40, 593 7, 834 3, 790 617 17, 436 3, 254 720	8. 0 0 0 0 0 0	d. 0 0 0 0 0 0	£ 7 6 1 2	8. 00 13 4 4 11 13 9	d. 91 11 41 0 71 101 51 115 21
Total	124, 477	0	0			-

The objects of this society, as defined in its own rules, are to raise funds for the advancement and protection of the trade; for the mutual support of its members in case of sickness, accident, or superannuation; for the burial of members and their wives; assisting emigration; replacing tools lost by fire, water, or theft; and for assistance to members out of work; also to form a contingent and benevolent fund for the purpose of granting assistance in cases of extreme distress not otherwise provided for in the rules.

Each branch of the society is to appoint its own officers and conduct its own affairs, and no branch is to have more than three hundred members.

On the first meeting-night in April, July, and October, the income and expenditure of the past quarter, and at the first meeting in January the income and expenditure for the past year, must be read over by the auditors and submitted to the meeting in presence of both the old and new officers; and in no case may the old officers leave before the report has been read over.

In any large town or district where there are two or more branches, they may hold conjointly a special summoned meeting of their branches whenever occasion requires; and all resolutions passed at such meetings must be entered on the minutes of each branch. They are also made binding upon the several branches in the district, and cannot be altered, rescinded, or set aside except by consent of a majority of the members present at another summoned meeting of the district branches.

Upon any question which under the rules of the society is required to be decided by the votes of a majority of its members, these votes must be taken at summoned meetings of all the branches; and the numbers voting on each side must be transmitted to the general secretary, who must add them up and publish the results to the branches, the question being determined by a majority of all the votes cast and not by a majority of the branches.

The entrance-fees vary from 7s. 6d. (when the candidate is under twenty-five years of age) to £1 15s., (when he is forty-four years of age

and under forty-five.)

Candidates for membership must be in good health, must be good workmen and have worked five years at the trade, must be persons of steady habits and good moral character, and not less than twenty-one nor more than forty-five years of age. They must not belong to any other trade society or enter one after their admission into this. No person may be admitted who has acted contrary to the interests of the trade or has been excluded from any other society for misconduct, unless such restitution be made or such satisfaction given to injured parties as may be ordered by the executive council of the society or by the branch to which the candidate seeks admission.

To be entitled to all the benefits of the society a member must pay a contribution of 1s. per week and 3d. per quarter to the contingent and benevolent fund. A contribution of 9d. per week and 3d. per quarter to the contingent and benevolent fund entitles a member to all the benefits except that for the sick.

All moneys subscribed by the members of the society become the property of the society generally, and not of the branches to which the members respectively belong; * and any branch leaving the society

forfeits its share in the general fund.

Whenever it is found that the funds of the society have sunk below an average of £1 per member, the executive council has the power to assess upon each member such sum as is necessary to raise the funds to the amount just mentioned. Special levies may also be made for other purposes, in cases of emergency; but such a levy on the society at large requires the consent of two-thirds of the members present at special meetings of the branches held to determine the question; and local levies require the consent of a majority of the members present at a special meeting of the local branch or branches, as well as the approval of the executive council of the society.

Special committees are elected by the separate branches, (or by the combined branches of a district in which there are two or more,) for the management of trade movements in connection with strikes, lock-outs, &c.; and special auditors are elected for the management of the accounts in such movements, which are kept entirely distinct from the ordinary

accounts of the society.

The principal authority in the association is vested in a general council, consisting of sixteen members, each representing one of sixteen dis-

^{*} This is also a rule of the Operative Stone-mason's Society, and of some other associations.

tricts into which the territory over which the society extends is divided, and each being elected at an appointed time by a majority of the votes cast in meetings of the several branches within the district which he represents. Each branch may send to the general secretary the name of some eligible member within the district in which it is situated, to be submitted to the various branches within the district as a candidate for the general council. The nominations are to be made about three months before the election, and a list of the candidates proposed is sent to all the branches by the general secretary. The election for members of the general council takes place once in three years, and if a vacancy occurs during the term for which the council holds office, it is filled by the candidate who, at the preceding election, received the next to the highest vote.

The general secretary is elected by a majority of the votes cast in all the branches within the association. He is paid the expense attendant upon moving himself and his family from the place where he resides to the general office, where he is furnished with a rent-free residence, and receives a salary of not less than £3 per week, with certain other allow-

ances for special services and for assistance.

An executive council, consisting of six members, elected by the branches situated within a radius of twelve miles from the general office, is invested with a degree of supervision over that office and over the business of the secretary, as well as with the power of determining

various questions affecting the society at large.

The general council, whose members are from all parts of the kingdom and from foreign countries, meets only once in three years, except in special emergencies; and alterations in the rules of the association can only be adopted at alternate triennial meetings. All such alterations must be submitted to the votes of the members in the branch meetings, and any change in the objects of the society, as set forth in its first rule, requires the consent of three-fourths of the members. On minor matters, the general secretary is authorized to obtain the views of the general council, by letters addressed to its several members. In cases of emergency the general council is authorized to hold meetings without awaiting the attendance of the member representing the American district.

The benefits offered by the society may be summarized as follows:

Unemployed (or donation) benefit, 10s. per week for twelve weeks, and 6. per week for twelve weeks more; for leaving employment under circumstances satisfactory to the branch or to the executive council, 15s. per week; tool benefit to a member of not less than six months' standing, not to exceed £5; sick benefit, for twenty-six weeks, 12s. per week, and 6s. per week thereafter as long as illness continues; funeral benefit, £12, or to a member of only six months' standing, £3 10s.; accident benefit, to a member totally disabled, £100, and to a member partially disabled, £50; superannuation benefit to a member of twenty five years' standing, 8s. per week for life, and 7s. per week for life to a member of eighteen years' standing; emigration benefit, £6; other benefits in the nature of benevolent grants, according to circumstances in cases of distress. It may be remarked here that the rules and the governmental organization of this society are regarded as being among the best possessed The regulations in regard to vacant-book by any of the trades-unions. are similar to those of the engineers.

ASSOCIATED CARPENTERS AND JOINERS OF SCOTLAND.

In the report of this society for the twelve months ended October 31, 1874, the number of its members is stated at 5,781, of whom 5,224 were

subscribers to all its benefits, the remaining 557 not being subscribers to the fund provided for sickness, superannuation, and funeral benefits. Its expenditures for the several objects for which it is constituted, as well as for rents, taxes, salaries, &c., during the twelve months just named, were as follows:

•	£	8.	đ.
Sick-allowances	1,843	0	01
Bonuses to three disabled members	150	0	ο .
Funeral-allowances	518	0	0
Tools compensation	372	11	111
Strike-allowance	409	5	6
Grant to agricultural laborers' union	50	0	0
Victimized allowance*		15	34
Hall rents	399	18	91
Taxes and hall expenses		4	6
Stationery and postage		14	11
Printing and advertising	415	4	0 <u>1</u>
Carriage of parcels	6	9	3
Doctors' accounts	1	19	6 •
Lost time		10	8
Branch boxes, &c Delegations	12	3	11
Delegations	26	18	7
Law expenses	6	3	9
Expenses of joint meetings	51	8	81
Salaries and commissions	827	15	71
Total	5, 314	3	01

The income of the society for the year ended as above exceeded the expenditure by £1,441 5s. 33d. This increases the accumulated fund to £9,071 8s. 81d., of which £7,554 5s. 6d. belong to the trade account, and £1,517 3s. 21d. to the benefit account. The number of members added to the society during the past year was 774, and, according to a statement presented by the secretary, it now comprises nearly one-half of the members of the trade in the districts in which it has branches, the total number of journeymen in those districts being 11,836, while the membership of the society is 5,781.† The secretary calls attention to the fact that during the year several trades have had protracted strikes, while the members of some societies, notably the agricultural laborers, have been compelled to fight for the right of determining whether they should be union men or not. In some of the trades wages have been reduced. but among the joiners the changes that occurred during the year were usually favorable to the workmen. The secretary estimates that there has been an average rise of 2s. a week in journeymen's wages, while several of the society's branches have obtained a reduction of hours. The only disputes with employers during the year were those of Dumfries, Dunfermline, Perth, and the Clyde. The latter was short and decisive, lasting but a few days; but the one at Dumfries was protracted and bitter, continuing for a month.

This society was organized and a code of rules for its government adopted at a conference of delegates from the carpenters and joiners of the principal places in Scotland, which was held at Edinburgh in September, 1861. The rules have since undergone three revisions, the last having been completed in August, 1873. The society is divided into two sections, which may be called respectively the "trade section" and the "benefit section," although some of the allowances made to members of the trade section might very properly be classed as benefit

† The number of apprentices in the same districts is 3,310.

^{*}The "victimized allowance" is one which the rules provide for the benefit of members discharged from their situations for acting as delegates, or otherwise serving the association. It is a regular payment, equal to the wages lost. The "victimized allowance" in 1873, exceeded £100.

cial allowances. The fee for admission into the trade section alone, is 5s., and the dues 3d. per week. For admission into the benefit section the fee is from 2s. to 10s., according to age of applicant, and the dues 4d. per week. Besides these payments, members are liable to special levies for emergencies or to make up deficiencies in the funds; but such levies

must be authorized by the vote of the society.

On the occasion of a cessation of work in consequence of a strike. lock-out, or any cause regarded by the society as adequate, each "free member, so thrown out of work, upon conforming to certain requirements, receives an allowance of 12s. a week as long as the stoppage of work continues. A "free member" losing his tools by fire, water, or theft, is entitled to an allowance equal to the value of the tools lost, provided it does not exceed £20: and he is also entitled to the value of a tool-chest, not, however, in excess of £2. Every member who has paid his full entrance-fee is entitled to a bonus of £50 in case of any accident disabling him from ever again resuming his regular employment. It is an essential condition, however, to the allowance of this benefit, that the accident shall not have been caused by intemperance or improper conduct. The allowance in sickness is 12s. per week for thirteen weeks, 9s. per week for thirteen weeks more, 7s. per week for twenty-six weeks, and then 5s. per week while illness continues. The funeral allowance on the death of a member is £12, to be paid to his wife, nominee, trustee, The allowance on the death of a wife (if she be regisor next of kin. tered) is £5, which, however, is not allowed on the death of a second wife, if it has been drawn on the death of the first. The superannuation benefit is 3s. 6d. per week to a member over fifty years of age and of ten rears' standing in the society, and 5s. per week to one who has been fifteen years in the society. The claim to superannuation, however, is not allowed as long as the member can earn more than half the usual wages of the locality in which he is employed, in any business or calling in which he can obtain employment.

The various branches of the association are required to forward to the executive committee as often, at least, as once a quarter, all moneys in their possession not needed for their immediate local expenditure; and branches not having sufficient funds for the latter purpose may, according to prescribed forms, call upon the same committee for what they require, provided, of course, that it be money to which they are entitled in accordance with the rules of the society. All moneys sent to the executive committee and not immediately wanted are to be deposited in such bank or banks as may be agreed upon, a portion (not to be less than £500 nor more than £1,000) to be deposited as a working fund in the name of the association, three trustees, and the central corresponding secretary, and the remainder to be deposited as "a sinking fund" in the name of the association, eight trustees, and the central corresponding secretary. The three trustees of the "working fund" are to be elected by the central branch* and their names submitted to the society at large. If no objection be lodged against them within fourteen days after such submission, their election is to be valid. The eight trustees of the "sinking fund" are to be elected respectively by the eight branches having the largest number of members, and their names submitted to the society, as in the other case. No money can be drawn from the working fund except by the central corresponding secretary and two trustees, and none can be drawn from the sinking fund without

^{*}At intervals of three years elections are held to determine what branch of the society shall be the "seat of government;" and the branches situated within a radius of three miles from the branch elected have the prerogative of electing the executive committee, which consists of nine members, who hold office for one year.

the signature of the same officer and six trustees: and the trustees are to sign no order for drawing money without a letter from the executive committee, signed by the chairman, authorizing them to do so. society each year elects an auditor who serves for three years, so that there are three auditors, whose respective terms of office terminate at vearly intervals. Besides auditing the accounts of the society at the end of each year, these officers are required to assist the central corresponding secretary in making up "an abstract of whatever may be considered of interest to the society, either as a resume of the past year or as a guide to future proceedings."

No part of the funds of the association can be applied to any purpose other than those set forth in the rules, except by a three-fourths majority of all members voting in meetings of the branches specially called after

due notice for the determination of the question.

No alteration can be made in the rules (or laws) of the society without the assent of two-thirds of the members; and in years when a delegate meeting is held all proposed alterations must be first submitted to such meeting, and by it (if at all) submitted to the society. No delegate meeting may "abrogate any of the principles of the society," (i. e., the allowance on cessation of work, the insurance of tools, or the accident, sickness, superannuation, or funeral benefit,) except by the consent of three-fourths of the members, which votes must be registered accordingly.

THE AMALGAMATED TAILORS' SOCIETY.

The following table shows the principal items in the expenditures of the Amalgamated Tailors' Society from May to December, 1869, and each year from 1870 to 1873 inclusive, together with the number of members, the average expenditures per member, the number of members in receipt of sick and traveling benefits respectively, and the number of deaths of members and members' wives:

	1	86	9.	1	£ 70 .	•	1:	871.	•	1	1872	•	10	5 73.	•	Total fo	
	£	8.	đ.	£	8.	đ.	£	8.	đ.	£	8.	đ.	£	8.	đ.	£	8. d.
Expenditures on account of sick benefit	901	6	7	1, 847	12	7	1, 931	12	10	2, 47	7 7	8	2, 937	7	10	10, 095	7 6
Average per member on account of sick benefit			8	,	9		l	7			5		ľ			,	
Expenditures on account of fu-		•	8	1	9	ಚ		•	8	1	3	0		•	9		
nerals	261	0	0	576	8	2	767	9	9	996	3 7	8	1, 420	18	6	4, 094	4 1
A verage per member on account of funerals		1	31	1	2	10 1		3	4		2	21		2	51		
Expenditures on travelers' ac-			-	ı		•	Į.	_	_			_	1	-	•		
count*	302	5	6	262	18	6	226	2	8	420	3 16	0	641	4	51	1, 759	7 1
ers' account*		1	0		1	31			113	Ł		113		1	01	ļ .	
Expenditures on account of trade	45			200		7	55	1	6		3 17		622	_	-	ĺ	
benefits, strikes, and lock-outs. Average per member on same	40	8	4	200	10	4	33		0	20.	3 14	0	022	Э	9	1, 207	9 8
account	l		$2\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	0			53	ŀ		71		1	0	+	
Number of members at end of	_					_	i			1							
year	3	, 9	94		4, (800		4,	914]	9,	061	1,1	12, :	385		
Number of members receiving sick benefit		δ				550	l		658	1		756	1	1 .	122	l	3, 00
Number of members receiving	ł	•								1			1	-		•	4, 60
travelers' benefit		2	98	1		167		1	252			383	1	•	663	ŀ	1, 76
and members' wives		:	36	1		91	1		102	1		140	1	1	189	İ	55
	1			1			ı			1			ł		-	l	-

^{*} Members traveling in quest of employment.
† To these expenditures may be added an item of £235, granted to other associations in 1873, the first year that the society had set apart a contingent fund for that purpose.
‡ The number of members at the close of 1874, as shown in the list of associations represented at the annual trades congress, was, in round numbers, 14,000.
§ Not furnished.



The aggregate income of this association for the year 1873 was £13,543 12s., and the aggregate expenditures for the same year, £11,148 14s. 91d., leaving a balance of £2,394 17s. $2\frac{1}{2}d$. on the year's account; which, added to a balance of £4,609 14s. on hand at the close of the previous

vear, makes the total accumulated fund £7.004 11s. 24d.

The terms of admission into the Amalgamated Tailors' Association are as follows: Young men in the last year of their apprenticeship pay an entrance-fee of 1s.; tailors, under 25 years old, 2s. 6d.; under 30 years, 5s.; under 35 years, 7s. 6d.; under 40 years, 10s.; under 45 years, 15s. From 45 years old up to 50 the increase in the entrance-fee is at the rate of 2s. 6d. per year. Tailors over 50 years of age may enter the society, but not as members entitled to all its benefits. The payment of an entrance-fee of 5s., a regular contribution of 3½d. per week, and the usual quarterly subscription to the management and contingent funds entitles them to trade and traveling benefits, and on their death a "funeral benefit" of £4 is paid to their next of kin or nominee lawfully appointed.

The entrance-fee for persons not desiring to participate in the "sick-

benefit" is as follows:

For tailors under 30 years of age, 2s. 6d.; not under 30 but under 40 years, 5s.; not under 40 but under 45 years, 7s. 6d.; not under 45 but under 50 years, 10s.

In the case of new branches entering the association the members are required to pay the current quarterly subscription and an entrance-fee

according to age as follows:

Members under 25 years of age, 2s. 6d.; not under 25 years of age

but under 30, 5s.; not under 30 years of age but under 50, 7s. 6d.

To entitle a member to full participation in all benefits the regular payments are 6d. a week, 4d. a quarter to management, and 1s. per annum (payable in the month of June) to "a contingent fund," which is devoted to the furtherance of the principles of association. Members not wishing to participate in the sick-benefit pay 3½d. per week, and to the management and contingent funds the same as other members.

On quitting employment, under circumstances satisfactory to the branch or to the executive council, a member receives 12s. per week. The "sick-benefit" for the first thirteen weeks is 10s. per week; for the second, 8s.; for the third, 6s.; for the fourth, 4s.; afterward (while illness continues,) 2s. 6d. per week. The superannuation-benefit, to members of twelve years' standing, is 2s. 6d. per week for life, and 5s. per week for life to members of twenty years' standing. The traveling benefit is 1s. 4d. per day in each branch for not exceeding sixty days in the year, or

to 1s. per day and a bed.

The general management of the affairs of the association is vested in an executive council consisting of nine members, among whom are included the president and secretary. The ordinary executive functions devolve chiefly on the last two officers, but the executive council meets once a quarter, and may be convened more frequently if circumstances require it. The members of this council, including the president and secretary, are elected biennially at conferences composed of delegates from the branches, the number of delegates being proportioned with more or less exactness to the number of members to be represented. The objects of the association are thus stated in a recent address of the executive council to the operative tailors of the kingdom:

^{1.} To improve morally, socially, and pecuniarily the means and position of our members and the trade generally, by forming a fund by contributions of our members on well-considered bases, and from statistics of those associations who have prospered by apperience.

2. To provide a safe and profitable investment for the contributions and subscriptions of our members against sickness, disease, and death, as well as economizing the strength and power of unity for the welfare of our trade, always seeking an amicable settlement of trade-disputes rather than resorting to the two-edged weapon of settlement by strikes. This is accomplished by raising capital or funds that may be available in case just and conciliatory measures fail, and then, and then only, recorting to those measures which our unity and strength, combined with accumulated funds, can accomplish, our system combining all the facilities of exchange in investing our labor to profitable advantage, and insurance and friendly societies for benevolent purposes.

3. To promote the intellectual and material benefit of our members and the trade generally, by providing means of social intercourse and discussion of topics for the elevation of the trade generally.

4. To afford means of carrying out the repeal of all laws that have so hurtfully affected the position of workmen hitherto, and to free labor from restrictive influence,

at the same time fostering habits of prudence and forethought.

5. By means of our rules, encouraging those who may have the welfare of the trade at heart, to become ornaments to our calling, and leaders to a better and more elevated

position of our class.

In the same address it is claimed that during the year 1873 "wages were advanced and trade privileges obtained in no less than fifty-four cities and towns in England and Wales," and that in 1874 (up to November,) "no less than fifty-six more cities and towns," where the society has branches, "obtained advantages in the same direction."

SOCIETY OF OPERATIVE MASONS.

The following table contains a condensed statement of the expenditures of the Society of Operative Stone-Masons from September 24, 1840, to November 23, 1873, specifying the different items of expenditure, and also distinguishing between expenditures for trade purposes and expenditures for beneficial objects:

1. Expenditures for trade purposes:	•		
To strike pay	£56,867	11	7
Gifts to other trades	3, 206	8	8
Loans	400	0	0
Delegations in general	10, 256	3	11
Total for trade purposes	70,730	4	2
2. Expenditures for benevolent purposes:			
Sick-allowance	£54,828	0	91
Funerals	40, 253	14	44
Travelers*	54, 453	14	9
Surgeons' fees.	2,789	15	10
Gifts for charitable purposes	515	14	3
HOSPITAL SUDSCRIPTIONS	2,941	1	Ō
Disabled members (197)	17, 941	0	0
Friends of 106 members killed	5, 100	0	0
Orphan children	292	9	6
Master and workmen's actst	32	16	0
Superannuation of members	8,636	13	11
Legal expenses in defending prosecuted memberst	3, 483	6	1
Total for benevolent purposes	191, 268	2	9
Grand total	261, 998	6	11

From this statement it appears, therefore, that during the thirty-three years which it covers the expenditures for benevolent purposes exceeded the expenditures for strikes and other trade purposes by £120,537 18s. 7d.

^{*}Members traveling in search of work.

t These two items might perhaps have been classified with the expenditures for trade purposes.

This society is formally known as "The Friendly Society of Operative Masons of England, Ireland, and Wales." Its members have the option of contributing to the trade-fund alone, or to that and to any one or more of the benefit-funds in the advantages of which they may wish to participate. The entrance-fee to the trade department is 2s. 6d., and the contributions 6d. per week. For admission to the trade and sick fund the fee to a person under 24 years of age is 2s. 6d.; over 24 and under 28, 5a.; over 28 and under 32, 7s. 6d.; over 32 and under 35, 10s. Persons over 35 years of age are not admitted to this section of the society. The contributions to the sick-fund are 4d. per week. On the death of a member in good standing his widow, nominee, or next of kin receives £12 for his funeral expenses. On the death of a member's wife (provided he has paid 1s. for her registration and 6d. per quarter in addition) he receives £10; but a wife over forty years of age cannot be registered for this benefit.

The payment of 4s. 1d. a week to a children's fund entitles a member to £2 on the death of a child; but still-born children, or children born out of wedlock, are not included in this allowance.

The superannuation-benefit is as follows:

To members of	ten years' standing	5s. per week.
	fifteen years' standing	
	twenty years' standing	
	twenty-five years' standing	

The sick-benefit is 12s. per week for twenty-six weeks, and 6s. per week until recovered; but disease incurred by fighting, drunkenness, or other immoral conduct, is excluded from this benefit.

The accident-benefit is £100 to a member permanently disabled in connection with the prosecution of his trade, or while transacting society-business, unless the accident disabling him was incurred by his own misconduct, druhkenness, or willful neglect. In case of accidental death occurring to a member under similar circumstances, his widow, nominee, or next of kin is entitled to £50 from the society's funds. An allowance of £50 is also provided for cases of paralysis or permanent loss of vision.

The benefit to members traveling in search of work varies from the provision of a bed alone up to a bed and 1s. 3d. a day, according to the standing of the member and the circumstances of the case; each case,

however, being distinctly provided for in the rules.

In cases of "legal disputes" with employers, (i. e., disputes entered into in accordance with the rules of the society,) members suspending work are allowed 12s. per week from the society's funds, and any delegate or officer of the society who is discharged in consequence of his holding such a position is allowed 18s. per week, provided that he have

not used abusive language toward the employer or foreman.

When the members of the society in any town or locality desire to obtain better terms from their employers, the rules require that they shall use "their utmost endeavors, by correspondence, interviews, or a conference, consisting of an equal number of employers and employed," to arrive at "an amicable agreement;" and "only after all such means have failed to secure the desired alteration shall they be justified in suspending work."

When a desire for an advance of wages, a reduction of working-hours,

^{*}The fees for re-admission of persons who have gone out of the society or lost their membership through falling in arrears, increase with the number of admissions, the fee for the fifth admission being 20 shillings.

or other improvement in the conditions of employment is manifested in any lodge, the secretary is required to report the fact to the central committee of the association, stating the number of members who would be thrown out of work in case of a strike, the number entitled to benefit, the state of trade and position of the society in the neighborhood. and the number of members of the lodge who voted respectively for and against an application to be sustained by the society in a strike; and no such application is to be entertained unless it has had the support of a two-thirds majority in a summoned meeting of the lodge, the votes having been formally taken by ballot. When such an application is received the central committee is to appoint a deputation from three different lodges (including the one from which the application emanates) to proceed to the locality, examine as to the state of trade, the number of members entitled to benefit, and other matters, and to make a report which is to be submitted to the various lodges in connection with the application. A vote of the society is to be taken within twenty-eight days, the question to be decided for or against the application in accordance with the majority of the votes cast. In cases where employers attempt to reduce the current rate of wages, to introduce piecework where it has been abolished, to increase the hours of labor, to infringe upon the established meal-hours, or to employ as masons persons who have not learned the trade, a two-thirds majority in a summoned meeting of the lodge to which the members affected by such an infringement belong, shall be sufficient to justify them in resisting it by a suspension of work; and in case the employer attempts to enforce the infringement before a lodge meeting can be held, the decision arrived at by a twothirds majority of the members working for such employer is to be binding: but they must wait upon the employer or foreman before suspending work; and in all cases the central committee must be informed as to the particulars of the dispute.

The members of this society bind themselves (by voluntary offer) to give moral and material aid to other trades associations. Any lodge applied to for this purpose is to investigate the case, and, if the cause be thought worthy of support, the amount of assistance required is to be made known to the central committee, and by them to be submitted to the society, a vote of which, in lodge meetings assembled, is to be taken

within twenty-eight days.

All lodges are required to transmit weekly to the central committee any money in their possession in excess of £10 not required for their

immediate local expenditures.

A printed list is to be published annually by the central committee, showing the names of members who have worked in opposition to the society, of the members (or officers) who have committed frauds or defalcations, and of members who are in arrears under local levies.

Members are prohibited from working overtime, which is condemned as a practice tending to keep other members out of employment, and members who persist in violating this rule, in opposition to their own lodge, are liable to a fine not to exceed £2. There are certain exceptions to this rule, however, in cases of accident or necessity. Where subcontracting or piecework is abolished, members are bound by these arrangements. Where working by artificial light has not been the rule, lodges are authorized to resist its introduction.

Should the funds of the society fall below £3,000, the central committee may recommend a special levy upon the members of the society, but such levy must be submitted to a vote of the society and approved

by a majority before it can be carried out.

The opinion of the society, as to a revision and reprint of existing rules, is to be taken once in three years; and when such revision is decided upon, the revising committee is to be elected by the society, the vote being taken in meetings of the lodges specially held for the purpose.

This society maintains intimate reciprocal relations with the one to

be noticed next below.

UNITED OPERATIVE MASONS' ASSOCIATION OF SCOTLAND.

The total membership of this association in December, 1874, was 10,652, showing an increase of 1,208 members since December, 1873. The number of members belonging to the trade section alone was 9,990. The number belonging to both the trade and sick fund sections was 662. The expenditures for 1874 may be summarized as follows:

For trade purposes.			
FF	£	8.	d.
Strike pay	408	0	0
Assisting men to leave strikes*		18	0
Wages of pickets, strike committees, and cross commit-			
tees		12	64
General delegations	102	11	1
Voted to Edinburgh and Leith millers	15	0	0
Voted to English agricultural laborers	100	0	0
Voted to Edinburgh Trades' Council	5	0	0
Voted to Trades-Union Parliamentary Committee	15	0	0
,			
Total	784	1	7 1
			•
For benevolent purposes.			
Sick allowance	480	0	0
Accident provisions	400	0	0
Surgeons' fees	15	14	0
Funeral allowance	1,670	0	0
•			
Total for benevolent objects	2,566	4	0
Total for trade purposes	78 4	1	71
	 -		_
Grand total	3, 350	5	71
	<u> </u>		
Excess for benevolent objects	1, 782	2	41
	•		
The financial condition of the society on the 3d of Dece	mber, i	1874	ł, is
stated as follows:			-
7- 1-1 The section A 1080	£	8.	d.
In bank, December 4, 1873.	7,800	18	10
Deposited since that date	1,990	00	00
Interest accrued up to 3d December, 1874	204	12	7
	10 042		
Drawn out of bank during year	10, 045	11	10
Drawn out of Dank during year	410	19	10
Amount in bank December 3, 1874	9, 599	12	7

^{*}This probably means assisting men to leave localities where strikes were in progress, and go elsewhere in search of work.

In hands of lodge treasurers	9	15 10	$2^{\frac{93}{4}}$
Total worth of the association December 3, 1874 Total worth of the association December 4, 1873	10, 139 8, 248	18 13	63 83
Net gain during the year	1,891	4	10

The number of lodges in the association is about 100, with an average of over 100 members per lodge. The returns made to the central committee, by the lodge secretaries, indicate that a large majority of the men belonging to the trade in the places where the society has branches

are included in its membership.

The auditing committee, in submitting their financial statement, take occasion to congratulate the society on "the steady increase of wages in the various districts, and the obtaining of such without any great sacrifice, either as regards time or money. The past year," they say, "has also been free from strikes of any great magnitude." They further observe, "that a number of lodges have taken up the apprentice question, with the apparent determination of having all who may desire to learn the trade compelled to serve a regular apprenticeship," a result which they think, "would prove an inestimable boon to the trade in future years." Referring to the combination of employers in a national federation, they say, "we must meet federation with federation:" and. although that plan has not hitherto succeeded "from the fact that the largest and strongest unions stood passively aloof" from the movement. they express the hope that a federation of trades-unions will ere long be formed, "wielding a power greater than the national federation of capitalists and employers." Referring to the movements on foot among the trades organizations to secure the repeal of the "criminal law amendment act," they ask, "Why not a movement to raise from our trades organizations a great political federation? for then, and then only, with the ballot and working as one, will class criminal legislation be swept away, and our interests receive more attention at the hands of our legislators."

In its plan of organization, benefits, and rules of action there is considerable resemblance between this society and the one last noticed, although there are many minor differences, and the contributions, fees, and allowances are not in all cases the same. The rules of the English society provide that members of the Scotch society coming to England shall be admitted free, and that members of the English society going to Scotland shall be admitted into the Scotch society on the same terms; but by a curious discrepancy the Scotch rules provide for the payment of half a crown for admission in either case. It is probable, however, that the provision in the English rules is the one finally agreed upon, these rules having been revised as late as December 24, 1874, while the Scotch rules were revised about a year earlier. In both cases conformity to the rules of the society entered is of course a condition

of admission.

The two societies agree that in order to effect a mutual understanding between them, a fortnightly return of correspondence shall be established, the more especially to avert the evil tendency caused by an influx of hands from either country in case of strikes; and that a printed copy of the fortnightly returns of each society (divested of their

financial reports) shall be regularly transmitted to the other. These two societies comprise within their ranks nearly 35,000 of the operative stone-masons of the United Kingdom.

UNITED SOCIETY OF BOILER-MAKERS AND IRON-SHIP BUILDERS.

The following table shows the expenditures of the United Society of Boiler-Makers and Iron-Ship Builders of Great Britain for the year ended December 31, 1873, and for the seven years ended at the same date, with the average cost per member on each account:

	Expended ended 1873.	litu I I	res Dece	for mber	year 31,	ye	end ars , 187	end	rea led l	for Dec	sev due	en
·	Aggreg	rate ciet	for y.		't per mber.		greg 8 800	ate ciet	for y.		n't ;	
On account of sickness. Relief to members traveling. On account of funerals. Surgeons' salaries To superannuated members Salaries Fare of members to situations. Home donations Bonness	£ 4,632 1,091 1,418 281 1,969 1,122 1,153 141 97 180	6. 4 4 0 0 10 13 11 9 10 0	d. 0 3 0 0 5 2 7 0	\$. 7 1 2 0 3 1 1 0 0	d. 55 9 3 5 5 10 10 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	30, 19, 7, 3, 9, 6,	2 314 031 873 484 227 817 (* 400 457 285	0000	0 0 0 0	23 30 00 10 00 00	3	4 3 14 6 94

^{*} The expenditures for officers' salaries during the seven years are not included in the return.

The number of members at the end of 1873 was 13,137; the average number of members for the seven years ended at the same date was 8,573.

The number of members on the 30th of September, 1874, was 14,487; the number of lodges 143; and the cash balance in the hands of the association, £49,208 2s. 6d.

The benefits paid by this society, apart from relief in trade disputes, are in the form of allowances to the sick, unemployed, and superannusted, and to those laid up through accidental injuries, besides doctors' bills, funeral expenses, bonuses, and fares in going to situations.

AMALGAMATED SOCIETY OF RAILWAY SERVANTS.

This society was formed in the beginning of the year 1872, and consists of an executive council and 155 branches. In the report of the general secretary for that year, the number of members constituting said society is represented as being 17,247, with funds on hand to the amount of £2,569. This he regards as being highly encouraging. He says that after the heavy expenses which must naturally fall upon a gigantic society at its commencement, and considering the short time that many of the branches had been opened, and the number of men who, after having joined the society and obtained through its influence that which they sought, immediately abandoned it, such an accumulation of funds speaks well for the future. The improvement in the condition of many of the railwaymen which the society had been able to effect in this short time speaks well for the future power of the society when its members will be increased, its funds augmented, its influence extended, and its organization completed. The executive council, he states, is decidedly opposed to strikes, being of the opinion that if railway men will only be firmly united, they will gain that to which they are entitled without having recourse to any stoppage of work.

The funds of the society are arranged under the following heads,

namely:

Delegate fund. Emigration fund. Investment fund.

Strike fund.

Superannuation fund.

Amount received by the society during the six months ended June 30, 1874:

For dues	£245	4	2
For entrance-fees	193	3	11

The table on the opposite page affords interesting information in regard to the condition and operation at different periods of the associations therein named.

Table showing the number of members, the tneems, expenditures, and Isnd to Arad, of five important associations, with the number, character, and objects of the strikes.

Names of societies.	Date.	Number of members, about—	Total income.	Paid for benefits.	Paid for strikers.	Total ex-	Funds in hand.	Number of etrikes.	Character of strikes.	Object of atrikes.
			75 % 80 %	ર્ચ * વ્ય	. a.	** **	એ એ એ			
	1868	2, 200	2,463 17 4	875 15 64		2,006 10 8	3,006 11 84	i		
	1870	3 300	8,078 9 9	4, 520 2 2	1,808 1 0	7, 407 3 64	3, 275 6 24	1	Partial	To maintain existing scale of wages.
London Society of Compos-	181	3, 500	5,687 11 24	9,985 18		5, 104 10 1	4, 483 1 1	-		
	1878	3, 700	8,158 7 1	2,279 97	3,884 9 10	7,757 4 3	4, 426 2 10	-	General	To raise wages and reduce hours from
Northumberland Miners' Mutnal Confident Asso- cistion.	1873	8.47.41.4 988.000 900.000 570 570	6, 110 13 1	9, 537 8 04	434 0 0	4,808 15 0	6,626 17 3 7,800 0 0 9,910 0 0 14,770 0 0 19,000 0 0		A number of un-	od to 34 per week.
Iron-Founders' Society of England, Ireland, and Wales.;	981 181 181 181 181 181 181 181 181 181	10, 994 10, 019 10, 019 10, 634	20,458 0 0 31,534 0 0 5 31,313 0 0 1 34,748 0 0	8, 402 15 2 21, 109 2 0 15, 686 4 4 12, 536 8 3	274 55 278 50 32 60 00	11, 146 0 0 23, 973 0 0 16, 843 0 0 15, 330 0 0	8, 952 0 0 7, 842 0 0 20, 378 0 0 39, 818 0 0	112°	Unimportant do do do	Various, the strikes being engaged in by different local branches and not in any case by the sectety at large.
-	288	3	8 28	3	•	8 20 20	49, 494 98 1 5			To resist reductions and other on- crowdlments.
The Provincial Typographical Association.	86 55 57 57 57 57 57 57 57 57 57 57 57 57 5	., a.a. 5. 3. 2. 5. 2. 2.	17 11 0 0 0 0		o =0	= 43	= 00	- 22		To resist unfair working of the pieco system. To resist reduction of pay. Various.
Boiler-Makers and Iron-	25 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	9,0,4,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,	1,810 0 0 1,845 0 0 19,060 0 0 21,761 12 0	97 10 0 9, 789 0 0 10, 595 10 6	902 402 110 56 0 4 0 0 0	1,719 0 0 761 5 2 9,889 7 0 13,651 0 0	689 6 9 960 15 2 9, 160 13 0 9, 107 12 8	25		Various. Various. To resist a reduction of wages. To obtain an increase of wages.
Ship-Buildons' Associa- tion.	1871 1873 1873	8,983 11,523 13,137	28, 784 4 5 39, 710 19 0 55, 368 16 0	9,856 13 5 9,973 17 0	1,385 0 0 861 1 8 281 0 2	13, 425 2 10 14, 582 3 0 16, 189 18 0	13, 974 1 6 25, 128 16 0 30, 176 18 0	01 4 W		Lo obtain an increase ou wiges and a reduction of the hours of labor. To obtain an increase of wages. To obtain an increase of wages.

NOTES ON THE FOREGOING SOCIETIES.

*London Society of Compositors.—The secretary of this association, in his return, states that after many vicissitudes, dating from 1816, the society settled down into substantially its present form in 1848. Since the spring of 1871, the payments of members have been 7d. a week. The prices of work have generally been arranged between the society and the masters' association, or between committees of the two associations, appointed at general meetings of the respective bodies. In 1872, however, the masters' association was broken up in consequence of a rupture with the compositors' society.

The secretary further says that from 1810 to 1866 there was no advance in compositors' prices, but that an agitation which was commenced in the latter year resulted in a rise of three shillings per week, and a reduction of hours from 63 to 60 per week, in a rise of three shillings per week, and a reduction of hours from 63 to 60 per week, and a corresponding increase in the prices of piecework and the pay for overtime. The strike of 1870 was confined to two or three offices, whose proprietors would not adhere to the scale of prices agreed upon in 1866. The society withdrew its members and "the offices remain closed to the present time." The strike of 1872 was entered upon to secure a further rise in wages and the prices for piecework, as well as a reduction of the hours of labor from 60 to 54 per week. It was only partially successful, but the secretary states that from 1866 to 1872 inclusive, the society succeeded in raising prices about 15 per cent., concurrently with a reduction of the hours of labor from 63 to 54 hours per week and a considerable henefit in the matter of overtime. 63 to 54 hours per week, and a considerable benefit in the matter of overtime

The item marked (1) in the table includes the purchase of government stocks to the amount of £600. That marked (3) includes £1,106 5s. and that marked (5) £1,114 10s. expended for the same purpose. These three sums must therefore be regarded as rather transferred to capital account than as forming a part of the expenditures

for the years in which they occur.

The items marked (2) and (4) are unusually large, the income of the society during the years 1870 and 1872 having been swelled by special levies to meet the expenses

consequent upon the strikes above referred to.

† Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association.—This society was organized in 1863, with about 2,000 members. It has had no general strike, but in 1865 it expended about £4,000 in support of a long strike of some of its members at Gramlington. The object of this strike, which was an increase of wages, was defeated by bringing men from Cornwall to take the places of the strikers. Only one other strike of importance (lasting only a few weeks) has occurred among the members of this society, but it has contributed thousands of pounds to assist workmen in other trades who were on strike in different parts of the country.

All differences, except those of a general kind, between the members of this society and their employers, are now referred for settlement to a standing committee, (consisting of six employers and six workmen,) which had been in existence for nearly two years at the date of the above returns, and had worked satisfactorily.

The payments of members are 6d, per fortnight, and they receive 10s, per week when on strike or laid up through accident. There is also a death legacy of £2 to members' families, but no allowance in sickness.

Mr. Thomas Burt, recently elected as member of Parliament for Morpeth, has been secretary of this society since 1865, and still retains the position, although the society

provides a deputy to perform the ordinary duties of the office.

† Iron-Founders' Society of England, Ireland, and Wales.—The expenditures of this society for donations, allowances for sickness, accidents, superannuation, funerals and emigration, from 1850 to 1859 inclusive, amounted to £122,714 4s. 8d. Its expenditures on the same accounts, from 1860 to 1869 inclusive, were £248,609 4s. 74d. Expenditures for strikes are not included in these amounts.

§ The Provincial Typographical Association.—The secretary of this association states that the strikes in which it has engaged have had so many different objects that it is impossible to tabulate them fully. The largest expenditures have been incurred in strikes undertaken for the purpose of raising wages, but a very considerable sum has been expended in resisting reductions and other encroachments, including the introduction of an undue number of apprentices.

Up to 1873 the society had no fund for benefits other than relief to men on strikes: but there is a separate organization under the same management, the object of which is to relieve the members while traveling. The fund which that society now has on

hand amounts to about £2,000, which is not included in the above table.

[Boiler-Makers and Iron-Ship Builders.—This society has already been noticed.

It is to be regretted that returns could not be obtained from the Miners' National Union, numbering 140,000 members; the Amalgamated Association of Miners, numbering 45,000; the National Agricultural Laborers' Union, numbering 60,000, and the Federal Union of Agricultural Laborers, numbering 30,000; but these associations are as yet comparatively young, and probably have not settled into a uniform and systematic method of keeping and consolidating their accounts. There is probably a reason, too, why they are not disposed to be communicative as to their financial condition, for their contests with employers have been severe and protracted, in consequence of which their funds are likely to be low. The secretaries, or other prominent representatives of these associations, as well as the secretaries of the Amalgamated Association of Cotton-Spinners, (numbering 14,200,) the East Lancashire Power-Loom Weavers, (numbering 16,000,) and the Amalgamated Iron and Steel Workers, (numbering 20,000,) have been asked for information in regard to their respective societies, but no returns as yet have been received from them.

The societies just named, and those heretofore noticed, comprise all the associations, having 10,000 members or upward, which were represented at the National Trades-Union Congress held at Liverpool in January. 1875.* It has already been remarked that the number of members represented at Liverpool was not less than 800,000, after making full allowance for duplicate representation in the case of some of the city trades-councils; but there are many small organizations, and some of very considerable magnitude, which were not represented in the congress at all. One of these, the Scotch Carpenters and Joiners, has been noticed in these pages; another association of the same trade, which was also unrepresented, has its headquarters in Birmingham, and is said to comprise upward of 20,000 members. Mr. George Potter, of London ta gentleman who is exceedingly well informed on all working-class movements in Great Britain, in a paper read before the Social Science Congress some months ago, estimated the total membership of the trades-unions of the United Kingdom as being certainly not less than 1,200,000, a number which, seeing that it is made up of men, a large proportion of whom have wives and children, represents a very considerable section of the population of the kingdom. "The coal and iron workers," says Mr. Potter, "cannot count fewer in their union than 300,000 men; but as these industries are of comparatively recent development, their unions are not yet so complete in their arrangements as in a short time they are certain to become. Still, even in those trades, wonderful progress has been made in adding provident to trade bene-Sickness and death and accident are provided for in most of them: and in some superannuation is added, as well as provision for widows Time alone is needed to make all this a vast net-work of provident arrangement, by which most of the worst evils of the workingman's situation will be met and overcome. It is sometimes insisted on that the benefits held out by trades-societies to their members can only be continued for a time. Actuaries have proved this. In this matter, however, the calculations of the actuaries have not turned out to be The great trades-associations have always met their obligations to their members, and with the power of levy which they possess they are not likely to fail in this in the future. They know their own business and they do it very well in their own way, with less internal disagreement and less chance of shipwreck through fraud, bad faith, or bad business tact than any other set of societies in the kingdom, whatever their object or by whomsoever worked."

t Mr. Potter is editor of the Beehive, the Trades-Union organ.



^{*}A few of the smaller societies have also been included in the above notices, as well as the Scotch Association of Carpenters and Joiners, who were not represented in the

This is strong commendation; but it must be frankly confessed that the study of their plan of organization, their management, their modes of making the will of their members felt in all matters of vital concern, their precantions against fraud on the part of their officers. their provisions for the discouragement of rash or hasty action in disputes with employers, their penalties for boastful or abusive language. and their carefully guarded arrangements for mutual support and assistance, tends to impress one with a much more favorable opinion then that which is commonly received of the sobriety of conduct, capacity for business and for self-government, solid intelligence and moral status of the men who compose them.

TRADES-UNIONS.

BY MR. J. S. STANLEY JAMES.

The following, forming the concluding part of an article written for this report by Mr. Stanley James, "On the condition of the workingclasses of England," is inserted in this place because of its connection with the preceding chapter:

Trades-unionism in England is an established fact, and a power which, although many politicians try to shirk or avoid, it is best to openly admit. The unprejudiced observer must allow that in England trades-unions have raised workingmen morally observer must allow that in England trades-unions have raised workingmen morally and intellectually, and have taught them a higher sense of their responsibilities. They have increased the prices and shortened the hours of labor; have educated workingmen to a knowledge of their common interest and common duty, and in every sense have raised the character of English workmen. Judge Rupert Kettle, in his work on "Strikes," says, respecting the trades-unions, "They have promoted free thought and free action among the hand-working classes, and, moreover, have taught them to respect the law and rely upon moral means for obtaining what they believe to be right. We have now no bloodshed, no rioting, scarcely an angry word in the bitterest and most protrected strikes. Although we owe this salutary change partly to the improved protracted strikes. Although we owe this salutary change partly to the improved education and the higher moral tone among the laboring class, we owe it much more to the direct and immediate influence of trades-unions." The British Quarterly Review says, "It appears pretty clear that unionism by its influence has, by slow degrees, altered for the better the condition and circumstances of British workmen."

Prior to 1824 all concerted proceedings on the part of workmen for the purpose of raising the rate of wages were punishable both at common law, and under the "combination acts," which were in force both in England and Scotland. In Scotland particularly were these restrictions imposed on workingmen. In 1755 the journeymen wool-combers in Aberdeen formed themselves into a society. "Though their seeming view," said Lord Kames, "was to provide for their poor, yet under that pretext several resolutions were made cramping trade and tending to make them independent of their employers." The judgment of the court before which the men were brought was, "that such combinations of artificers, whether they collect money for a common box, inflict penalties, or make by-laws, are of a dangerous tendency, subversive of peace and order, and against law;" and so under pains and penalties the men were prohibited from continuing such society. In 1762 the court at Edinburgh found "that the defenders and other journeymen tailors of Edinburgh are not entitled to an hour of recess for breakfast, that the wages of a journeyman tailor in the said city ought not to exceed one shilling per day, and that if any journeyman tailor not retained or employed shall refuse to work when requested by a master on the aforesaid terms, unless for some sufficient cause to be allowed by the magistrates, the offender shall, upon conviction, be punished in terms of law; for arts and manufactures which are necessary to the well-being of society, must be subject to rules, otherwise it may be in the power of a few individuals to do much mischief. If the bakers should refuse to make bread, or the brewers to make ale, or the colliers to provide coals, without being subjected to any control, they would be masters of the lives of the inhabitants. To remedy such any control, they would be masters of the lives of the inhabitants. To remedy such an evil there must be a power placed somewhere; and accordingly this power has long been exercised by magistrates of burghs and justices of the peace, under review of the sovereign court." With regard to the propriety of the regulations it was observed that the power to fix wages was admitted, and "it is of no purpose to fix wages without also fixing the number of working hours; and it is to no purpose to fix either if the defenders have the privilege to work or not at their pleasure."

But year by year, during this century, the old-fashioned connection of master and servant, with the quasi-feudal servility on the one hand and patronage on the other,

has passed away, although many prejudices have survived the times when the dominant and the servient positions was rigidly maintained. Some encouragement is given to the continuance of artificial class-distinctions in England by the maintenance on the statute-book of laws passed from time to time to modify and modernize, but not to abolish, the pains and penalties by which, in barbarous ages, labor was enforced. In opposition to the law, trades-unions grew in power and strength every day. Various acts of Parliament were from time to time passed in relation to them, but it was not used for the first that the "trades-union act" was passed, by which they were legalized. Many former disabilities are, however, continued, and secret societies are illegal: "All societies are deemed unlawful combinations the members of which shall take oaths, or engagements in the nature of oaths, or subscribe any test or declaration not to disclose its secrets." According to this law, every trades-society in the United States would be unlawful and its members liable to prosecution.

The trades-unions, acting under the old ban of illegality, have, as I have said, raised the wages and shortened the hours of labor in England. This, however, has been done too often at the loss of friendly feeling, comfort, and confidence between employer and employed. "Strikes" are a barbarous means of adjusting disputes, and much suffering and misery have thereby ensued to the men. The system of arbitration in disputes between employer and employed has, however, been inaugurated with great success. Arbitration was first proposed and carried out by Mr. Rupert Kettle, an eminent barrister, now judge of the Worcester County court. For ten years Judge Kettle has devoted his time to this subject, and has mediated with great success in many large disputes between masters and men in every part of England. Judge Kettle's services (for which he will accept no remuneration) are well known and appreciated by the workingmen, and whenever his decision has been against their claims, they have accepted it loyally and thoroughly. Arbitration is now a principal platform of many of the leading trades-unions. At the last annual conference of the National Association of Miners the following resolution was carried: "That the miners of the various distitutes in the association do all in their power to make arrangements with the employers to form boards of conciliation and arbitration, by which any disputes that may arise between both parties might be amicably settled, without having recourse to the barbarous course of lock-outs." The system of trade-arbitrations is, in fact, now nearly a national one, and Judge Kettle has also the satisfaction of seeing it accepted in a great number of industries in France, where his system was highly commended by the Comte de Paris in his book on the labor question; and in Germany, since its advocacy by the great social economist, Schultze Delitch, and the well-known republican, Dr. Retram.

The leaders of the trades-unions in England have now, indeed, great power. Of Halliday, Burt, Macdonald, and especially of Joseph Arch, it may be said, in the words of the Gaul Liscus to Cassar, "There are some whose influence with the people is very great, who, although private men, have more power than the magistrates themselves."

STRIKES IN ENGLAND.

Closely associated with the history of the British trades unions, is that of those protracted and bitter struggles between workmen and employers, known as "strikes," by which the annals of labor in the present century have been especially marked. One of the earliest was the widespread and long continued strike of the Lancashire cotton-spinners, which took place in 1810. The following particulars of that and several other strikes of British workingmen are taken in a condensed form from the work of Mr. Ward on "Workmen and Wages:"*

In 1810, the spinners in the mills of Manchester, Stockport, Macclesfield, Staleybridge. Ashton, Hyde, Oldham, Bolton, and as far north as Preston, simultaneously left their work, and, had the strike continued a little longer, the whole of Scotland would have As it was, 30,000 persons were thrown out of employment; many of these paraded the streets of the above-mentioned towns during the day, shouting and hooting at the persons who, as they supposed, were inimical to their cause. Disturbances of the peace were frequent; the authorities were inefficient for the protection of property; several masters were unable to leave their mills for fear of some violent outrage and such workmen as were obtained to supply the place of the seceders were held prisoners in the establishments where they worked. The direction of this strike was carried on by a congress at Manchester, formed of delegates from all the principal mills. During this turn-out, the men who had struck were supported by the contributions of those who were at work, and the sums so collected amounted for a considerable period to nearly £1,500 weekly, of which Manchester, alone, paid upward of £600. This fund was for some time sufficiently large to enable the congress to make a weekly payment of 12s. to the spinners who had struck; but the contributions, and consequently the allowances that flowed from them, gradually fell off, till they at length ceased altogether, and those who depended upon them were literally consigned to destitution. When the contributions of those in work, failed, such of the men as had laid by money in the days of prosperity resorted to it for support, and thus were consumed in a hopeless warfare the hard-earned savings of years of industry. The required advance of wages was not obtained in a single instance, and, after four months of protracted misery, the men returned to their work, some even accepting employment at the rate of 2d. per pound, instead of 4d., which they had been previously earning, thus submitting to a reduction of 50 per cent. on their wages, to raise which everything but existence had been staked.

In the year 1824 the spinners in Hyde turned out, much against their will, and solely at the dictation of the union. The reason given for the turn-out was, that the Hyde spinners were working for wages below the regular rate, inasmuch as they were paid 3s. 7d. per 1,000 hanks of No. 40 cotton, while in other places 1s. more was given for the same quantity of work. But the machinery on which the Hyde spinners worked was so superior, that they could, at these comparatively low prices, earn more weekly than the neighboring spinners, who, however, insisted that their Hyde brethren were paid lower wages than themselves, and, therefore, ought to turn out; whereas, it is obvious that they were paid higher wages, in fact, than were given elsewhere. The result of this strike was that the men, after enduring the greatest hardships, and having cost the combination between £3,000 and £4,000, returned to their work at the same wages which they had struck to raise.

In 1830 a strike likewise occurred of more than ordinary magnitude, and threatened at one time extreme violence on the part of the strikers. At Ashton and Staleybridge, 3,000 spinners left their work, by which 52 mills and 80,000 persons were thrown out of work for ten weeks. On this occasion it was necessary to send 1,000 additional troops to that part of the country to preserve order; and had it not been for the judicious measures of the commandant of the district, (Colonel Shaw.) great destruction of life and property, in all probability, would have taken place. The men, however, returned to their work at the same wages which they had been previously receiving.

THE PRESTON STRIKE.

The Preston strike was marked by similar features to those just noticed in the cotton-manufacture of Manchester and the surrounding locality, and ended just as disastrously to the operatives engaged in it, while at the same time it inflicted a great loss,

^{*}The opinions of this author on the merits of the several contests are usually omitted, but where reproduced they are not always in accordance with the views of the author of this report.

upon the community in the immediate and surrounding district. The operatives of Preston struck work on November 5, 1836. The strike lasted thirteen weeks, and the number of persons thrown idle by it were classified as follows: 660 spinners; 1,320 piecers, children employed by the spinners; 6,100 card-room hands, reelers, and power-loom weavers; 420 overlookers, packers, engineers, &c., making 8,500 persons in all. The spinners, who numbered 660, were the only parties who voluntarily left their work, and who threw the others out of employment, so that the 7,840 remaining were completely dependent upon them. The sacrifice, on the part of the piecers, reelers, overlookers, packers, and engineers was severe in the extreme, and the more severe as it was imposed upon them much against their will. The following estimate was made of the pecuniary loss to all classes of the operatives in consequence of the strike:

The wages of the 660 spinners for thirteen weeks, at 22s. 6d	£9,652 4,719
Wages of 6.520 card-room hands, weavers, overlookers, engineers, &c., for thirteen weeks, averaging 9s	38, 142
out	9,500
in consequence of the turn out	8,000
Total	70, 013
From which must be deducted:	
Estimated amount of wages earned during the partial resumption of work, between January 9 and February 5	12, 803
Leaving a net pecuniary loss, to the whole body of the Preston operatives, of. But, to the town at large, it may be said that the loss amounted to the whole sum of £70, 013, as the deductions were mostly of a charitable nature. The loss to the masters, being three months' interest of £800, 000, some of which, being sunk in capital, was not only unproductive, but was	57, 210
taking harm from being rendered useless, was estimated at	45, 000
&c	4, 986
Making a total loss to the town and trade of Preston, in this unavailing struggle, of	107, 196

THE NOTTINGHAM STRIKES.

In February, 1811, the hosiery trade of Nottingham and the neighborhood was in an extremely depressed state, and, as a consequence, large numbers of workmen were reduced to pauperism and the most dire distress. On the 11th of March, great numbers of the country framework-knitters assembled in the market-place and expressed a determination to take vengeance on their employers who had reduced the prices paid for making stockings. Several meetings were held and the framework-knitters resolved to organize themselves, with those of Nottingham and other places, for the purpose of advancing wages and destroying such improved machinery as they supposed injurious to manual labor. Secret midnight meetings were held in various parts of the county, attended by delegates from other districts, who attributed their distress mainly to the introduction of what were then termed wide-machines, in some of which several stockings were woven at one time, while in others shapeless pieces were made for low-priced stockings, called out-ups. Bands of the "Luddites" prowled about at night to destroy the obnoxious machines, but they were so disguised, and so organized, that very few of them were brought to justice, as compared to the number engaged in the undertaking. Upwards of 200 stocking-frames were broken in the short space of three weeks; and one manufacturer had 63 destroyed in a single night, besides other property connected with this trade. The system under which these deluded men acted was called Luddism, which was derived from one Ludlam, a youth of Leicestershire, who, when ordered to "square his needles" by his father, a framework-knitter, took his hammer and beat them into a heap. The destructive operations of the Luddites were repeated at intervals from 1811 to 1817, in which period upwards of one thousand stocking-frames and a number of lace-machines were destroyed in the county of Notting-ham, and the evil spread itself into the counties of Leicester, Derby, Lancaster, and York. In the two latter counties, the object of t

had been introduced to diminish hand-labor, but the frame-breakers in the hosiery and luce-trades had not this grievance to complain of. The Nottingham and Leicester men, however, complained of a diminution in prices, occasioned by the repeal of the act of the 5th of Elizabeth. Until this statute was repealed the framework-knitters were paid by printed statements, drawn up by both parties, the deviation from which, in 1811, and the introduction of wide or cut-up frames, caused the riots, which continued, with various intermissions, till 1817. The plan adopted by the rioters was to assemble in parties of from six to sixty, as circumstances required, under a supposed leader, styled "General Ludd," or "Ned Ludd," as the humor might seize them; and whoever assumed either of these titles had the supreme command of the party, some of whom, armed with swords, pistols, firelocks, and other destructive implements, were placed as guards, while others, having hammers, axes, &c., entered the houses and destroyed the frames. In consequence of the continuance of these outrages, a large military force was dispatched to the locality, and two of the metropolitan-police mag-istrates, assisted by other officers, presided at Nottingham with the view of discovering the ringleaders; but, although a secret committee was formed and supplied with a large sum of money for the purpose of obtaining private information, no discoveries of any importance were effected, and the offenders continued their devastations with redoubled violence. A royal proclamation, however, was issued, offering £50 reward for the apprehension of any of the offenders; but this only tended to inflame the frenzy of the men, who then began to plunder the farm-houses both of money and provisions, declaring that "they would not starve while there was plenty in the land."

The number of unemployed families who were relieved out of the poor-rates in the

three parishes of Nottingham, on the 30th of January, 1812, amounted to 4,248, consisting of no fewer than 15,350 individuals, or nearly one-half of the then population.

In 1813, eighteen Luddites, some of whom were guilty of murder and arson, were hung at York; and in the same year an act was passed which made it a crime punishsble with death to break a stocking-frame. Seven Luddites were also transported from Nottingham, and several of the leaders in Leicestershire, in 1816 and 1817, were executed in front of the county gaol. Since that period, the framework-knitters, too miserably paid, have periodically had recourse to more temperate and more sensible measurements. ures in their endeavors to better their condition; and in 1819 those in Leicester and the neighborhood formed themselves into a union, in which those who were employed contributed to the support of the unemployed, in order to prevent the decline in wages which had fallen nearly one-half since 1815. In this undertaking they were assisted by the contributions of the benevolent to the amount of more than £3,000, as well as by loans of money and the assistance of the principal manufacturers; and about the close of the year 1823 things began to take a turn, trade being so much improved that there was scarcely a man out of employ. The frame-knitters' union was dissolved, having distributed, during a period of four years, no less than £16,182 among the unemployed. The wages, however, of the frame-knitters continued to decline, until they reached little more than an average of 5s. per week after deducting frame-rents and other shop-charges, though certain expert hands could earn twice that sum.

In 1843, a petition, signed by upward of 25,000 framework-knitters of Leicestershire. Nottingham, and Derbyshire, was presented to the House of Commons for an inquiry into their distressed condition arising from the low rate of wages, the enormous exactions for frame-rent, the prevalence of the wuck-system, or payments of wages otherwise than in money, and the manufacture of spurious articles called cut-ups. In February 1944 The Maintaine of spurious articles called cut-ups. ruary, 1844, Her Majesty issued a commission to inquire into their grievances. body of information was collected and published in a copious report. The heaviest

grievance complained of in this inquiry was the frame-rents.

The system of frame-rents and "charges" is one of the most oppressive that can possibly be conceived. It grinds the poor stocking-weaver almost down to the dust; at least there is little left of his weekly earnings when the rents or "charges" are deducted from them. The evidence, both of masters and men, is perfectly conclusive and coincident on one point, namely, that the amount of this deduction is regulated by no fixed rule or principle; that it is not dependent upon the value of the frame, upon the amount of money earned in it, or on the extent of the work made; that it has differed in amounts at different times and at different places; that the youthful learner or apprentice pays the same rent from his scanty earnings as the most expert and skillful workman in the trade from his, of fourfold the amount, and that the practice of this "charge" has existed for upward of a century. The grievance began with the bagman engrossing the frames and letting them out to hire. It was the beginning of a powerful and crushing monopoly on the part of the masters to exercise the right to charge, on the one hand, a fixed weekly rental for the use of a tool to work with, and, on the other, to reserve to themselves the right to prevent the renter of the tool from the free and uncontrolled use of it during the time it was rented. Further, when the bagman could not find full employment, he prevented the renter of the tool from working it for other parties. He also exercised the right of

only allowing the workmen to begin at a certain hour, and leave off work at another certain hour. To increase, moreover, his power of control, he kept on further engrossing the frames, by which he acquired the means to forestall the markets, and retain the power of making what deductions he pleased. A petition was referred to a committee of the House of Commons as long ago as 1777, in regard to these encroachments on the rights of the workmen, and they agreed that the petitioners ought to have redress, but upon bringing in a bill it was defeated by the activity and energy of the hosiers, who had organized a powerful parliamentary opposition to it.

Notwithstanding the miserable condition of the frame-work knitters, and the evils they have to contend against, strikes have done them infinitely more harm than good. whenever they have been resorted to for the removal of their grievances. General strikes, however, are very rare in the hosiery trade; the number of workmen, and their being distributed so widely about, preventing anything like the unanimity which is necessary to secure perfect organization with such a view, to say nothing of the

scarcity of funds among the men.

It must, we think, be obvious that nothing can be more intolerable than the professed objects for which unions are generally formed—the maintenance of an established list of prices for labor-because, in the first place, they are powerless in controlling the influence on wages which the supply of labor ever bears to the demand for it; and, in the next, the unions have not the means of discerning the amount that the manufacturer can afford to pay for wages, as one only of the elements in the cost of production, which would leave him a profit sufficient to induce him to continue the investment of his capital in the manufacture.

In many cases, after a long struggle, and extensive injury both to masters and men. the latter have been forced to resume work on the terms they had previously turned

out against, and occasionally even on less advantageous ones.

THE STAFFORDSHIRE COLLIERY STRIKE.

The narrative of the Staffordshire colliery strike is a sad tale, and soon told. It is the history of a hopeless struggle, which was generated in ignorance of the plainest economic laws, and ended as all such struggles must end, in painful discomiture and

defeat on the part of the men engaged in it.

Getes on the part of the men engaged in it.

On the 4th of July, 1864, just six years after the preceding general strike in 1858, the fortnight's notice of the masters having expired, the thick-coal men all turned out. For a time they were joined by the working engineers, and by the men employed at the blast-furnaces in the making of pig-iron; but these, after a short struggle, gave up the contest, and resumed work on the terms proposed by the masters, which were a reduction of ten per cent. The thin-coal workers in the Bilston and were a reduction of ten per cent. The thin-coal workers in the Bilston and Wolverhampton districts did not at first join the movement, for they accepted the reduction, and were at work, when, by repeated entreaties on the part of the thickcoal men, they, too, were induced to turn out, some of them without giving notice. This naturally led to magisterial proceedings, and the thin-coal men ultimately all went in and gave notice. On the expiration of that notice, they all turned out, but they did not remain out more than a week, and three-fourths of them at once accepted the masters' terms. It will, therefore, be seen that the thick-coal men were the first to object to the terms which the masters offered; and the objection became most powerfully displayed among the men who were employed in the domestic trade at West Bromnich, and in the general trade about Dudley and Tipton. In the latter districts, the chief employer is the Earl of Dudley. Other masters took the same course, and, seeing that the men intended stoutly to contest the point, they began at once to make arrangements for getting supplies of coal for carrying on the pig-iron and the finishedsiren works, respectively, from other districts. Lancashire, Derbyshire, North Staffordshire, and North and South Wales, were at once applied to. The application met with a ready response, and so great was the demand, that every description of wagon had to be used to bring the coal from those districts. The railway companies were ready to run as many special trains as the ordinary traffic would allow, so that the enormous quantity of 10,000 tons of coal was daily brought into Staffordshire. The strike-committee attempted to cut off the supplies, by sending delegates into the districts we have named, with a view to induce the colliers to refuse to get coal to be used in an attempt to defeat the men in Staffordshire. But the attempt was unsuccessful. The colliers at a distance did not believe that they had a right to dictate to their masters 28 to what market they should send their coal, but were ready to contribute to the support of their brethren on strike. Simultaneously with this refusal on the part of the colliers at a distance, there were evidences at home of a want of unanimity. Men who felt that their masters would ultimately win the day, returned to work in small numbers throughout the whole of the district. There were 30,000 out when the strike was at its height in September, but that number had fallen to about 18,000 in the middle of the month. To prevent these from going to work, morning meetings, at between 4 and 5 o'clock, were determined upon, and thence detachments moved off in different directions, headed by drums and whistles. Wherever men were met on the road going to work, they were sure to be prevented from going down that day, ally, it required much persuasion to bring about such a result, but when that failed, other means of a less agreeable character were resorted to; and when men succeeded in getting to work, unobserved, they were met as they returned, and assailed with the usual epithets of "black-leg," and the like, the presence of the police as their guard notwithstanding. A few of the more desperate resorted, for the first time in the history of a colliers' strike in Staffordshire, to the throwing of rough hand-grenades into the houses of the men who had gone to work; and as the threats became more and more vehement, the police had to interfere at the morning meetings, which were ultimately prohibited. The result was that the number of men—encouraged by two troops of lancers, who were headed by the lord-lieutenant of the county, and by the stipendiary magistrate for South Staffordshire—was quickly enlarged, and work in the pits was very soon resumed.

THE POTTERY STRIKES.

The strikes in the pottery-trade in the years 1834 and 1836, also "point a moral and

adorn a tale" of more than ordinary interest in relation to workingmen.

The Staffordshire potteries, as the locality is ordinarily termed, comprise parts of three parishes, and extend, from north to south, a distance of eight miles. Four of the principal towns are included within this limit, of which Burslem is the oldest in the district; and the first in rank next to this town are Hanley and Shelton, which may be said to form one town, as they are immediately contiguous to each other, and are the most populous. At the census of 1831, the population of the several towns within the parish of Stoke-upon-Trent was 35,602; in the parish of Burslem, 12,714; and in the township of Tunstall, in Wolstanton Parish, 3,673; making a total of 51,969. Since that period the population has more than doubled.*

All the processes of the manufacture of rottery are performed by manual labor, and no machinery, in the common acceptation of the term, is used. Every branch in the trade is healthy, with the exception of that employed in covering the surface of the ware with glaze, or (as it is technically called) "dipping." The regular working-time on which all calculations of wages are based is fifty-four hours per week, or an average of nine hours per day; but when goods are in great demand, the workmen are often required to make greater exertions, and the time is extended to sixty-six hours

per week, or an average of eleven hours per day.

The operative potters, as a body, earn fully as good if not better wages than the workmen of any other staple trade in the kingdom, and full employment is afforded at suitable occupations to women and children. In a statement published by the chamber of commerce previous to the general strike, and circulated throughout the kingdom, there are the following remarks on the subject of the earnings of the workmen, which have been authenticated by the proper authorities:

Two or three years ago, when wages were considered low, the weekly average was from 17s. to 21s. for men, according to their skillfulness; 7s. to 9s. for women, and 3s. 6d. to 4s. 6d. for children fourteen years old. The average earnings in regular branches are now from 21s. to 28s. for men, 9s. to 12s. for women, and 4s. to 6s. for children, the

labor being calculated at nine hours per day.

The operative potters, in their general character, are industrious and orderly, and possess the comforts of life to a considerable extent. For ten years previous to the strike, wages had been undergoing a progressive advance, caused in part by the operation of the potters' union, but more by an uninterrupted demand for goods, which left few skilful hands out of regular employment. At no period since the establishment of the trade was the remuneration for labor so ample as at the time of the general strike in 1836.

The first union of the workmen known in the potteries, for the purpose of regulating prices, was established in 1824. In 1825 the hands at a number of manufactories struck for an advance of wages, but during the continuance of the strike the well-remembered commercial panic of that year occurred which frustrated their endeavors, and work was resumed at the same or lower prices than those previously paid. One of the expedients of the union at that time was to commence manufacturing, and, by thus making the surplus hands a source of profit, it was thought a waste of funds would be prevented, and at the same time the competition for employment would be checked.

The union was dissolved, but its leaders met with considerable difficulty in obtaining employment, and some left the district, while others took to other occupations. One of the leaders of the union, however—a man of some mark in his way, who had subsequently changed his views on the subject-made the following observations in a letter

oublished just previous to the strike of 1836:
"These simple facts will illustrate the nature of unions, their utter inefficiency, the factious spirit they cherish, the false principles on which they are founded, the mate-

^{*} Journal of the Statistical Society, vol. 1.

rials of which they are ordinarily composed, and the ruinous effects to which they lead. We spent nearly £3,000 to prop up a fallacious delusion; labor fell lower than ever in 1826, in consequence of the depression of trade. Many of the men were ruined and went in at any price. Many, before in comfort, dragged on a miserable existence on parish-pay, having offended their employers beyond forgiveness."

In 1834, another attempt was made at manufacturing by the workmen. A manufactory was taken at Burslem, on a lease for a term of years, and seven of the men who tory was taken at Burstein, on a lease for a term of years, and seven of the line with had accumulated property entered into engagements for the payment of the rent. A capital, amounting to £500, was advanced from the general fund, and two of the most active members of the union had the management. This concern struggled through an existence of eighteen months; the capital was entirely lost, all parties became disestisfied with each other, and those connected with the lease were happy at being discharged from their responsibilities on almost any terms.

In November, 1834, the end of the potters' year, the workmen at ten manufactories in Burslem and Tunstall struck for an advance of wages. The advance demanded was

an average of thirty-five per cent. upon the current rate.

On the lst of March, after a stoppage of fifteen weeks, the manufactories were opened, and masters yielded to the demands of the men. The number of hands employed by the ten manufacturers was at least 3,300, and the weekly amount of wages exceeded £1,900. The total loss in wages alone sustained by the workmen was estimated at £27,000. To this amount must be added the loss sustained by the masters on their dormant capital, the loss to the working colliers, and to the other branches immediately dependent upon the potters.

The workmen were naturally elated at the victory which they had achieved, and had the weakness to delude themselves with the idea that nothing could stand against their combined will. The leaders of the union assumed to regulate all matters that

related to the workmen and their employers.

Further concessions were demanded from time to time, and finally the masters found it impossible to comply with these demands, and submit to the course of conduct pursued, without appearing to abandon the general interests of the trade. Therefore, in March, 1836, the great body of the manufacturers formed themselves into a society under the designation of a chamber of commerce, the professed object of which was to protect the general interests of the trade, but virtually to counteract the effect of

the proceedings of the workmen.

It had already appeared, that, notwithstanding an agreement to the contrary, the workmen were enabled to effect their object, by causing the hands at any manufactory to strike until their demands were conceded. To counteract this, no other plan presented itself to the chamber than that of inserting a clause in the agreement, whereby the masters might, as a body, be enabled to suspend their manufactories whenever the workmen of any master struck, in violation of any existing contract. Such a clause was drawn up, under the sanction of high legal authority, and the masters determined on its ferming part of their agreement. The contest on the part of the masters was limited to these objects—to maintain the established wages of the trade, to continue the mode of hiring from year to year, and to make an alteration in the form by adding the protective clause named. Workmen thought, however, that if the old mode of enforcing their demands was then adopted, the same result would follow; and the hands at fourteen manufactories struck work, although they were under agreement to the end of the year. The chamber of commerce took the case of these fourteen manufacturers into consideration, and urged them to oppose the proceedings of their workmen. Pecuniary recompense was promised, on a scale proportionate to the relative extent of their business, until Martinmas, the time when the suspension of the whole body would offer a more formidable resistance. The workmen, week after week, deceived themselves with the hope that the masters would not continue united; that certain individuals, among those whose men had struck, would soon yield rather than sacrifice their connections; and that the secession of one would be the signal for the surrender of all the others. No change was made in this state of things until Martinmas, when sixty-four manufacturers, members of the chamber, suspended business, as they had previously resolved.

The number of hands employed at the fourteen manufactories which struck in September was 3,500, and the weekly payment of wages was at an average £2,560. The The number of total loss to the district on this strike may be estimated at £31,168. hands employed at the 64 manufactories engaged in the general strike was 15,660, and the amount of wages was at an average £11,238 per week. The loss to the whole district on this strike may be estimated at £157,442. There are in the potteries 130 manufactories, which employ 20,000 hands, and pay in weekly wages £14,400. It would thus appear that about half the total number of manufacturers were engaged in the wrike; but as they were the greatest in extent of business, they employed seven-ninths of the total number of hands and paid four-fifths of the whole amount of wages.

The union was completely defeated, not having succeeded in any one of its points. On the 20th of January, 1837, twenty-one weeks from the commencement of the strike

with the fourteen manufactories, and ten weeks from the general suspension, the men resumed work. The annual hiring was retained, and the suspension clause formed part of the agreement. The extent of suffering was great, and far beyond anything that had previously been seen in the district. The payments from the union funds were very irregular and did not exceed an average of 5s. or 6s. per week for men with families; while women and children, who form a large proportion of the working population, did not receive any allowance. The privations of the workmen were great, but they bore them with a constancy worthy of a better cause. A few days before the termination of the strike a considerable number of individuals, amounting to upwards of 200, simultaneously pledged their watches and disposable articles of dress in aid of the general funds. Many of the more provident workmen, who had money in the savings-banks of the district, drew it out, either for the supply of their own necessities or to assist the union.

According to a financial statement the total loss inflicted by the strike from first to last was as follows:

Total loss to the operative potters£	152, 816
Total loss to colliers, crate-makers, and engravers	19, 332
Total loss to the manufacturers	16, 462

No outrage was committed during the strike, either on the person or property of any manufacturer. There were no tumultuous gatherings, nor indications of violence, which was highly creditable to the men. During the strike, however, many of the manufacturers were "picketed," and any individual seen to enter the manufactories incurred a fine, which was stopped from the succeeding week's allowance. Such a regulation might be necessary in support of a bad cause, but could scarcely be required in one founded upon justice; and it was surprising that men who, from their conduct, appeared to understand so well their rights, and who were so sensitive under what was deemed oppression, should submit thus to be controlled in the operation of their own free will and perfect liberty of action.

YORKSHIRE STRIKES.

The Yorkshire strikes, as they are commonly denominated, furuish a curious and instructive chapter in the history of the manufacturing classes. In 1831, the stubbers, spinners, and weavers in the cloth trade formed a union. One of the leading firms at Leeds was the first to feel the effect of the combination. They had just completed a building on a gigantic scale intended for the weaving of fine woolen cloth. All the expensive machinery adapted for that purpose had been purchased and erected, and every necessary arrangement for commencing the business had been made, when the weavers, to the number of 210, turned out, although the wages they had been receiving were equal to those received by others of their class, and averaged 17s. a week. For some weeks the required advance in wages was resisted, until at length those mea who continued at their work were subjected to such treatment, on entering and leaving the factory, that the proprietors were induced to accede to the terms proposed. The men, however, were disappointed in obtaining all the advantages they looked for, as only a sufficient number of weavers were taken back to work the looms in the old part of the establishment, leaving their newly-erected building unused. The owners soon after disposed of all the machinery it contained, and this commodious and spacious structure, 136 yards in length, stood untenanted for some time, a melancholy monument to the effect of misguided union policy. The union men, however, thought otherwise, and deemed the emptiness of the unrivaled structure a triumph of their cause. The men engaged in the various processes of finishing, as well as milling or fulling woolen cloth, joined the union; and the workmen, for a period, wielded almost irresistible power over the property of their masters.

The next step of the union was to draw up a list of wages to be paid for spinning, weaving, &c., which was published in the newspapers. This document assumed the

The next step of the union was to draw up a list of wages to be paid for spinning, weaving, &c., which was published in the newspapers. This document assumed the air of a proclamation, and was headed "a scale of prices to be observed by mill-owners, manufacturers, &c.," and had appended to it regulations as to the admission of boys, and the proportion in which they were to be employed, relatively to the number of adults. The workmen were then ordered by the committee of the union to demand of their respective employers compliance with this scale of wages, care being taken that the manufacturers should be successively applied to for this purpose, in order that there might be less chance of any general resistance on their part, and that the combination might not have too much on their hands at any one time. The larger number of the masters acceded to these demands, and their names were duly published in the Leeds newspapers.

The workmen, however, with a logic peculiarly their own, contended that this scale was not a rise of wages, but only what they termed an "equalization" of them—it being a principal object of their union to compel the masters to pay every operative

good, bad, or indifferent, an equal sum for his labor. But the workmen failed to gain. the expected advantage from this advance of wages, as the masters were prevented by the state of the market from making beyond a certain quantity of cloth, and that only of the superior qualities, while paying the advanced rate of wages; they consequently either sent their yarn to be woven in the neighboring villages, where wages were always lower than at Leeds, or stopped part of their works entirely; and thus a great many of the men were thrown permanently out of employ, who, of course, had to be

supported by those who got work.

Trade, both home and foreign, was materially injured by these contests. Some of the manufacturers managed to escape the losses they would otherwise have sustained The union made by making alterations in spinning the yarns and setting the webs. new regulations to meet this contrivance, which were counteracted by fresh evasions on the part of the manufacturers, and thus a war of cunning and contrivance was carried on between masters and men, in which the latter were sometimes beaten, and in some instances they voluntarily requested their employers to return to the old system and prices. The evil of these proceedings was that the goodness of the cloth was impaired by the alteration of the gear and spinning, and the public had to pay in the deteriorated quality of the cloth they purchased, while our foreign trade was doubtless injured by these futile and absurd attempts of the workmen to raise their wages beyoud the natural level. The union, however, was nothing daunted by these drawbacks. It commenced a system of interference in the management of the manufacturers' business by requiring them, in case of a contraction of their scale of production, not to discharge any of their workmen, but to supply all, in equal proportions, with the work that remained.

The tyranny of the union at length knew no bounds, and the committee, like all ignorant men in the possession of authority, for which they are totally unfit from sheer incapacity, ran riot in the exercise of power, and frequently displayed the mere wan-

tonness of passion and caprice.

The most remarkable strike that arose from this union took place in 1833, by which over a thousand hands were thrown out of employment. The turn-out in this ended in the complete discomfiture of the men, and it forms the only instance in these trades of a manufacturer having single-handed defied the whole power of one of the most extensive unions in England, and at length gaining the victory. Every mode of annoyance which the union could devise was put in practice on that occasion. This strike was the cause of the invention of the wool-combing machine, which wholly superseded the labor of the combers, who were the chief ringleaders in the affair, and inflicted a blow on the combination from which it never afterward recovered.

ENGINEERS' STRIKE.

The Amalgamated Engineers' strike of 1851-'52, was, in most respects, like other strikes, intolerant and injudicious. It was a foolish attempt to organize labor upon principles which have hitherto proved fallacious, and which, on their application, have uniformly resulted in destroying that which they assume to protect and uphold. regards the principle which should regulate their particular class of labor—and, indeed, all labor—they do not appear to have had a very clear and just perception. The preamble to their rules is worded as though the association was simply a benefit club, or a friendly society; but as we travel on we find an ominous sentence or so, which at once throws a steady light upon the purport and intent of the body. They look upon their "vested interests," as they term them, as analagous to those of a physician who holds a diploma, or of an author who is protected by a copyright.

As regards wages and the hours of labor, the council says that the wages in a certain kind of work shall be not less than 35s. per week. The relative merits of workmanship or individual skill have nothing to do with the question; these elevated qualities must be lowered to suit the comparatively weak and unskillful, and no man shall presume to raise himself above mediocrity. They are under orders, it will be seen, in all the daily business of their lives. They work, or are idle; they earn, or are destitute; they go out or come in; they obey or disobey their employers; they prosper, or suffer, according to order. If there is anything more despotic than this in the broadest social-

ism denounced on the continent, we have never heard of it.

After a protracted struggle between the Amalgamated Engineers and their employers, in which a good deal of ill-will was generated, the dispute virtually terminated in the un-

conditional submission of the men to the terms required of them.

The immediate cause of the strike was the desire on the part of the men, to abolish overtime and piecework. The effect of piecework and overtime, according to the views of the council, is that it causes redundancy of labor. There is, perhaps, never too much for all the hands there are to do it—generally too little; and if men work overtime, or increase production by piecework, they also increase the disproportion between the labor there is to be done and the number of hands to do it. Those hands, thrown unemployed upon the labor-market, become at once the competitors of the men in work

and a burden on the funds of the society to which they belong. They at the same time draw upon the resources of the workers, and enable the employer, by pitting one class against the other, to diminish those resources; and thus a universal game of "beggar my neighbor" is set up, and the broken of to-day become the breakers of to-

A more extended account than the above brief abstract of Mr. Ward's chapter on the strike of the Amalgamated Engineers in 1851-'52 would, no doubt, prove instructive, but preference is given to the following history of the engineers' strike on the Tyne, prepared expressly for this report by Evan R. Jones, Esq., United States consul at Newcastle-upon-Tyne:

THE ENGINEERS' STRIKE ON THE TYNE.

Since the great Preston strike in 1854, when 17,000 cotton-operatives turned out for an advance of 10 per cent. on their wages, England has not witnessed such a determined contest between capital and labor as the engineers' strike in Newcastle and district for a reduction of the hours of labor from fifty-nine to fifty-four hours per week. It will be remembered that the cotton-operatives were unsuccessful, after enduring the hardhips and privations consequent upon such a strife for thirty-six weeks; whereas the Newcastle engineers, at the end of a twenty-week strike, carried on with great ability and resolution on both sides, won the day, and completely revolutionized the labor-market of Great Britain.

The nine-hour movement had been agitated with varying zeal for many years, and on the 1st of April, 1871, it showed signs of life at the neighboring town of Sunderland, when a large number of engineers came out on a strike for the success of the enterprise. The men achieved a victory after a short struggle of four weeks and two

days.

The masters on the Tyne, taking warning from the attitude assumed by the men at Sunderland, held a meeting on the 8th of April (one week after the commencement of the Sunderland strike) and pledged themselves to aid and support the Sunderland masters in resisting the demands of the men. As already shown, the employers at that

town were not equal to the emergency.

On the 10th of April the Newcastle engineers held a meeting with a view of procuring aid for their fellow-workmen on strike, and to take the necessary preliminary steps toward extending the arena of struggle to include Newcastle. The workmen were in council quite frequently during the following weeks; the idea of striking for the nine-hours system was fast becoming popular, and on the evening of the 2d of May the movement assumed definite shape in a circular, which was couched in firm but respectful language, asking a reduction of the hours of labor from fifty-nine to fifty-four hours per week, and expressing an earnest desire to settle the matter "without a resort to extreme measures." This was signed by "the acting committee of the Nine-Hours League," and sent to the various employers of engineers on the Tyne, with a request that an answer might be returned before the 12th of the same month.

Upon the day following the receipt of the circular, the masters met at the Station Hotel for its consideration, Sir William Armstrong in the chair, and the proposition of the Nine-Hours League was unanimously declined in a letter addressed to the sec-

retary of the league by the solicitors of the masters.

Both employers and employed were now organized for the coming battle, the clouds were gathering from all points of the compass, and a storm was inevitable. the respect which is due to the masters and to their able chairman for his efforts on their behalf, I must be permitted to compliment the men, and especially the league committee, for the sound policy which dictated most of their movements from the beginning. They evinced particular solicitude that their cause should stand well with the people, and the many stratagems which they executed during the campaign stamp

them as apt politicians.

The next move by the league was a proposition to appoint six of their number to meet a like number of their employers "to try to come to some understanding," but unfortunately a small body of men had already turned out, and the masters declined the meeting, stating that they would have suggested a written communication from the league in preference to a meeting, but for the fact that a strike had already taken place. This communication, like the first, reached the men through a law-firm, a course peculiarly distasteful to the men. Not only did the masters decline to meet their workmen, they would not even communicate with them, save through the medium of their legal advisers. The men were hurt, offended. The masters considered this the wisest mode of procedure. I believe firmly that it precipitated the strike and added fuel to the flame.

On Saturday, May 20, the league held another meeting, and, after discussing the reply of the masters, the following resolution was passed almost unanimously:

"This meeting, feeling that the time for energetic action has arrived, recommends the

following factories to come out on strike as soon as they have worked a legal notice. (one week:) Hawthorn & Co., Forth Banks, Thompson & Boyd, Abbott & Co., Black, Hawthorn & Co., Joicey, Elswick Engine-Works, T. Clark & Co., and Clark, Watson & Gurney.

The men now became enthusiastic in favor of the movement, and 7,500 gave in their

notices, as authorized by the foregoing resolution.

The flour-dealers took time by the forelock, and declared through the daily papers

that in the event of a strike the staff of life would be sold for cash only.

On Wednesday, the 24th, a committee of the chamber of commerce memorialized the mayor to offer his services as a mediator to the parties in dispute in order to avert, if possible, the threatened calamity, who undertook the delicate duty. On the following day a deputation from the league waited upon him and stated their grievances and the redress sought for. The mayor next called upon the masters assembled at the Station Hotel and explained to them the position assumed by the men and suggested a meeting of six of the masters and six of the men to discuss the question in all its bearings. In answer to a question, he stated that he did not consider himself authorized to make the proposition, but believed that the men would make overtures for such a to make the proposition, but believe that such a proposal would be entertained by the masters. The masters had, upon the day previous, resolved that united opposition be given to the strike which has commenced, and the mediation of the mayor was unavailing. The employers evidently did not deem it advisable to meet the men, but stated that they would "at all times be ready to receive and carefully consider any written communication from them."

By the following Saturday, several thousands of the men, having worked the legal

notice, left the various shops, not to return on Monday morning.

The men employed at the locomotive and engine works of Messrs. Robert Stephenson & Co. had not east their lot with the engineers of the other shops, but, acting independently, applied for the nine hours' concession; their application was made known to the head of the firm at London, and elicited a kind letter, setting forth the facts bearing on the case and the reasons why it would be incompatible with the circumstances in which the proprietors were placed, and ultimately injurious to the interests of the workmen themselves, to make the proposed reduction in the hours of labor.

Mr. Stephenson, in his communication, stated that the manufacture of locomotive and marine engines had encountered severe competition at home and abroad, and to meet that competition the proprietors had submitted to an enormous increase in the expenditure of capital for the purchase of new tools and expensive machinery, which could only yield a return for the outlay while it was at work, and a consequence of the adoption of the nine-hour movement would be an immediate serious loss, as the quantity of work would be materially reduced by a shortening of the time, while the fixed He also added charges for rent and expenses of management would remain the same. that there was no probability that the competition would be diminished; and as the proprietors had, during the recent period of depression, accepted large contracts which were in themselves unremunerative, for the express purpose of keeping their men and machinery employed, the question became particularly serious in their case, as they could not fail to foresee that acquiescence in the present demand would endanger the stability of the establishment itself, which had at all times consulted the best interests of the workmen.

I have thus given a brief summary of the argument adduced against the reduction of the hours of labor to show the magic of a few kind, considerate words upon the brawny sons of toil, Mr. Stephenson having always treated his men with the utmost kindness, and having abstained from joining any combination of employers in opposi-tion to workmen. The result was that the 1,400 men employed at the works of Messrs. Stephenson & Co. never left their work for a single hour. Had the answer reached

them through a law-office, things might have been different.

During the months of June and July, the officers of the league exerted themselves in procuring funds from their class, in the various large towns in the country, and in securing employment elsewhere for the men on strike. This enabled them to make more liberal distributions of money to those remaining at Newcastle. The first allowance of 3s. per man was made on the 6th of June, to the men who were the first to stop work. During the following week a general apportionment of 1s. 9d. per man was made. These money-allotments, at first trifling and irregular, were soon established as weekly payments, and steadily increased in amount, so that toward the end of July the men were receiving 4s. each and 1s. for every child. The number of men entitled to relief had by this time been reduced from something like 8,000 to 2,770. The United States obtained some first-class workmen during the progress of this strike.

During the two months specified several meetings of the workmen were held on the town moor, when the officers rendered an account to the men of their stewardship, and urged them to stand firmly to the end.

All the initiatory steps for these mass-meetings were taken with a view of creating

as much enthusiasm as possible, for quite a number of those on strike were beginning to lose that necessary element in battle, under the influence of short rations. A procession was regularly formed; numerous flags and appropriate mottoes were distributed at intervals along the line, the band struck up, and the procession moved through

the principal streets to a stand previously erected on the moor.

Efforts were again made by independent gentlemen to have this difficulty between employers and employed settled. Mr. C. M. Palmer, head of the large ship-building establishment at Jarrow, offered his services as peace-maker, and masters and men were finally brought face to face, through his good offices. The meeting was held at the conneil-chamber, and amounted to this: The masters stated that they had a compromise to offer, providing the men would agree to vote upon its acceptance or rejection by ballot. The representatives of the league declined the proposition. They objected to having the masters dictate to them how the question should be decided, and here in my opinion they showed a want of confidence in the result of a secret vote. To say that they were so excessively sensitive and independent as to refuse a good proposition, simply because it came from the masters, would be to do them an injustice.

On the 2d of August, the compromise which the masters desired to submit to a vote by ballot by the men became known through the medium of large posters put in conspicuous places about the town; after stating among other things that their worke would be "opened at the usual hours for the re-engagement of their men." On the

following morning they proceeded to give the rules to be observed by those who would resume labor, from which I extract the following:

"Working-hours inside: The working-hours to be fifty-seven per week, arranged as

may be agreed on between the employers and workmen.

"Working-hours outside: Time actually at the work or on board ship only to be reck-A fixed time-allowance to be added for traveling, so as to make the total hours equal to shop-hours.

"Allowances and traveling expenses to remain as at present.

"Overtime: All time over and above fifty-seven hours per week to be valued at rate and a quarter, except in case of workmen required to work all day, and the whole or a portion of the succeeding night, who will be paid at the rate of time and a half for the time worked after 10 o'clock.

"All work on Sunday to be considered special, and the hours worked to be valued

as at present, with usual meal-hours."

The compromise met with decided opposition from the league, and entirely failed in

its object.

The masters, still determined to combat the nine-hours movement to the end, began to look elsewhere for the labor denied them at home. Agents were sent to the manufacturing towns in this country, and to the continent, to employ engineers for the various works. A counter-plot was set on foot by the league. The various trades societies throughout the country were requested to foil the efforts of the masters. An agent was sent to Belgium to make known to the workmen of that country the nature of the struggle going on between capital and labor on the Tyne. The strife now became bitter and relentless. The masters appealed to employers of labor throughout Great Britain for material aid toward resisting the demands of the men. The league had already canvassed the country for assistance toward maintaining the struggle, which by this time was generally acknowledged to be of national importance.

The month of August was spent by the contending parties in prosecuting their re-

spective plans, with a view of obtaining the victory.

By this time the efforts of the employers to import labor was bearing fruit. the letter of Sir William Armstrong to the London Times, dated September 12, I find that the total number of workmen introduced to this district from England, Scotland, and the continent amounted to 1,917, to which is added 1,375, who either never left their work, had been hired on the spot, or had returned to their engagements, making in all 3,000 hands.

It is but fair to state, however, that this exhibit is qualified by Mr. Burnett, the president of the league, who says that the 1,375 hauds who had either continued at work, had been engaged in the district, or had been imported from without, can only be made up by including clerks, draughtemen, and foremen, a class which formed a very great proportion of those then at work, especially in the establishment of Sir William

Armstrong and partners

The mission of Mr. Cohn, the agent of the league on the continent, was destined to be short-lived. The authorities interfered, and he was permitted to return to London. But his failure abroad only stimulated him to extra exertions at home, and by his persuasive eloquence he induced many of the Germans, Norwegians, and Belgians to return to their native land. The masters, through their agent, had entered into a contract with the foreigners for a service of six months. It was therefore necessary that every precaution should be taken to conceal all movements preparatory to their departure from the masters and police, for by this act they were violating their contracts and were

amenable to the law. In their endeavors to run the blockade toe strangers left their trunks behind them, many having previously put themselves inside of no less than five shirts and three pairs of trowsers. They usually decamped under cover of darkness, and were piloted to steamers about to sail by guides from the league, their passage

being already provided for.

During the months of August and September the masters brought actions at law against a large number of men for breach of contracts, and against a few for assault and kindred complaints. I must be permitted to add that actions for assault and disorderly conduct were of a trivial nature and rare of occurrence. Indeed, the men on strike acquitted themselves throughout the prolonged struggle in an orderly, peaceful, and highly creditable manner, and this while their places at the lathe and the anvil were being filled by strangers, while the pale cheek of the wife and the pitiful cries of the child made the heart bleed, while the arm that could relieve them was doomed for a time to hang paralyzed by the workman's side.

I felt that the employers would be among the first to come forward and indorse the

verdict I have pronounced.

If such injurious measures as strikes are again resorted to in this and other countries may the noble example of the Newcastle engineers for law and for order be emulated and imitated everywhere.

Late in September the following proposition was submitted by the league to the masters, through the agency of Mr. Mundella, M. P., who had come to Newcastle to

contribute his influence toward bringing a long-standing difficulty to a close:

"If our employers will concede the three hours per week reduction in our workingtime, which is now in dispute between us, we, on our part, will consent to a reduction in our wages, the amount of the reduction to be settled either on mutual agreement between ourselves and employers or by arbitration."

After careful consideration, the men's offer was declined, as will be seen by the following extract from Sir William Armstrong's letter to Mr. Mundella, dated Septem-

"Our proposal is that the question should be compromised by the acceptance on the part of the men of two hours out of the five demanded, and that in lieu of the remaining three hours they should take a proportionate increase of wages. The condition of trade justifies, as we have always admitted, an advance of wages, so that the proposed advance, unlike the proposed reduction, does not conflict with the laws of supply and demand. This increase of pay would amount to 5 per cent., and would apply to every kind of skilled labor; adding the value of the two hours conceded in time, it would represent a total advance of 8½ per cent. on the wages current when the strike

It will be observed that Mr. Mundella's mission proved ineffectual, as had the efforts

of those who had preceded him as mediators between the contending parties.

At this time the weekly distribution of money amounted to 12s, per man and a shilling extra for each child; and although that sum falls far short of being adequate to the requirements of a man who has a wife and children dependent on him for support, it shows that the financial position of those on strike had been gradually improving since the first general allotment of 1s. 9d. per man was made in the early part of June.

While the praiseworthy efforts of Mr. Mundella were still fresh upon the minds of those concerned, Mr. Joseph Cowen, proprietor of the Newcastle Chronicle, and Mr. P. Philipson, town clerk, gentlemen held in high esteem by their townsmen, met in secret conclave on the morning of October 5, and drew up the following articles, with fervent hopes that they would be favorably received by the disputants:

"Suppose the employers were to concede the fifty-four hours per week, the men would agree to work overtime when and to the extent required by the employers.

"The wages, both as to ordinary wages and as to overtime, to remain the same in the different factories as existed prior to the strike.

"The wages to be reckoned by the hour and quarter hour, and paid weekly at 12.15 p. m. on Saturday.

"The agreement to be for twelve months, with power to either party to determine it at the end of six months by giving one month's previous notice.

"The men to go to work on the arrangement now existing in the shops, (57 hours,) and he new terms (54 hours) to take date from January 1, 1872."

The foregoing terms were submitted to the associated masters by Mr. Philipson, and to a delegated meeting of the Nine Hours League by Mr. Cowen, on the evening of the same day, and to the great satisfaction of the entire community the terms were accepted by both parties. Matters of detail were speedily arranged, and on Thursday morning, October 12, after a strike of twenty weeks, the men returned to their labor with elastic tread, to gladden the hearts of forty thousand souls.

THE STORY OF A FRW STRIKES.

[The following article is from the Chicago Tribune.]

The Hon. A. S. Bolles, in his just published "Chapters on Political Economy," quotes from Thornton's "Labor" and Ward's "Workmen and Wages" the figures of the cost of some famous strikes to the strikers. We reproduce them from his book, and add others:

others:
In 1829, the Manchester spinners struck. They lost \$1,250,000 in wages before the dispute was at an end. The next year their brethren at Aaston and Staleybridge followed their example in striking and in losing \$1,250,000. In 1833, the builders of Manchester forfeited \$360,000 by voluntary idleness. In 1836, the spinners of Preston threw away \$295,000. Eighteen years afterward, their successors, 17,000 strong, slowly starved through thirty-six weeks and paid \$2,100,000 for the privilege. In 1853, the English iron-workers lost \$215,000 by a strike. Such losses marked, too, the strikes of the London builders in 1860 and tailors in 1868, and the northern iron-workers in 1865. The strike of the Belfast linen-weavers, which was ended a few weeks since by the mediation of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, cost the operatives \$1,000,000. The recent strike of the shoemakers of Chicago cost them a much larger sum than they needed as a capital for a co-operative shop of their own. After they had wasted the first sum, they tried in vain to raise the second.

We might add instance to instance to prove the enormous cost of strikes to the workingman. Even when they succeed, the result rarely, if ever, pays for the money unproductively spent. When they do not, the money is of course a dead loss. It is absurd that workingmen, in the face of such facts, should persist in using this two-edged weapon against their employers. In England, Messrs. Mundella's and Kettle's boards of arbitration, and the introduction of industrial partnerships between masters and men, have done much to prevent strikes. In France, the state long since established courts of arbitration for the settlement of labor quarrels. They are composed of six members, chosen by employers and employed, and a president and vice-president, who must belong to neither class. Mr. Thomas Brassey, in his "Work and Wages," says of these courts: "The result in 95 out of 100 cases brought before these tribunals is a reconciliation between the parties; and, though appeals are permitted to the superior courts of law, they are rarely made. In 1870, 28,000 disputes had been heard, of which no less than 26.800 were satisfactorily settled."

CO-OPERATION.

That a strike, so long as it is unaccompanied by violence or intimidation toward such as do not voluntarily engage in it, is a means which workmen may legitimately use in their efforts to advance their interests. must, of course, be freely admitted. But that it is a most costly and hurtful method of settling trade-disputes is a fact which workingmen themselves have now very generally learned by sad experience. chairman of the trades union congress of the United Kingdom, held at Liverpool in January, 1875, in his opening address referred to strikes as a mode of settling differences with employers which ought to be avoided by all practicable means, and resorted to only in the most extreme cases; and the same opinion, after being repeatedly indicated in the speeches of leading delegates, was substantially embodied in a resolution adopted by the assembly itself, in which fully 800,000 of the trades-unionists of the British Isles were represented. As a natural sequence to a resolution of this character was another, recommending the adoption of that system which is designed to reconcile the now conflicting interests of capital and labor by uniting the two in the same hands, namely, the system of co-operation, and expressing a cordial desire to act in harmony with the co-operators of the United Kingdom. Similar sentiments are to be met with in the documents issued by the leading trades associations, as well as in their most influential newspaper organs; and in fact the system of co-operation itself, as a practical reality, is making rapid advancement among the working-classes.

As long ago as 1832, Mr. Babbage suggested the advantages which workingmen might derive from co-operative stores. The Rochdale

Pioneers commenced in 1843 the enterprise which has since become so celebrated. It originated in the attempt of some flannel-weavers to obtain an advance in wages, failing in which they resolved to try whether they could not make the wages they were receiving procure them a larger share of the necessaries and comforts of life by starting a store on their own account. A company of forty persons engaged, at a rent of £10 per annum, "th' owd weaver's shop" in "Toad Lane," in which they commenced business with a beggarly stock of salt, butter, and oatmeal. At the end of fourteen years they were doing a cash business to the amount of £76,000 per annum. To their original stores they have added several other departments of trade, and have now a good library of from 12,000 to 15,000 volumes.

The returns furnished to the registrars of friendly societies of England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, respectively, as to the industrial and provident co-operative societies in the three divisions of the kingdom,

at the close of 1873, show the following results:

	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.
Number of societies	790	. 188	6
Number of members	340, 930	46, 371	464
Number of members admitted during the			
year 1873	70, 360	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••
Number of members withdrawn during the	04 404	ĺ	ŀ
year 1873	31, 626	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••
Share-capital, amount of, at end of the year	CO 204 104	COOF OFO	C1 440
1873	£3, 334, 104	£235,858	£1,443
Loan-capital, amount of, at end of the year	£431,308	£64,932	£90
Cash paid for goods during 1873	£12,344,780	£56, 130	£14,576
Cash received for goods during 1873	£13,651,127	£1,965,226	£16, 161
Average value of stock during 1873	£1, 439, 137	£188, 265	220,101
Total expenses during 1873.	£541,824	£67,468	£774
Interest on share, loan, and other capital	,	1 200,000	
during 1873	£152,596	£12,084	<i>.</i>
Entire liabilities at end of 1873	£4,081,512	£400,590	
Reserve-fund at end of 1873	£83, 149	£19,573	·
Entire assets at end of 1873	£4, 430, 334	£462,857	
Value of buildings, fixtures, and land	£1,361,197	£97,869	£633
Capital invested with other industrial and			
provident societies	£337,811	£32, 591	
Capital invested with companies incorpo-			
rated under the companies act	£443,724	£5,315	
Disposable net profit realized from all sources	2010		2000
during 1873	£958,721	£150, 302	£863
Dividend declared due to members during	0001 004	0100 040	
1873. Dividend allowed to non-members during	£861,964	£132, 643	
1873.	C10 FEE	62 147	[
Amount allowed for educational purposes	£18,555	£3,147	l
during 1873	£6,864	£243	
AMTTE TOLD	20,004	~~~	1

UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

In the foregoing discussion of the labor question as it is presented in the history of the earlier centuries of modern times, as well as in the recent past, much space has been devoted to statements and illustrations which have been drawn from the experience of the mother country. The fact that less than a century ago the greater part of our present territory constituted provinces of Great Britain, previous to which the manufactured goods consumed in the colonies were chiefly produced in England, and the further fact that during the past ninety-nine years the mills and factories of Great Britain have supplied us with products the annual value of which has, of late years, reached hundreds of millions of dollars, render all the data which relate to this subject of the greatest importance to us. No apology is therefore offered for the space devoted to the history of labor in Great Britain and the modifications which law and custom have from time to time effected in the condition of the laboring-classes.

VOLUME OF TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

Before proceeding to a consideration of the present cost and condition of labor in the United Kingdom, the following tables showing the volume of the trade between the two countries are presented: Table I exhibits the kinds and values of British merchandise which found a market in the United States during the fiscal year 1874; Table II, the aggregate annual value of the imports from England, Ireland, and Scotland, respectively, during the fifty-four years ended June 30, 1874; and Table III, the value of provisions, breadstuffs, and raw products which were exported to those countries during the past year.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

L.—Table showing the value of the principal articles imported into the United States from England, Scotland, and Ireland, during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1874.

Articles.	Articles. England.		Ireland.	
Beer, ale, porter, &c	\$1, 221, 682	\$179, 285		
Books, pamphlets, &c	1, 269, 852	139, 956	366	
Buttons of all kinds	657, 776	2, 672		
Chloride of lime				
Clothing	510, 995	6, 792	, 6	
Coal, bituminous	337, 379			
Copper and manufactures of	124, 873	10		
Cordage, &c Cotton, manufactures of	88, 357			
Cotton, manniactures of	16, 534, 811	2,918,211		
Earthen, stone, and china ware	3, 779, 727	40, 207	96	
Flax, manufactures of	939, 614	45, 525		
Flax, manufactures of	19, 037, 195	3, 775, 719	653, 676	
Glass and glass-ware		7, 585		
Hair, unmanufactured.	149, 550			
Hides and skins	3, 779, 465			
Hemp, manufactures of	96, 733			
India rubber, manufactures of	598, 0:20			
Tour and about.				
Iron and steel:		0.487 0000	FO 946	
Pig-iron	1, 380, 014		58,740	
Bar-iron Boiler, hoop, scroll, and sheet iron	1, 002, 486			
Doner, noop, scrou, and sneet iron	667, 172	X, 130		
Rails of iron				
of steel	8, 104, 377		104, 456	
Old and scrap iron	283, 521	460	104, 53	
Hardware and cutlery	2,063,792		2,977	
Steel ingots, bars, &o	2, 865, 470	5, 348	2,90	
Fire-arms	580, 451			
Machinery	1, 127, 525			
Other manufactures, not elsewhere specified	5, 212, 518	20,913		
Total of iron and steel	24, 273, 808	2, 268, 372	166, 16	

I.—Value of the principal articles imported into the United States, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.
Jute, manufactures of	\$1, 564, 119	\$443, 885	\$349
Leather and manufactures of	165, 877	3, 770 237, 808	250
Metals and manufactures of Paints	495, 664	16, 172 7, 175	65
Paper materials Paper and manufactures of.	1, 468, 197	64, 107	14, 804
Silk, manufactures of	6, 313, 941	11,944	609
Straw, manufactures of	307, 579	20 4, 582	
Tin, manufactures of	13, 014, 701	6,009	3, 48
Weel manufactures of		295, 086 13, 618	2, 633

II.—Table showing the value of imports of merchandise from England, Scotland, and Ireland, during the fifty-four fiscal years ended June 30, 1821 to 1874, inclusive.

Jame 30, 1869 133, 987, 973, 524 190, 83- Jame 30, 1861 101, 743, 555 2, 933, 524 190, 83- Jame 30, 1862 474, 759, 710	Fiscal year ended—	Imports of merchandise into the United States from—		
September 30, 1823. 33, 008, 936 1, 889, 216 600, 044 september 30, 1823. 32, 008, 936 1, 889, 218 600, 044 september 30, 1824. 26, 508, 758 1, 025, 020 431, 637 September 30, 1825. 34, 188, 632 1, 829, 464 612, 972 September 30, 1826. 34, 183, 632 1, 829, 464 612, 972 September 30, 1826. 34, 183, 632 1, 1829, 464 612, 972 September 30, 1826. 34, 183, 632 1, 1829, 464 612, 972 September 30, 1826. 34, 183, 101 550, 129 September 30, 1826. 30, 445, 167 1, 624, 030 711, 041 September 30, 1826. 30, 445, 167 1, 624, 030 711, 041 September 30, 1826. 30, 445, 167 1, 624, 030 711, 041 September 30, 1826. 30, 445, 167 1, 624, 030 711, 041 September 30, 1826. 30, 445, 167 1, 624, 030 711, 041 September 30, 1826. 31, 331, 332 September 30, 1826. 31, 320, 321, 321, 321, 322, 322		England.	Scotland.	Ireland.
September 30, 1823. 33, 008, 936 1, 889, 216 600, 044 september 30, 1823. 32, 008, 936 1, 889, 216 600, 044 september 30, 1824 226, 508, 758 1, 025, 020 431, 637 33, 313 543, 313 September 30, 1824 226, 508, 758 1, 025, 020 431, 637 34, 188, 632 1, 829, 444 612, 372 672, 944 612, 9	September 30, 1891	\$22, 535, 33 3	\$1, 220, 092	8 683, 471
September 30, 1824		32, 008, 936	1, 889, 216	
September 30, 1825				
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June 30, 1867 165, 1624, 468 6, 795, 605 87, 100 June 30, 1868 125, 129, 809 6, 795, 605 87, 100 June 30, 1869 125, 129, 809 7, 446, 251 211, 196 June 30, 1870 151, 231, 801 7, 444, 304 247, 07 June 30, 1870 144, 474, 804 247, 07 June 30, 1871 209, 075, 220 14, 344, 179 487, 431 June 30, 1873 293, 543, 322 14, 344, 770 435, 81 June 30, 1873 292, 517, 634 14, 144, 470 435, 81 June 30, 1873 292, 517, 634 14, 144, 470 435, 81	June 30 1066	106 356 036	5, 845, 328	
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June 38, 1869 151, 291, 801 7, 444, 304 247, 07 June 38, 1870 144, 474, 890 74, 444, 304 247, 07 June 38, 1871 299, 075, 290 11, 459, 688 240, 46 June 38, 1871 293, 943, 322 14, 344, 570 487, 43 June 38, 1873 293, 543, 634 10, 14, 344, 770 435, 81 June 30, 1873 292, 517, 634 10, 164, 659 1, 030, 522	June 30 1969	105 100 809	6, 795, 605	
June 30, 1870 144, 474, 890 11, 452, 688 240, 46 June 30, 1871 209, 075, 220 14, 341, 572 487, 43 June 30, 1872 233, 943, 322 14, 341, 770 435, 81 June 30, 1873 292, 517, 634 10, 186, 459 1, 030, 522	June 30, 1840	151, 231, 801	7, 446, 951	
June 30, 1871 209, 075, 290 14, 344, 572 487, 43 June 30, 1872 233, 943, 322 14, 344, 770 435, 81 June 30, 1873 292, 517, 634 10, 184, 459 1, 030, 282	June 30, 1870	144, 474, 800		240, 463
June 30, 1879 233, 943, 329 14, 344, 770 435, 81 120 186 459 1.030, 329	June 30, 1871	209 075, 220	11, 432, 000	487, 430
June 30, 1473 292, 517, 634 16, 166, 449 1, 030, 222	June 30, 1879	233, 943, 323		435, 814
Inn. 90 4094	June 30, 1473	222, 517, 631		1,030, 222
THE 84, 15/4	June 30, 1874	166, 846, 132	1,,	

^{*}Including Scotland and Ireland.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

III.—Table showing the exports of commodities, the growth or produce of the United States, to England, Sootland, and Ireland, during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1874.

Commodities.	Domestic exports from the United State					
·	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.			
Breadstuffa: Wheat	\$43, 128, 552	\$5, 861, 579	\$25, 903, 529			
Wheat-flour	8, 812, 064	2, 444, 513	285, 945			
Indian corn	7, 453, 120	1, 820, 460	10, 667, 907			
All other	385, 033	105, 980	16, 666			
Total	59, 808, 769	10, 232, 53%	36, 873, 347			
Cotton, raw	136, 959, 187	564, 846	3, 855, 303			
Hair, unmanufactured	240, 144					
Hides, furs, and fur-skins	3, 474, 769					
Leather	9, 683, 174 1, 110, 083	181, 194	134, 821			
Oil-cake	3, 624, 465	309,006	43, 485			
Oil:] 300,000				
Coal, (crude and refined)	3, 500, 376	39, 260	1, 788, 535			
Animal and vegetable	1, 076, 640	968, 020				
Ore, argentiferous	255, 814	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •				
Provisions:						
Bacon and hams	22, 222, 544	3, 945, 563				
Beef	1, 773, 483	262, 400	. 400			
Butter	218, 778	85, 413				
Cheese	9, 129, 370	1, 083, 708				
Fish, (pickled and dry)	590, 061					
Lard	3, 119, 295	889, 976				
Meats, preservedPork	404, 114 1, 600, 632	57, 247 179, 272	. 425			
All other	61, 753	2,040	. 425			
All VIII		2,010				
Total	39, 120, 030	5, 805, 619	895			
Seeds	227, 186	85, 569	4, 906			
Spirits of turpentine	1, 238, 046	61, 819	440, 554			
Sugar and molasses	288, 071	146, 819				
Tallow	3, 613, 703	1, 010, 859	4, 906			
Leaf	7, 607, 530	755, 451	9, 889			
Manufactured	1, 251, 592	12, 738				
Timber, lumber, &c	3, 579, 966	756, 919	355, 500			
Other unmanufactured articles	665, 792 6, 023, 196	50, 156 839, 822	58, 275			
Other manuscrated structes	0, 023, 190	039, 022	30, 313			
Total	276, 333, 833	21, 190, 561	43, 569, 655			

NOTE.—The aggregate quantities of the principal articles exported to the United Kingdom in 1874 were as follows: Raw cotton, 903,571,772 pounds; wheat, 51,833,278 bushels; wheat-flour, 1,703,984 barrels; bacon and hams, \$62,723,419 pounds; beef, 23,721,364 pounds; pork, 20,029,898 pounds; obecce, 76,552,976 pounds.

The above table not only shows the value of the cotton, but of the grain, timber, naval stores, and other crude products of our fields and forests, and of animal products, which find a market in the United Kingdom. The greater part of these may be classed as the raw materials of English manufactures, for the breadstuffs and provisions, as well as the cotton, the leather, the timber, and the leaf-tobacco, really become the elements of manufactured products.

Whether the material interests of the country would be better promoted by consuming at home a large portion of the food now exported and devoting it to the conversion of crude products into manufactured goods, is a question which will receive no consideration in these pages. Here, as elsewhere in this volume, the author contents himself with the presentation of facts, and declines entering upon the discussion of questions are the statement of t

tions respecting which there are wide divergences of opinion.

IMMIGRATION FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

In view of the fact that the inhabitants of the colonies which now compose the United States were, at the time of the change of government, chiefly of British birth or descent, it is not surprising that of the 5,367,229 persons of foreign birth who formed part of our population is 1870, no less than 3,119,705 were born in the United Kingdom and in the British North American possessions.

The immigration into this country from the British Islands during the fifty-four years, from 1820 to 1874, is exhibited in the following table:

Statement showing the total immigration into the United States from Great Britain and Ireland during the fifty-four and a half years ended December 31, 1874.

Periods.	England and Wales, Isle of Man, and Channel Isl- ands.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Great Britain.*	Total.
1880 to 1830, inclusive 1831 to 1840, inclusive 1841 to 1850, inclusive 1851 to 1860, inclusive 1851 to 1870, inclusive Calendar year 1871 Calendar year 1873 Calendar year 1874	16, 007 7, 796 33, 353 53, 444 218, 027 62, 525 73, 679 70, 499 43, 969	3, 180 9, 687 3, 719 38, 331 36, 733 19, 135 14, 565 13, 008 8, 765	97, 106 29, 188 162, 332 748, 740 495, 969 61, 463 69, 761 75, 848 47, 688	35, 534 243, 540 748, 366 997, 578 356, 247 7, 814	81, 827 283, 191 1, 047, 765 1, 338, 089 1, 106, 976 143, 937 157, 905 159, 353 100, 422
Aggregate	779, 199	133, 096	1, 718, 095	1, 789, 079	4, 419, 469

^{*} Nationality not stated : supposed to be chiefly from Ireland.

Owing to the defective returns of the nationalities of immigrants prior to the establishment of the Bureau of Statistics, the countries of nativity of large numbers who came from the British Isles were not set forth in the returns, but their place of birth designated as "Great Britain," as will appear by reference to the fifth column of the above table. From a careful analysis of some of the original papers, an approximate estimate has been made of the proportion of persons of Irish nativity who are included in the number of those "not stated," which, in addition to the 1,718,095 Irish immigrants given in the table, shows that of the 4,419,469 arriving from the British Isles in a little over half a century, upward of 2,950,000, or two-thirds, were natives of Ireland.

a century, upward of 2,950,000, or two-thirds, were natives of Ireland. Of the large foreign element in the city of New York, amounting to no less than 419,094 in the census-year 1870, the natives of Ireland were 201,999, a number almost equal to the whole population of Dublin, which, in 1871, was 246,326. Indeed, if the Irish in Jersey City, Brooklyn, and other adjoining cities, which really form a part of the commercial metropolis of America, be included, the number would fully equal, if not exceed, the aggregate population of Ireland's chief city.

16 T.

I.—RATES OF WAGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Before presenting the tables showing the earnings of factory-operatives in various manufacturing towns of the United Kingdom, the following statement, showing the rates of wages paid to mechanics and other skilled workmen in the metropolis, is submitted:

SKILLED TRADES IN LONDON, WEEKLY WAGES IN 1871.

Statement showing the established rates of wages obtained by members of the various tradessocieties of the metropolis, in summer and winter, compiled under the supervision of Aleagur Hay Hill, LL. B.

	er of	Rate of	WagoL
Trades.	Number of members.	Summer.	Winter.
Bakers Basket-makers Boak-builders Book-binders Brass-cook finishers Brass-cook finishers Briss-makers Bricklayers Brush-makers Cabinet-makers Cabinet-makers Cabinet-makers Carpenters Carvers and gilders Coach-builders Coach-builders Coach-miths Ton founders Cork-outters Cork-outters Cork-outters Cort-coutters Cort-coutters Cort-coutters Curriers Engineers French-polishers Hammermen Iron founders and molders Letter-press printers Frainters, house Pianterers Planterers Planterers Planterers Planterers Planterers Planterers Planterers Planterers Planterers Steam-engine makers Steam-engine makers Steam-engine makers	703 9, 386 400 500 4, 740 925 320 3, 550 100 3, 678 1, 900 33, 539 39 30 7, 373	### 16* (*)	\$5 08 4 94 7 36 8 47 8 47 9 68 9 9 68 12 56 8 47 7 7 94 10 7 7 95 10 7 7 95 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10

*Per hour.

† Piecework.

t Uncertain.

AVERAGE EARNINGS OF OPERATIVES.

The tables in the following thirty-six pages, which were not personally obtained by the author, but derived from official sources, exhibit the earnings of work-people in the various industries and places indicated during the year 1871. Indeed, so far as factory-labor is concerned, the dgures therein given express with approximate accuracy the cost but not the hours of labor which now obtain in the United Kingdom.

The object of the following statement is not to show the specific rates of wages paid to certain operatives, but the average earnings of operatives of various occupations in different localities. In a very large number of occupations the hands are paid by the piece or by weight, and the actual rate of wages would not indicate the sum an operative would take home with him at the end of the week as the price of his labor. The sums stated in all these tables are, therefore, the average sums earned per week, whether the labor be paid by the day or by the piece.

COTTON MANUFACTURES.

In a fine-spinning factory at Manchester the following are the average weekly earnings of the operatives:

Hand-mule spinners, small mules*		† \$ 10 89
Hand-mule spinners, large mules*		12 10
Piecers, women	\$2 18	to 2 42
Piecers, young persons		1 57
Piecers, half-timers		60
Card-grinders, men		5 08
Card-strippers		4 35
Card-room frames, women	2 18	to 2 90
Lap-carriers, girls		1 57
Hand-reelers, girls		2 77
Mechanics		8 18
Hours of work, 59 per week.		

These men employed from 3 to 6 piecers, often members of their own families.

† British £ sterling computed at \$4.84, and the shilling at 24 cents.

•	ġ	
	Degrapes.	
	epanning,	
	PACTURES	
	KANG	
	COTTON	

• •	
Oldbern.	#33 67 65 53 58 58 58 59 59 59 59 59 59 59 59 59 59 59 59 59
.oridaçı.≜	24 88 89 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28
.needreen.	88888 88888 888 99999 9999 9999 99999 99999 99999 99999 9999
Glasgow.	# 25 35 1 1 23 10 1 1 23 10 1 1 23 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10
Rochdale.	25 a a b a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a
Вівскрата.	## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ##
Meighborhood of Manchester.	8
Manchester,	2 8 7
Bury, Lanca- shire.	898 181424114 8888 41288 181 8881288 888288288
Осспрайов.	Willowers, devilers, cotton-opener minders Blowing or sentching-room hands, men Fillowing or sentching-room hands, men Fillowing or sentching-room hands, men Strippers and grinders, card-room, men Carders, men Under-carders, men Under-carders, men Under-carders, men Carders, women Self-setting mule creeders, young men Self-setting mule creeders, vomen Carders, women Carders, women Carders, women Carders, women Carders, leds Carders Carder

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[In the foregoing and following tables of wages and prices in the United Kingdom the British shilling has been computed at 34 cents, and the pound sterling has been recognised by Congress at \$4.8665; but the difference being small, it was not deemed necessary to make a re-computation.—E. Y.]

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LABOR IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.

DOUBLING, BLEACHING, AND DYEING COTTON THREAD.

Occupations.		ott	ing	ha	m.	Paisley.		Remarks.
Overlookers, men. Bleachers, men Dyers or finishers, men Cop-winders, women. Doublers, women. Clearers, women. Rulers Hankwinders Boys and girls under 14	4 4 1 1 1 2 2	35 81 93 69 42 29	*****	79999999	42 05 90 66 42	1 1	57 93 17	Adulta. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do

NOTE .- The hours of work are sixty per week; the wages, partly piece-work, partly day-work,

WOOLEN MANUFACTURE-SPINNING, WEAVING, ETC.

Occupation.	Rochdale.	Dewsbury.	Leeds.	Manchester.	Neighborhood of Dewsbury.	Galambiels.	Neighborhood of Huddersfield.
Layers on for scribblers, women Card setters or cleaners, men Sliver-minders, girls Condenser-minders, girls Card-feedars, women Woolyers, men Woolyers, foremen, men Self-acting mule-minders, men	4 35 to 4 84 2 42 2 42 to 2 90 3 63 4 84	4 11		\$4 11 3 14		\$4 11	
Self-acting mule-piecers, boys and girls, half-timers mag-piecers, boys and girls, half-timers and stokers warpers warpers power-loom tuners, men Power-loom weavers, women wool-sorters, men Pulling-millers, men Wool and piece-dyers, men.	1 69 60 to 84 4 59 to 5 08 3 63 to 4 35	4 84 4 84 3 63 8 47 3 38 6 05 5 08	1 45 2 90 6 05	3 38 3 38 5 39	2 90 to 4 35 5 80 to 12 10 9 42 to 3 87 4 35 to 5 47	6 29	
Citoti-dressers, vis, raisers, cutters, pressers, tenterers, drawers Burlers, women	2 17	5 08 3 14 5 80	5 39 1 21		2 17 to 2 90 4 35 to 7 96	2 90 3 38 3 87	4 35 4 94 1 93 to 9 17
Mechanics and joiners, men Rag-pickers, women Hand-spinners, men Hand-spinners, young persons. Slubbers	l	I			6 05 to 7 26	4 84 1 45	5 80 to 7 96 1 45 6 53

NOTE.—The hours of work are sixty per week; the wages, partly piece-work, partly day-work.

WOOLEN MANUFACTURE-CLOTH-DRESSING.

Occupation.	Leeds.	Remarks.
Giggers Do Machinists Machinists, perpetual Cloth-pressers. Cloth-drawers Cloth tenterers Handle-setters Hand-raisers Foremen	4 35 5 56 \$2 42 to 5 56 8 47 6 77 7 26	Paid by the piece, Do. Do. Do.

NOTE.—The hours of work are sixty per week; the wages, partly piece-work, partly day-work.

WOOLEN MANUFACTURE-COMBING.

,	Occupation.	Bradford.
		\$6 29
Card-jobbers Warehousemen		4 35
	•••••••••••••••••••••••	2 42 2 54

NOTE .- The hours of work are gixty per week; the wages, partly piece-work, partly day-work,

WOOLEN MANUFACTURE-CARPET-MAKING.

Occupation.	Glasgow. Kilmarnock		Durham.	Neighborhood of Leeds.	
Assistant dyers, men Assistant dyers, boys Assistant dyers, boys Band-loom weavers and beamers, men Hand-loom weavers and beamers, boys Methanics Pattern-drawers, mem. Pattern-drawers, mem. Pattern-drawers, boys Warehouse-workers, tenters, and sewers, men Warehouse-workers, tenters, and sewers, boys. Warehouse-workers, tenters, and sewers, girls. Coppers, cutters, and cleaners, men Coppers, cutters, and cleaners, men Coppers, cutters, and cleaners, women Waders and reelers, girls Waders and reelers, girls Power-loom weavers, Brussels carpets, men Cover-loom weavers, Brussels carpets, apprentices Carding and spinning, men Larding and spinning, men Larding and spinning, females and children Larding and spinning, females and children	4 96 1 93 6 29 6 05 2 42 5 32 1 45 2 35 1 69 4 59 1 69 2 17 1 08 2 17	\$4 84 1 21 5 56	1 53 to 1 89 6 29 4 35 4 23 to 7 74 96 to 2 42	2 42 to 3 38 4 35 to 6 05 9 90 to 4 35	
planers, females				200	

NOTE.—The hours of work are sixty per week; the wages, partly piece-work, partly day-work.

WORSTED MANUFACTURE-SPINNING, WEAVING, ETC.

Occupation.	Keighley.	Halifax.	Glasgow.	Bradford Dis- trict.
ONETHO:				
Wool-sorters, piece-work, average	\$4.96			\$6 77 to \$7 20
Wool-sorters, day work, per week	4 84	\$5 80		
Wool washers and driers	3 63	4 35		3 87 to 4 35
Gill-tenters, women		2 29		
Card-tenters	3 14			
Back-warhers	3 14			
Comb-tenters	3 38	3 38	•••••	
Overlooker.				7 74 to 8 4
PLANING:	1 "			1 11 10 0 11
Drawers, women	2 42	2 20		2 17 to 2 54
Spinners, young persons.	2 17	1 93	\$1.81	
Doffers and jobbers, boys.	2 17	1 1 93	41.01	10100 21
Warpers, by the piece-work	3 38	1 20	4 35	
Resistant memory	2 66	2 78	1 30	2 42 to 2 9
Reclers, women	¥ 00	5 80		7 26 to 7 9
Overlookers	5 56	3 80	2 78	1 20 10 7 9
Winders, women and girls		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	2 10	
			ļ	1
			8 47	5 80 to 6 9
Warp-dressers	5 08		0 4/	5 80 to 6 x
Warp loomer and twisters, by piece	3 38			
Weavers, women	3 14	\$2 66 to 3 14	2 54	
Overlookers Doffers and bobbin setters, half-timers	5 56	5 80		7 50 to 8 2

NOTE.—The hours of work are sixty per week; the wages, partly piece-work, partly day-work.

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FLAX MANUFACTURE—SPINNING, WEAVING, ETC.

Occupation,			Leeds.					Yorkshire.					Manchester.			:	Ayrapire.			Dundee.				Kircaldy.		•	Porfarabire.	
Overlookers	3	87 84	to	4			•••	•••	•••	• • • •		• • •	• • •	•••	· • • •		••••	3	63	to	`6	05	·:	••••		59) to	\$5.5
Sorters	4	84	to	ė	05		•••	• • •	•••			•••	• • •	•••	•••		••••						:-	••••	ļ	•••	• • •	
and girls Spinners, women	1	45	to	1	75	1	45	to	2	05	1	57	to	1	87	\$1	45	1	21	to	1	93	ļ	•••				2 (
and girls					75 57					81 93					29 81		93	1	69	to	3	14	81	81	l			2 1
Reelers, women Makers-up	4	35	to	•	42 05		•••	•••		66	١	•••	•••		90	l	81	1	93	to	3	63	:	••••				2 5
Enginemen Mechanics	4	84	to	, 1	26	1					1	•••	•••	7	26	١	••••		• • • •	• • •	•••	•••	١		ı	•••	• • •	5 6
Dressers, men Dressers, women	١					١				32	ı				32 90	:	••••		•••	•••	•••		١	••••	١	•••	•••	5 3
Dressers, boys Half-timers	١					1	24	to		48		36	to		60					•••	•••	•••		••••				••••
Carders, females Combers, females	١.,					1	93	to	2	17			• • •		• • • •					•••	•••	•••	١				•••	••••
Bundlers Tacklers, men	١.,	•••	•••		••••	١	•••	• • •	•••		١	•••	•••	•••		5	44		•••	•••	•••		١	••••		•••	•••	••••
Winders Weavers	١		٠.			١.,					١					١		1	93	to	3	63 87	١.,					3 3
Bleachers, females . Warpers																			•••	•••	•••	• • • •		. 93		•••	• • •	2 (

NOTE.—The hours of work are sixty per week; the wages, partly piece-work, partly day-work.

JUTE MANUFACTURE-SPINNING AND WEAVING.

Occupation.	'	Gle	ago	₩.	Dundes.			
Workers in preparing departments pinners, coarse and fine Piecers, single frames and double shifters Oobbin-carriers, boys	2	17 08	to to	`2		\$2	05 lo	\$2 2 1 6 1 3
Joodin-carriers, poys	1	93	to	9 9	05 05 93		•••••	27
Packing de partment	6	63 05	to to	5 6 3	39 77 75			• • • • •
Centers		42	to	6 4 2	05 35 90	2	93 to	9 6
Pwinters					••••	1		2 2
Rovers								19

MOTE.—The hours of work are sixty per week; the wages, partly piece-work, partly day-work.

SILK MANUFACTURE-THROWING RAW SILK.

Occupation,	Nottingham.	Manohester.
Men employed at spinning and throwing-mills Boys Women and girls, doublers Women and girls, winders of raw silk Children, drawing Women, receiers Men, overlookers	1 81 to 2 54 2 17 to 2 66 60 to 96 1 93 to 2 17	\$4 11 1 69 2 05 48 2 05

NOTE.—The hours of work are sixty per week; the wages, partly piece-work, partly day-work.

SILK MANUFACTURE-SPINNING WASTE SILK.

Occupation.	Yorkshire.	Manchester.
Sik-bollers, men	\$4 35 6 29 9 17	
Sik-preparers, girls Sik-spinners, girls Sik-doublers, girls Sik-reders, girls	2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17	\$1 93 to \$2 42 1 93 to 2 42 1 93 to 2 42
Mechanics, men Johens, men Engine-drivers, men	6 29 5 08	
Warpers, men Calidren, half-timers		5 80 60

NOTE.—The hours of work are sixty per week; the wages, partly piece-work, partly day-work.

BLEACHING, DYEING, AND PRINTING.

Occupation.			Manchester.					Neighborhood of	Manuscratter.		Neighborhood of	Manchester.			Kent				Dochdele	TOO COLOR IO.	
BLEACHING, SINGRING, AND STITCHING: Foremen					47				\$7	26		3 47		•••	•••		•••			•••	••••
Women above 18 Girls and boys between 13		87 17			08 29		•••	•••	•••	••••		87	:::		•••	•••	••••		• • • •	:	••••
and 18	1	45	to	1	93 21		٠.	•••		69	1	33		•••	•••	•••	••••		••••	••••	·
COLOB-MIXING: Foremen Men				10	89 35		•••	•••		•••	ļ	• • • •	\$ 9	6 8	to :	\$14	52		•••		
Boys between 13 and 18 MACHIKE-PRINTING:	2	42	to	3	38		•••	•••	•••	••••				•••	•••	•••	••••		••••		••••
Printers, men					89 87	•••	•••	•••	3	89 87	3	64	l	• • •				\$8			3 87
Boys between 13 and 18 HAND-PRINTING, (block:) Foremen				_	45 53	\$1	21	to	1	45	1	45	Į.				93		•••	••••	•••
Block-printers, men					84 72		•••	•••	•••	••••							••••				05
AGEIRG AND STEAMING: Foremen Men					05 87		• • •	•••	•••	26		77							•••		
Girls and boys between 13 and 18. Dreifg, soaping, and clear-				2	17	1	93	to	4	35		••••		•••	•••	•••	•••		•••	••••	•••
Poremen	8	47	to		10		•••	•••		•••	<u> </u>		9	68	to	14	52			٤	47
Dyers, men Men Women above 18	۰	54	4	3	11 87 02		•••	•••		11				•	•	•••	••••		•••	••••	
Boys between 13 and 18 PINISHING, MAKING-UP, AND				1			•••	•••	9	42				•••		• • • •	••••		•••	••••	•••
PACKING: Por-men Calendrers and starchers	3	87	to		26 11	7	74 35	to		22 84	2	26	7	26	to	12	10				

BLEACHING, DYEING, AND PRINTING-Continued.

Oecupation,	None of the second		Neighborhood of Manchester.	•	Neighborhood of Manchester.	Kent.	Rochdale.
FINISHING, ETC.—Continued. Makers up and packers, men. Women, above 18. Girls and boys, between 13. and 18. MECHANICS, SMITHS, JOINERS, ETC.:	2 17 t	o \$5 08 o \$ 90 o 1 93	\$4 35 to \$4 2 42 to 3 1 21 to 2	14	\$2 05 1 33		
Foremen Mechanics Joiners Assistants and ongine-tenters.	7 26 t	7 74 4 84		26	•••••		
Boys, between 13 and 18 Watchmen Carters Book-keepers, men	2 42 to 4 35 to 7 26 to	0 2 90 5 08 0 4 84 0 8 95		••••			
Book-keepers, boys between 13 and 18 Designers Engravers				••••	•••••	\$9 68 to \$14 52 7 26 to 10 89	\$7 96 to \$12 10

NOTE.—The hours of work in print-works are not necessarily restricted to 60 per week; in fret they are generally rather in excess of that number. The wages are paid partly by piece-work, partly by daywork.

WARP AND SKEIN-PRINTING.

Occupation.	Manchester.	Remarks.
Designers	\$9.08	
Block-cutters	8 47	
Block-printers	6 29 5 51	
Warp-dressers	5 08	
Warp-dressers, between 13 and 18	2 49	
Warp-printers, between 13 and 18	3 39 2 18	
Color-mixers	7 26	
Skein-printers	6 05 1 94	Overlookers.
Skein-printers, under 13	97	
Ordinary printers	. 4 36	

FUSTIAN DYRING AND FINISHING.

Occupation.	Manchester.	Remarks.
Sadners Washers Copperasers Whiszers Dryers Men. Lads, from 13 to 15. Lads, from 15 to 17. Lads, from 17 to 19. Men. Head-enders, men. Tail-enders, men. Lads, from 17 to 19. Lads, from 17 to 19.	4 84 3 87 4 36 7 26 1 69 2 90 8 47 5 57 3 39 7 26 3 39	Shearers, cutters, and machine-finishers Do. Do. Hand-finishers, Dressers. Do. Stiffeners. Do.
Lads, from 15 to 17		Do. Enders and menders.

NOTE.—The hours of work in bleaching and dyeing-works must not exceed an average of 60 per week. Wages paid partly by piece-work, partly by day-work.

DYEING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Skilled dyers Unskilled dyers Blackers Blackers Botyressers and finishers Boys Dyers, women Dyers, girls Folders and froners Balleo-rinares	3 87 to 5 57 3 87 to 7 77 4 84 to 10 17 97 to 3 36 2 18 to 3 6 97 to 1 94 2 18 to 2 96

Note.—The hours of work in blenching and dyeing works must not exceed an average of 60 per week. Wages paid partly by piece-work, partly by day-work.

FUSTIAN-CUTTING.

Occupation.	Manchester.
Men on piece-work Women on piece-work Young persons	\$2 42 to \$4 84 1 45 to 2 90 97 to 1 94

NOTE.—Hours of work, 60 per week; wages paid chiefly by piece-work.

SMALL-WARE, BRAIDS, FRINGES, ETC.

Occupation.	Manchester.	Metropolis.
Silk smallware-weavers, male Silk smallware-weavers, female		\$7 02
Silk smallware-windors, female	2 42 2 90	3 03
Winders Makers up	369	1 09
Makers up, young persons	2 06	1 5/

NOTE.—Hours of work, 60 per week; wages paid by the week.

BOOT AND SHOE MANUFACTURE.

Occupation.	Metropolis.	Leeds.*	Newcastle- on-Tyne.	Ipswich.	Glasgow.
Riveters, best class Riveters, second class Finishers, best class Finishers, second class Citchers, males Machinida, females Fitters, females Last-makers Cleggers Cotters.		\$3 90 to \$8 47 2 90 to 8 47 5 08 to 9 68 5 08 to 9 68 5 194 to 3 39 1 69 to 2 90 4 84 to 7 26	\$4 64 7 56 5 32 3 00 2 30 4 40	\$4 84 to \$9 68	\$6 05 6 29 2 42 5 81

^{*}The number of hours are, for females, 54 per week, and for males, 59 per week.

CLOTHING.

Occupation.	Metropolis	Glaugow.	Ipswich.
Overlookers, men Cutters, men Basters, females, first class Basters, females, inferior Machiners, females, first class Muchiners, females, inferior Sewers, females, first class Pressers, men, first class Pressers, men, first class	9 20 2 30 1 47 3 41 2 90 2 96 6 61	10 cents per hour, 57 hours per week, but first- class hands carn more.	\$7 26 2 90 2 90 7 26

NOTE.—Ordinary hours of work from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m., but the average is less than 60 per week.

GENERAL FURNISHING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Dress-making Bedding Mantel-making Stuffing of furniture Making up of carpets, sewing Polishing of furniture. Upholstery, women for sewing, &c	4 17 2 66 8 89
Polishing of furniture. Upholstery, women for sewing, &c	

NOTE. -Ordinary hours of work from 8 a. m. to 9 p. m., but the average is less than 60 per week.

MANTLE-WORK.

• Occupation.	Metropolis.
Machinists, sewing: Experienced	\$3 63 to \$4 36 73 to 2 42
Hand-workers : Piece-workers	9 90 to 4 84
Day-workers: Experienced	2 90 to 3 63 73 to 2 42

NOTE.—The ordinary hours of work from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m., but the average is less than 60 per week.

STAY OR CORSET MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.	. Remarks.
Stay-cutters, men Stay-pressers, men Stay-machinists, females Stay needle-hands, females Stay-embroiderers, females Boners Eyleters, boys and girls Boxers, girls Finishers and overlookers Foremen Fitters.	9 68 3 15 1 94 2 66 2 18 1 94 1 69 1 69 4 84	Termed in the trade fanners. Sundry workers for superintending girls

NOTE.—Ordinary hours of work from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m., but the average is less than 60 per week.



LINEN-COLLAR MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Nen, cutters, first class Men, cutters, third class Men, cutters, third class Pemales, machine-hands, first class Pemales, machine-hands, second class Pemales, mochine-hands, third class Pemales, ironers, first class Pemales, ironers, second class Pemales, ironers, second class Pemales, ironers, state class	7 26 to 8 47 4 84 to 7 26 4 36 to 4 86 3 63 to 4 36 2 18 to 3 63 4 36 to 5 39

NOTE.—Ordinary hours of work from 8 a. m. to 8 p. m., but the average is less than 60 per week.

DRESS-MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.	Remarks.
•	Each.	
Two managers	. \$18 55	
One dress-maker	. 7 42	With board and lodging.
Two dress-makers	. 653	Do.
One dress-maker	. 605	Do.
One dress-maker	2 78	Do.
One dress-maker		Do.
One dress-maker		Tes only; no lodging.
One dress-maker		Do.
Two dress-makers		Do
One dress-maker		Do.
Three dress-makers		Do.
Three dress-makers		Do.
Seven dress-makers		Do.
Three dross-makers	351	Do.
Two dress-makers		Do.
Two dress-makers		Do.
Thirty-four dress-makers	2 90	Do.
Two dress-makers		Do.
Porteen dress-makers		Do.
Five dress-makers		Do.
Four dress-makers		Do.
		Do.
One dress-maker		Do.
Three dress-makers		With board and lodging.
One milliner		
Two milliners		Do.
Om milliner	. 3 51	Do.
Three milliners	. 234	Do.
One milliner	. 822	Do.
One milliner	. 185	Do.
One milliner	. 1 49	Do.
One milliner	. 1 39	Do.
Six apprentices	.	Do.

NOTE.—Ordinary hours of work from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m., but the average is less than 60 per week.

HAT AND CAP MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.	Manchester.	Glasgow.
Mackiners, hands Clerks Boys Readlewomen Hat-trimmers, women and girls Finishers, men Bodymen Bhapers, men Fetimen Hatters	4 84 1 21 2 42 2 90 \$7 36 to 9 68 7 26 to 9 68 9 68 to 14 52	\$2 49 to \$4 84 7 96 to 14 52 7 96 to 19 36 9 68 to 19 36 8 71 to 10 89	

NOTE.—Hours of work 60 per week.

PRATHER-MAKING.

Occupation,	Metropolis.	Remarks.
Men . Men, shaders Women, from 18. Girls under 16.	194 10 3 6/	According to ability.

MANUFACTURE OF ARTIFICIAL FLOWERS.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Men	\$1.51
Boys	1 21 3 29 97

IRON-MANUFACTURE.

- Occupation.	Middlesborough.	Neighborhood of Middlesborough.	Darlington.
Blast-Furnace :			
Keepers	\$12 28	\$12.28	\$12 99
Chargers	9 31	9 31	10 44
Slaggers		7 62	\$6 77 to 7 19
Mine-fellers		7 19)
Coke-fellers		5 92	5 44 to 6 17
Lime-fellers		5 64) .
Enginemen	8 47	\$5 08 to 9 31	
Weighmen		4 84 to 6 77	
Laborers	4 65		
Makons	5 08 to 6 05	4 35 to 7 98	
PUDDLING-FORGE:			
Puddlers	10 50		10 26
Shinglers	13 31	•••••	
Laborers			3 33 10 1 23
Weighmen	4 35 to 5 80	••••••	
RAIL-MILL:			
First heating	10 98		
Second heating	13 79	·	
Rollers	21 05		
Roughers and catchers		•	فقةا
Roughers and catchers at blooming	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		3 00
Changing and pulling out Bogeymen	1 000		***************************************
Wheeling iron	7 30		
Piling iron			
Sawing rails			
Straighteners			5 68 to 7 94
Weighmen			
Laborers	3 63 40 5 80		
PLATE-MILL:	3000000	1	
			19 70
Loaders and general laborers			
MERCHANT-NILL:			J 5 65 65
Heaters	8.50	l	
Rollers			
Chargers	3 63		
Laborers			100000000000
Weighmen			
Smiths		4 59 to 6 53	3 4 50 to 8 71
Smiths' strikers	4 59 to 5 08	4 59 to 6 53 4 35 to 4 84	
Boiler-smiths		6 77 to 7 01	795
Fitters	4 11 to 7 01	5 80 to 6 77	6 05
Pattern-makers.	5 80 to 6 77		4 47 to 641
		∢ உசுக்க க	4 1/ W 0 34
Joiners			
Joiners			6 17
	4 84 to 6 77		6 77

NOTE.—The average number of hours about 59 per week.

IRON-MILLS.

Puddlers	
Furnacemen Rollers Rollers Anders Rollers	12
acuers assistants. Railers' boys. Rail and Iron straighteners. General laborers.	2 7

NOTE.—The number of hours about 59 per week.

IRON-FORGING.

Occupation.	Manchester.
Fergemen Purnacemen Laborers Smiths, heavy Smiths, light	\$29 0- 8 70 4 8- 33 80 6 40 6 40
Furners	6 7 5 3

NOTE.—The number of hours about 59 per week,

IRON-FOUNDING.

Occupation.	Manchester.
lagis-iron smiths	
agine-crectors. Agine-fitters and turners.	1 2
fillwrights.	1 3
###::molders. done-makers aborers in founderies.	6
Misary laborers	
krikers for smiths	

NOTE.—Number of hours about 59 per week.

ENGINEERING, BOILER AND AGRICULTURAL MACHINE MAKING.

Occupation.	Mancheste	r.	Suffolk.		Emex.	Lincoln.	Glasgow.
Geod engine-fitters	\$8 % 7 % 7 74	5	\$6 05 to 7 10 9 8	05 16 96	\$5.80 5.80 6.29	\$6 72 6 72 6 53 6 77 5 39	\$5 80 to \$6 53 5 32 to 6 77 5 08 to 7 26
Day-work laborens Patiern-mackers Planers Hommermen	8 70 7 20 4 31	B			\$3 39 to 3 63 8 95 3 39	3 63 6 77	3 63 to 3 87 6 29 to 7 26 4 11

NOTE.—In Manchester the average is less than 60 hours per week. In the eastern counties the full bears are worked,

"Per day,

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LOCOMOTIVE-ENGINE MAKING.

Occupation.	Glasgow.
Fitters and finishers Turners, shapers, planers, and slotters	6 05
Drillers	677
Iron and brass molders	7 00 6 77 7 50
Boller-makers Smiths Forgemen	6 25 6 25 8 47
Laborers	3 63 4 11

NOTE.—The above wages are all average rates, many men being paid both higher and lower, according to ability. The hours of work average about 57 per week.

BOLT, NUT, AND RIVET MAKING.

•	Gangow.
Bolt-makers, good	
Solt-makers, common	`5 7
ut-makers, large	
livet-makers	5
derewers of bolts	
olt-makers' striker	i
Rivet picker-out	1
'urner'itter's apprentice	

LOCK AND SAFE MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
First-cless mechanics, known as tool-makers and engineers	\$10 16 to \$13 31, per 60 hours. \$7 96 to \$21 94, per 60 hours, piece-work. \$4 35 to \$8 47, for 60 hours.
is made by machine—mere unskilled 12Dor. Boys and youths. Women, employed to work automatic machines.	\$1 45 to \$3 14 \$9 17 to \$3 14, as the law allows.

NOTE BY PROPRIETORS.—Our system is exceptional to all others in this trade, by reason of the parts of the work being prepared by machinery similar to Enfield. Unfortunately, the best men only work about two-thirds time; consequently, they take only a part of what they earn. The hours of work are 60 per week.

SHIPBUILDING AND MARINE ENGINEERING.

Occupation.	Glasgow.	Metropolis.
SHIPBUILDING-YARD: Blacksmiths Angle-iron smiths Hammermen Riveters Pinters and Sters Calkers Helpers or laborers Rivet-boys Carpenters and boat-builders Joiners Blockmakers Painters Rigers	6 29 \$5 08 to 5 33 5 80 to 7 01 5 30 1 69 6 53 6 53 7 32	\$8 71 9 43 \$3 56 to 7 95 5 80 to 9 19 5 08 1 45 to 9 17 7 98 8 71 7 98

SHIPBUILDING AND MARINE ENGINEERING—Continued.

Occupation.	Glasgow.	Metropolis.
SHIPBUILDING-YARD—Continued. Machinists Borers ESGHE-WORKS: Draughtsmen Pattern-makers Joiners Blacksmiths Hammermen Fitters and finishers Iron-turners Machinists Laborers BOILER-WORKS: Platers and fatters Riveters and calkers Blacksmiths Hammermen Holders on and laborers Rivet-boys and blowers	\$5 68 3 93 6 41 6 59 6 53 3 87 5 86 6 05 5 55 5 55 5 55 5 55 3 32 6 47 5 44 6 29 3 75 3 44	\$87 79 67 53 87 43 87

SHEFFIELD TRADES.

					_	
Occupation.	A		unt ek	per		
IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURE.						
Hend puddler	\$29	04	to	\$ 48	40	
Ordinary puddler				6		
Lifter-up boy	.l				69	
Porgeman.	. 12	10	to	14		
Forge laborer	. 4	11	to	•	84	
Armor-plate laborer	4				53 47	
Pattern-maker	۔۔ ا			29		
Roller, head		78	το	23	84	
Roller, laborer	٠١				80	
Purnacemen, laborer					52	
Spring Atters	٦.				26	
Laborer to the above	1			9	68	
wire-cleaners.	١.				84	
Rod-rollers	19	2 10) to	14	52	
Sheet-rollers .					•••	
	1					
EDGE-TOOL MANUFACTURE.	١					
Forces, double, (of which the forger receives \$10.89 and the striker \$6.05, or \$12.10 an \$4.84, respectively.)	a				6 94	
Grinders, with apprentice					3 31	
Grinder, single-handed				1	0 88	
Hardeners.					6 77	
Warehouse-women	\				2 17	•
FILE MANUFACTURE.	- 1					
	- 1					
Porgers, double-handed, (divided in like proportion with earnings of edge-tool forgers)					19 3	
Former single handed	1				7	
					8	
DEFINITION OF THE PROPERTY OF						12
MORITHE WATER						68
Grinders		ı			•	•••
CUTLERY MANUFACTURE.						
SPRING-RMIFE CUTLERY:		١.	. ~	.		
0-1 1 te -1 1 te Anna	• • • •	1		3 ta 6 ta		3 47 7 74
Pen and pocket blade grinder	••••	1 :		6 to		8 47
144 BBG DOCKEL DISGO INTRELIGENCE CONTROL OF THE PROPERTY OF T		1	, 2	- W	•	J 71
TABLE-ESIVE CUTLERY:		.1	4 6	4 t	•	9 68
Table-knife cutler, (average, probably, \$6.77)		1		26 t		14 5
Table-knife cutler, (average, probably, \$6.77) Table-blade grinder		.1		26 t		12 1
I BOJE-DIAGE TOFFEE		1				
MANUFACIURE:		٠١				6 7
RAZOR MANUFACTURE:		-	6	05 1	0	8 4
Razor-entier Razor-grinder Razor-forger		٠l				7 2
RAZOT-TOFFEP.						

SHEKFIELD TRADES-Continued.

Occupation.		Lmc W	per •	
CUTLERY MANUFACTURE—Continued.				
SCISSORS MANUFACTURE:				
Forgers	\$4	84	to	\$7 74
Filers	6	05		8 47
Borers and finishers		05		8 47
Grinders, glazed		53		9 69
Grinders, polished-work (with a boy, a grinder will earn from \$2.90 to \$6.05 per week extra.)	7	26	to	11 61
Dressers, women	1	69	to	3 38
Burnishers, women.	1	69	to	2 90
SAW MANUFACTURE:	1			
Saw-makers, datal	6	77	to	7 98
Saw-makers, piece-workers	6	05	to	12 10
Saw-grinders	9	68	10	14 59
Saw-handle makers	4	84	to	7 26
Scourers, women			to	2 90
Warehouse-women	2	17	to	2 90
SILVER AND ELECTRO-PLATE MANUFACTURE.	1			
Silversmiths				8 47
Metal smiths				8 47
Stampers		71	to	9 6
Buffers, men				6 77
Warehouse-women				2 90
Warehouse-girls		45	to	16
Burnishers, women		۵.		2 90
Burnishers, girls	i	QÎ	to	9

The above rates are taken in all cases under the condition that a full week is worked. There are in Shef-field a very large number of small masters, who live from hand to mouth, and who, perhaps, are not always able to supply work to their men during the first day or two of the week. On the other hand, there are still larger number of operatives who decline to work, under any circumstances, on Monday, and very ofton on Tuesday, and who prefer the minimum of work capable of providing the bare necessaries of life. There are again some branches of the Sheffield traits so depressed, from various causes, that with the best intention a good workman can hardly get a living, after deducting from his wages his rent and wear and test of tools.

of tools.

There are thus three causes constantly in operation, especially in periods when trade is fluctuating and uncertain, which tend clearly to diminish the average rate of wages in this locality, as given in the foregoing pages.

NOTE.—The number of hours worked in Sheffield is about 58 per week.

WIRE-WORKING.

Occupation.	Manchester.	Remarks.
Weavers Drawers Winders Stitchers Dandy-makers Engineers Mechanics	9 43 2 17 3 14 12 10 4 11 4 84	They earn \$1.69 for the first fou
Weaving apprentices Drawing apprentices Boys	1 45	years. The last three year they earn \$3.63 (average) and the drawers \$4.59.

COPPER-MILLS.

Occupation.	Manchester.
Laborers Furnacemen Hammer-men Rolling-men Tube-drawers Boys over 16 years of age Boys under 16 years of age (full time)	7 96 6 05 5 81 5 08

COACH-BUILDING.

Occupation.	Man	che	ster	•
Bedy-makers Carriage-makers Painters Wheelers Smithers Piecemen 88888888888888888888888888888888888	6 7	B to B to B to I to	8 9 9 6 3	68 71 23 68 68 29 87 42

The boys serve for seven years. Their wages begin at 3 shillings per week and end at 10 shillings in the last year.

BUILDING TRADES.

Occupation.	Metropolis.	Manchester.	Bradford.
Joiners	Cents per kour. 16	Cents per hour. 141	Per week. \$6 61
Masons Bricklayers	16	15	7 26 7 26
Plasterers Laborers Superior laborers and scaffolders	16 91 10	7 <u>1</u> 81	4 84
Painters Plambers and glazziers Staters		14"	6 61 6 77
· ·			٠

NOTE. -In the metropolis 56; hours per week.

CABINET-MAKING AND UPHOLSTERY.

Occupation.	Manchester.	Metropolis.
Cabinet-makers I pholisterers Freach polishers Printers Gilders U pholistery sewers Turners Chair-makers Joiners Carrers Decorators	2 90	7 26 to 12 10 7 26 8 47 7 26 to 8 47 3 38 7 26 to 10 89 7 26 to 12 10

NOTE.—Sixty hours per week.

CLOCK-MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Clock-makers, first class	\$7 26 to \$9 68 6 05 to 6 77

NOTE.—The hours of work are 58 per week.

POTTERY.

Occupation.	Metropolis.	Manchester.	Newcastle-on- Tyne.	Edinburgh.
Hollow-ware pressers	7 26		\$5 81	\$5.8
OvermenThrowersTurners	8 71	\$8 47	5 81 6 78	6 6
Sagger-makers	8 71 7 26		7 26	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Laborers	5 08 4 84			
Lathe-turners, women	4 36		169 to 194	1 4 \$2 42 to 3 3
Boys, full timeBoys, half time		60	••••••	
Fettlers		5 32	12 10	
Mold-runners, boys			97 to 1 09 10 69 7 50	4 6 5 8
Dippers			7 74 1 94 to 2 18 1 45 to 1 69	
Jar-makers, girls			1 69 to 1 94	

BRICK-MAKING.

Occupation.	Kent.	Remarks.
Brick-molders Brick sorters and loaders Barrow-men Carpenters and bricklayers Shipwrights Engineers	\$4 36 to 5 08 . 5 81 6 53	All brick-making operations are paid at per 1,000 bricks, so that the wages can only be averaged.

GLASS-MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis
Founders. Sparemen, (whose duty it is to fill the crucibles)	\$8.7 8.6
Sparemen, (whose duty it is to in the cracines) Zithmen	
Intters' assistants	9 1
3-inding-boys moothing-men Smoothing-women	1 9 7 9 2 4
Polishing-men	8

NOTE.—The hours of work are about 50 per week.

SOAP AND CANDLES.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Copper sidesmen	\$5 76 5 76 4 80
Candle-pounders	\$6 24 to 7 20

OIL MILLS AND REFINERY.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Pressmen Grinders Hoppermen Boys Stokers Coopers Carpenters Yard-hands Blacksmiths	4 32 to 4 80 4 80 to 5 52 3 12 to 3 84 5 76 to 6 72 7 20 to 7 86 8 64 5 04 to 7 20

NOTE. -The hours of work are 60 per week.

RICE-MILLS.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Millers Skilled laborers. Ordinary laborers. Youth over 18 years of age. Boys under 18 years of age.	\$5 80 to \$7 26 5 80 to 6 29 4 35 to 5 08 2 38 to 4 11 1 45 to 2 42

CHEMICAL WORKS.

Occupation.	Newcastle on-Tyne.	Manchester
Sulphuric acid manufacture	\$6 53	
Working reverberatory furnices		
Manufacturing chloride of Mie	6 28	
Aborers	4 35	\$3 6
Bricklayers	6 29	5 9
Joiners	6 05	6 6
Millwrights	6 29	
Cartmen	4 59	4.7
Reelmen	6 05	
Coopers.	6 05	5 8
Sawyers	5 32	
Brick-makers	4 84	
Furnacemen		6 0
Engin 🛊 rs		6 2
Boiler-makers		6 0
Blacksmiths		5 3
Plumbers		5 9
Kasons		7 2
Founders, (molders)		7 1

BREAD AND BISCUIT MANUFACTORY.

Occupation.	Glasgow.
Biscuit-baking, men. Biscuit-baking, boys Biscuit-baking, girls, (packing) Bircad-baking, men.	\$1 69 to \$7 26 72 to 1 45 72 to 2 17 2 90 to 7 74
	1

BREWERY.

Oecupation.	Essex.
Stores, men	\$4 : 4 : 1 : 1 : 4 : 5 : 5 : 5 : 5 : 5 : 5 : 5 : 5 : 5
Millwrights, &c Blacksmiths Harness-maker Wheelwright Laborers to coppersmiths, millwrights, &c.	10 9 7 7

In the metropolis mechanics average \$8.34 per week; laborers average \$7.01 per week.

PRESERVED MEATS, FRUITS, FISH, PICKLES, ETC.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Packers, men, piece-work. Corkers, men, piece-work. Labellers, women, piece-work Men, day-work. Boys, day-work. Women, day-work.	\$7 02 7 50 60 per day. 5 08 \$1 45 to 2 42 48 per day.

SPIRIT DISTILLING.

Occupation.	Glasgow.
EngineersFiremen.	\$7 25 4 35
Millers	5 39 6 05
Malimen	4 59 \$4 11 and 3 87

TOBACCO AND CIGARS.

Occupation.	Metropolis.	Metropolis.	Metropolis.	Edinburgh.	Glasgow.	
Cutters			\$6 29 to \$6 53			
Boy-strippersSpinnersPackers	1 69 to 4 84 6 05 to 8 47 3 63 to 6 05	\$2 42 to 2 90	7 26			
Cigar-makers, best nands						
Sorters Snuff-makers and sifters Foremen Workmen	••••••		5 08 to 6 05		8 92	
Girls feeding machines Girls preparing tobacco for machines.				\$0 73 to 1 45		
Boys at presses	••••••		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	97 to 36	\$060 to 109 30 to 3	

Hours of work variable—about 56 per week. In Boston wages vary from 48 cents to \$16.94 weekly.

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PAPER MAKING.

Occupation.		I	Kent.			Keighley.						Dı	ırh	PM.		Glossop.	Manchester.
Skilled workmen Laborers Women Young persons. Children, half-timers	1	63 69 96	to to to	4 3 3	33 14 38		48	to to	2 2	05 11 66 90 96	1	45 45	to to	4 2 2	17	3 87 2 17 1 21	
Sleachers Ag-sorters, women Ag-sorters, women Ag-sorters, women Washers off, men Agchine, men Agchine, boys Ag-engineers			•••	•••	• • • •		•••			• • • •		•••	•••		• • • •		4 3 2 4 2 4 4 3 5 8 2 9

PAPER STAINING.

Occupation.	Metropolis,	Lancashire.	
Water-color printers, piece-work Flock-printers, piece-work Metal-printers Boys	1 20	\$1 20 2 40	

BOOK-BINDING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Pinishers	7 74 7 74 7 26 \$2 90 to 4 84 2 42 to 3 87

ENVELOPE MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.		
Envelope-cutters, men Envelope-cementers, women Envelope-stampers, plain, women Envelope-stampers, colored, women and youths. Envelope-folders, women Envelope-machine hands, girls Envelope, black borderers, women and girls	2 42 to 4 84 1 81 to 3 63 2 90 to 6 78 1 81 to 5 32 1 21 to 3 63		

With few exceptions, all persons employed in this trade are paid piece-work, which renders it impossible to give more than an approximation of the wages, as so much depends upon the ability and experience of the persons employed. The hours of work are, as a rule, from 9 a. m. to 7 p. m., with intervals of one hour for dinner and half an hour for tea.

TYPE FOUNDING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Casters Rabbers Dressers Boys	\$6 77 to \$7 98 4 35 to 5 80 7 99 1 21 to 2 42

LETTER.PRESS PRINTING.-PROVINCIAL RATES OF WAGES.

x		LABOR	IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.
	hour.	Jopping.	91 08 91 08
Overtime, per hour.		Meerly news.	* ************************************
	E 6460	Delly news.	**************************************
	,	Daily news.	2 22 3
Number of	hours per week.	Meekly newa	និននននិនន៩នន៩៩ន រដ្ឋ
_	noq	Jopping.	តិនិនននិនន ន នននននននននន
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News piece prices per 1,000 ens.		Brevier.	
iece pric		.Попрагеії,	8 688 589 73 8 858 88
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	Wages.	Межју пета	\$\text{\$\frac{\pi}{\pi}}\$
		Jobing.	\$\$\phi \$\phi \text{\$\phi
•		Тоwns.	Barnaley Backburn Brackburn Brackburd Brackburd Derby Dorrby Dorrbury Hallingt Hallinderafeld. Leods Manchester Manchester Manchester Manchester Manchester Barderafeld. Searborough.

LETTER-PRESS PRINTING.

Weekly	woges.
Compositors	
Presimen	
Boys	1 45

TANNING AND CURRYING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.	Remarks.
Skinners Skinners Skinners Skearers and finishers Curriers Enameliers and japanners Glove and leather finishors and dyers Tanners Tanners Tanners boys Jobbers Job	8 88 7 92 7 68 5 52 2 64 5 04 3 36 5 76 2 88 5 76 2 88 2 52 5 28	Piece-work. Day-work.

ROPE-MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.	Manchester.
Rope-yarn hand-spinners. Twin-spinners, men.	\$6 53 7 26	. \$5 57
Twine-spinners, boys. Machine-spinners, men	1 21 5 81	77
Machine-spinners, boys	2 18 1 69	
Rope-makers, (by aid of machinery,) men	2 42	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Carmen. Van-boys Warehouse-men.	l fri	••••••
Engine-driver	6 78	
Carpenter	5 81	

REED AND HEALD MAKING, ETC.

Occupation.	Manchester.
Reed-makers, men. Besd-makers, boys, (full time). Heald-knitting, women Heald-knitting, girls (full time).	1 45

INDIA-RUBBER MANUFACTURE.

Occupation.	Metropolis.	Manchester.		
Skilled workmen, class A. Skilled workmen, class B. Skilled workmen, class C. Ordinary workmen. Ordinary workmen. Soys Women. Siris Threaders, male. Kixers, male. Vulcanizers, male. Finishers, male. Siechanical hands, male.	7 50 to 9 68 6 29 to 7 26 5 08 to 6 04 3 87 to 4 84 2 90 to 3 38 1 45 to 2 42 2 18 to 4 30 1 45 to 2 18	3 87 to 4 36 4 11 3 87		

LUCIFER-MATCH-MAKING.

Occupation.	Manchester.	Remarks.
Chip-box makers Chip-box makers Match-box makers Match-box fillers Match-cutting, boys ower 13	2 46 2 62 1 94 60 1 94 3 63 2 38 85	Half-timers, girls. Full-timers, femules Do. Do. Do. Half-timers, boys. Half-timers, girls. Full-timers, femules Full-timers, femules Full-timers, femules Half-timers, toya. Full-timers, toya.
Match-cutting, men	4 36	Do.
Sawyers, laborers, &c., in yard	4 36	Do.

NOTE.—The hours of work are 60 per week.

FANCY-BOX-MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Paper colorers Cutters, piece-work Scorers, boys. Block and case hands Plain work	1 94 4 36
Plain work	\$2 66 to 2 90

NOTE.—These are about the average wages for good hands all the year.

CARTRIDGE-MAKING.

Occupation.	Metropolis.
Laborers, by time, from	\$4 36 to \$6 53 6 78 to 9 20 2 42 to 2 90 1 94 to 4 60

BRUSH-MAKING.

Occupation.	Leeds.	Metropolis.
Pan-hands Hair-hands Painters Finishers Borers Apprentices. Women.	\$7 26 6 05 9 68 6 78 7 26 2 18 2 18	\$8 47 10 89 \$2 18 to 4 36 1 69
Воуя	1 08	

RATES OF WAGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

AVERAGE RATES OF WAGES paid to persons employed in manufactures and trades, and the hours of labor, in various towns and their neighborhoods, in the United Kingdom in 1872. Compiled from returns communicated to the statistical department of the board of trade by the council and secretaries of the several chambers of commerce, &c.

LINEN AND FLAX MANUFACTURE.

BELFAST AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Raten of wages— per day.		Hours of labor— per day.
SPINNING:	80 04 40	#0.20	10
Preparers for spinning, women			10 10
Spinners, women		30	10
Hacklers, men		84	10
Mechanics, men		1 21	10
Overlookers, men			10
Laborers, men			10
WEAVING:	24 10	20	١
Winders, women	*24 to	36	10
Warpers, women			10
Weavers, women			liŏ
Overseers, men	1 45 to		iŏ
IN BLEACH-FIELDS:	1 - 10 10	_ 00	
Men	i	72	10
Women.		28	10
Lads and boys	16 to	28	ĩo

DUNDEE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

	Per week.				
PINSING:	_			-	-
Preparers for spinning, women		to	\$2	42	60
Preparers for spinning, lads and boys					60
Spinners, women	1 93		3		60
Spinners, girls		to	1		60
Twisters, women	2 05		2		60
Reelers, women	1 93		3		60
Reelers, girls	96	to		21	60
Hacklers, men			4		60
Hacklers, women	1 57		2		60
Hacklers, lads and boys		to	1		60
Mechanics, men	4 36		7		60
Warehousemen			6		60
Overlookers, men	5 75		8		60
Laborers, men	2 90	to	4	11	60
VEAVING:				i	
Winders, women	1 69			63	60
Winders, girls		to	1		60
Warpers, men	4 81		6		60
Warpers, women	2 18		3		60
Warpers, lads and boys			1		60
Weavers, women			1		60
Overseers, men	6 €5		8		60
Assistant overseers, men	4 84	to	6	05	60
		P	er (lay.	
B BLEACH-FIELDS:				1	
Men	*70	to		36 96	10
Women		to		12 18	10
Lads and boys		to		8	10

JUTE MANUFACTURE.

DUNDEE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Rates of wages per week.		Hours of labor per work.			
PINNING: Preparers for spinning, women Preparers for spinning, lads and boys Spinners, women Spinners, lads and boys Spinners, girls Twisters, women Reelers, women Hacklers, men Hacklers, lads and boys Mechanics, men Overlookers, men Laborers, men VEAVING: Winders, women Warpers, women Preparers	5 2		to to	1 2 1 1 2 2 3 3 1 5 5 7 4	27 24 39 39 24 54 51 69 81 32 26 36	600 600 600 600 600 600 600 600 600 600

WOOLEN MANUFACTURE.

DEWSBURY AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Ba'es of wages per week.	Hours of labor per week.
PREPARING WOOLEN CLOTH, ETC:		
Wool-sorters, men	\$6 29	59
Wool-scourers, driers, &c., men	4 36	59
Dyers, men	5 08	59
Dyers, foremen, men	9 68	59
Tenzers and willyers, men	4 60	59
Scribblers, foremen, men	10 89	59
Scribblers, feeders, women	2 90 9 68	59
Slubbers, men	2 18	59 59
Condenser-minders, women.	2 90	59
Spinners, men	7 26	59
Spinners, piecers, lads and boys	2 18	59
Spinners, foremen, men	9 68	59
Warpers and beamers, men	5 08	59
Warpers and beamers, women	3 14	59
Healders, lads and boys	2 90	59
WEAVING. ETC:		-
Weavers, men	4 84	59
Weavers, women.	3 87	59
Weavers, lads and boys	3 87	5 9
Weavers, girls	2 90	59
Weavers, foremen or timers, men	8 47	59
Knotters and sewers, women	2 96	59
Burlers, women		59
Millers, men	4 84	59
Millers, foremen, men	8 47	59
Manager, men	14 59	59
DRESSING AND FINISHING WOOLEN CLOTH, ETC:	4 84	59
Dressers or giggers, men	3 87	59
Tenters, men	5 57	59
Cutters or croppers, men	4 84	59
Cutters or croppers, lads and boys		59
Cutters or croppers, women	2 42	

WOOLEN MANUFACTURE-Continued.

DEWSBURY AND NEIGHBORHOOD-Continued.

Oecupation.	Rates of wages.	Hours of labor
	per week.	per weck.
DRESSING AND FINISHING WOOLEN CLOTH, ETC.—Continued, Press-setters, men Press-setters, lads and boys Barlers, women Drawers, men Drawers, lads and boys Brushers, lads and boys Enginemen, men Eaginemen, iads and boys Laginemen, iads and boys Mechanics, men Laborers, men Warehouse-men	\$5 38 38 66 68 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48	53 59 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60

IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURE.

SHEFFIELD AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Rates of wages per week. Hours of labor	
IBON-FOUNDERS, ETC.:	1	
Iron-moiders, men	\$7 74 to \$8 23	50 to 571
Iron-molders, lads and boys	2 42	60
Joiners, men	5 32 to 6 78	581 to 60
Grinders and glaziers, men	5 32 to 12 10	50 to 581
Grinders and glaziers, lads and boys	2 42	50
Pattern-makers, men	7 26 to 9 68	581 to 60
Pattern-makers, lads and boys	1 45	60
Pattern-makers' assistants, men	4 36	581
Tinmen, men	678	561
Blacksmiths, men	7 26 to 7 74	581 to 60
Black-miths, lads and boys	1 45	60
Blacksmiths, helpers, men	4 60 to 5 81	581 to 60
Engine-fitters and turners, men	7 26	581
Engineers, men	7 26	581 to 60
Millwrights, men	7 26	581
Molders, men.	7 74	58 <u>ā</u>
Planers, men		581
Turners, mcn		58₹
Screwers, men		581
Hammer-men		584
Strikers, mon		58
Borers, men.	5 81	58₹
Blotters, men	6 29	584
Purnace-men in forge	7 26	58
Founders, men	7 74	58
Engine-men	4 84	58 <u>I</u>
Drillers, men	5 08	58± 58±
Carters, men	4 36	571 to 581
Leborers, men	3 30	nit m not
Porgers of files, 12 inches and upward, men	8 71 to 9 20	48 to 56
Strikers, men		48 to 56
Forgers of files under 12 inches, men	6 05 to 8 47	50 to 60
Grinders, men.	8 71 to 14 64	50 to 60
Grinders, lads and boys		50 to 60
Cutters, men	4 84 to 5 81	50 to 60
Cutters, lads and boys.		50 to 60
Cutters, women	2 18 to 3 63	50 to 60
Cutters wirls	1 69 to 2 98	50 to 60
Hardeners, men	6 53 to 7 74	50 to 60
Hardeners, women	2 18	50 to 60

IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURE-Continued.

SHEFFIELD AND NEIGHBORHOOD-Continued.

Occupation.	Rates of wages per week.	Hours of labor per week.
HORSE-NAIL MAKERS: Horse-nail makers (forgers) by machinery, men	\$5 32	581
Strikers, men Forgers, men Grinders, men Setters-in, men Whetters, men Saw-Markers:	5 81 7 26 7 26 5 08 5 81	48 48 49 49 48
Makers, men. Grinders, men. Handle-makers, men. SCISSOR-MAKERS:	6 53 8 71 6 53	54 54 54
Forgers, meu Grinders, men Grinders, lads and boys Filers, men Filers, men, lads, and boys Finishers, men Dressers, women Burnishers, women Spring-Kriff Makers:	\$4 84 to 7 74 6 05 to 8 71 2 42 to 5 32 5 08 to 7 93 2 42 to 3 63 6 05 to 8 47 1 69 to 3 90	55 47 47 55 53 50 50
Grinders, best work, men. Forgers, best work, men. Cutiers, best work, men. Scale and spring makers, best work, men. Table-Knipe Makers.	7 26 to 8 71 7 26 4 36 to 7 26 6 53	48 48 54 54
Forgers, men. Strikers, men. Grinders, men. Hafters, men. STOVE-GRATE FITTERS AND FENDER-MAKERS:	8 71 6 17 5 81 5 81	48 48 48 54
Molders, men. Molders, lads and boys. Fitters, men. Fitters, lads and boys Grinders, men. Grinders, men. STREL-MAKING:	8 23 2 90 7 26 2 43 12 10 2 90	50 50 50 50 50 50
Converter Converter Melter Puller-out Coker Forge-man and tilter Rod-roller Rod furnace man Sheet roller Sheet-furnace man Teemer Pot-makers Laborer Boys	7 26 to 8 47 4 60 8 23 to 24 20 6 78 to 8 47 4 60 to 5 33 8 71 10 16 9 68 7 26 9 68 9 68 9 68 9 68 1 94 to 4 36	50 to 72 50 to 72 50 to 72 50 to 72 50 to 73 50 to 73 50 to 73 50 to 73 50 to 72 50 to 72 50 to 72 50 to 72 50 to 73 50 to 73 50 to 73

NEWCASTLE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

	Per to	D.	Per day.
Puddling:			
Highest rate		\$ 3 15]	10
Lowest rate	. . l	2 30	10
Average rate		2 60	10
PLATE-ROLLING:			
Rolling	*\$1 09 to		10
Heating	. *67 to	97	10
Charging		*38	10
Shearing	67 to	84	10

^{*} Extras are paid on these prices for best qualities.

IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURE-Continued.

NEWCASTLE	AND	NEIGHBORHOOD—Continued.
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Occupation.	Rates of wages per tor.	Hours of labor per day.
AR-ROLLING: Rolling Heating Cutting down ON-TOURDERS, ETC.: Iron-molders Joiners Pattern-makers Tinmen Blacksmiths Blacksmiths Blacksmiths' helpers Engine fitters and turners Boiler-makers Mill wrights Planers. Turners Screwers Drillers Apprentices Carters Apprentices Carters	\$0 68 to \$1 09 50 to 93 32 Per day. \$1 13 1 13 1 05 105 105 105 105 105 105 105 105 10	10 10 10 10

DUNDEE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

	Per week.	
RON-FOUNDERS, ETC.:		
Iron-molders, men	\$7 26	5
Iron-molders, lads and boys	1 41	5
Joiners, men	5 57	5
Pattern-makers, men	5 81	5
Blacksmiths, men	5 69	5
Engine-fitters and turners, men	5 75	5
Engine fitters and turners, lads and boys	1 59	5
Boiler-makers, men	5 69	5
Boiler-makers, lads and boys	1 94	5
Engineers, men	5 57	5
Engineers, lads and boys	2 90	5
Planers, men	5 44	5
Planers, lads and boys	i 2i 1	5
Turners, men	5 93	5
Turners, men Turners, lnds and boys	1 59	5
Screwers, men	3 87	Š
Finishers, men	5 44	5
Finishers, lads and boys	2 90	5
Hammer-men	3 87	5
Strikers, men	3 87	5
Borers, men.	3 87	5
Slotters, men	5.32	5
Furnace-men	4 60	5
Enrine-men	4 84	5
Cartera, men.	4 23	5
Porters, men	3 15	6
Laborers, men	3 63	5

SHIP-BUILDING, (OF IRON.)

NEWCASTLE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Rates of wages— per day.	Hours of labor - per day.
SHIP BUILDERS: Moulders Fitters Chippers Riveters Pisters Calkers Carpeaters Helpers Smiths Joiners and carvers Painters	\$1 91 \$1 05 to 1 09 73 to 81 1 17 65 to 1 33 97 1 13 to 1 17 65 to 97 97 to 1 17 1 09 to 1 21 73 to 1 13 73 to 81	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10
Sawyers Surkers Boys Laborers	1 09 52 to 77 24 to 40 60 to 73	10 10 10

BELFAST AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Strikers or helpers	1 13 59 1 09	10 10 10 10 10 10
Angle-iron smiths Riveters Holders-up	1 09 1 01 65	10 10 10

DUNDEE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

	Per week.	
RON-SHIP BUILDERS: Molders. Builders. Fitters Chippers. Riveters. Picters Carpenters. Helpers. Boiler-makers Smiths Engineers Joiners and carvers. Painters. Drillers Sawyers Strikers Boys. Laborers.	\$7 26 6 78 6 78 5 68 5 68 6 53 to 7 02 5 81 to 6 29 5 81 to 6 29 6 78 6 78 6 78 6 78 6 29 6 78 4 36 6 29 6 3 87 1 4 36 2 3 87	57 57 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58

Hours of labor nor day.
of labor
of labor
of labor
of labor
Hours
}

Saggar-makers, men
Biscuit-firemen, men
Biscuit-pineers, men
*Rates paid for piece-work. † Rates paid for day-work.

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EARTHENWARE AND PORCELAIN MANUFACTURE—Continued.

NEWCASTLE AND NEIGHBORHOOD-Continued.

Occupation.	Rates of wages рет day.	Hours of labor
ARTHENWARE—Continued.		
Printers, men	*\$1 09	10
Printers' transferrers, men	*48	10
Glost-firemen, men	†1 21	· •
Glost-placers, men.	*97	10
Enamelers, men	*1 94	10
Enamelers, girls	*24	10
Kiln-men, men	*97	10
Warehousemen, men	1 97	10
Warehousemen, women	t36	10
Warehousemen, girls	120	10
Painters, women	*73	
Painters, girls	*24	10
Burnishers, women	*60	
Laborers, men	81	10
Laborers, women	36	10
Laborers, lads and boys	20 20	10
Laborers, girls	*1 94	10
Gilders, men	*1 91	10

CHEMICAL MANUFACTURES.

NEWCASTLE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Rates of wages per day.	Hours of labor per day.
CHEMICAL WORKS: Foremen	ž 1 41	,,,
Time keepers and weighers, men	81 1911 - 1911	
Enginemen and brakesmen, men	. 93	
Firemen, boiler-men, &c., men.	89	
Sulphuric-acid makers, men.	1 09	
Sulphate of soda makers, men.	i 17	10
Sulphate of sods makers, lads and boys		
Crude-soda makers, men	.1 09	
Caustic-soda makers, men	1 09	
Caustic-soda makers, lads and boys	36	
Carbonate of soda makers, men	1 13	
Crystals of soda makers, men	89	
Bi-carbonate of soda makers, men Bleaching-powder makers, men	1 2	
Fire-brick makers, men.	1 %	
Fire-brick makers, lads and boys	4á	
Common-brick makers, men	81	
Common-brick makers, lads and boys	48	
Tile-makers, men	8	
Blacksmiths, men	1 09	
Blacksmiths, lads and boys	36	10
	1 13	10
Millwrights, lads and boys	36	
Joiners, men Joiners, lads and boys	1 09	
Joiners, lads and boys	36	
Plumbers, men	1 21	
Plumbers, lads and boys	36	
Bricklayers, men	1 13	
Bricklayers, lads and boys.	36	
Masons, men	1 21 73	
Laborers, men	73 81	
Keelmen, men	13	
Saw-mill men	1 09	
Coopers, men	1 21	
Coopers, lads and boys	73	

^{*} Rates paid for piece-work.

BOOT AND SHOE MAKING.

NEWCASTLE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.		
Occupation.	Rates of wages per week.	Hours of labor per day.
Boot and shoe makers: Foremen, men	\$8 47 5 81 5 08 6 05 7 74 2 90 3 39 1 21 1 21	91 91 12 91 91 91 91
BELFAST AND NEIGHBORHOOD.		
	Per day.	
BOOT AND SHOE MAKERS: Closers, men Closers, women Bootmen, men Shoemen, men Ladies'-men, men Jobbers, men Binders, men Binders, men Makers, men Brewing.	\$0 36 to 48 97 to 1 21 97 to 1 21	Various Do. Do. Do. Do. Do.
NEWCASTLE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.		
Occupation.	Rates of wages per week.	Hours of labor per day.
BREWERS: Mash-house men and others. Uppermen Upper cellarmen Mait-house men Upper draymen Under draymen Coopers Carpenters Smiths Laborers	\$5 08 12 10 6 53 5 08 7 26 5 08 6 53 6 77 6 77 3 63	12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12
BELFAST AND NEIGHBORHOOD.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
	. Per week.	
Brwens: Maah-house men Uppermen Upper draymen. Coopers Carpenters. Laborers.	\$3 39 3 39 \$3 87 to 4 84 *4 84 to 7 26 7 26 2 90	72 73 72 72 72 72

^{*} Rates paid for plece-work.

BUILDING TRADES.

BELFAST AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Rates of wages per day.	Hours of labor per day.
BUILDING TRADES: Foremen	\$1 33 to \$2 42 1 21 60 1 21 1 21 1 21 1 21 1 21 1 21 1 21 1 2	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10

GAS-WORKS.

BELFAST AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Rates of wages per day.	Hours of labor per day.
GAS-WORKS: Gas-makers. Stokers. Refort-men Engineers. Joiners. Bricklayers Smiths Pipe-layers Lamplighters Lamporers	1 01 1 05 1 13 1 13	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10

NEWCASTLE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

	Rates of wages per week.	Hours per day.
GAS-WORES: Gas-makers	\$8 23	18
Stokers. Retort-men Engine-men	8 23 8 23 7 74	19 12 19
Joiners Bricklayers Smiths	6 53 7 26 6 29	10 10 10
Pipe-layers	5 81 6 29	10 10
Lamplighters Laborers	3 87 4 36	

HAT-MAKING.

BELFAST AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Rates of wages	· fan and	Hours of labor per day.
HATTERS, SILK: Body-makers, men Silk-finishers, men Tippers off, men HATTERS, FELT: Body-makers, men Proofers, men Blockers, men Dyers, men Finishers, men Crown-sewers, women Trimmers, women Cap-makers, women	\$1 21 to 97 to		Various. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do

LEATHER MANUFACTURE.

BELFAST AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Rates of wagest per week.	Hours of labor per week.
Tanners Curriers	\$3 00 Paid by piece.	60
Beam-men and shed-men Brap-makers Laborers	3 63 3 63 \$2 42 to 2 66	60 60 60

NEWCASTLE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

Occupation.	Per week.	*Per day.
Tanners, men. Tanners, lads and boys. Beam-men, men. Beam-men, lads and boys Bhed-men, men Bhed-men, lads and boys Laborers.	\$5 08 1 45 6 05 2 18 6 17 2 18 4 36	10 10 11 10 11 10

^{*} For every day except Saturday, when the hours of labor are 61.

SOAP-BOILING.

	DELFAS.	I. WWI	NEIGH	OKHOO) .
_					

Occupation.	Rutes of wagos per week.	Hours of labor per week.
Soap-boilers	\$5 08 \$2 90 to 3 14 5 08 3 14 2 90	

NEWCASTLE AND NEIGHBORHOOD.

annum (£218).	*	31. (155	12	69
		• •	5	81	69
			4	60	69
					69
			6	77	69
	t \$ 9 68	to	12	10	69
			6	29	69
			5	08	69
	4 60	to	5	32	69
			4	36	69
	2 18	to	3	87	69
		• -	4	84	69
		1\$9 68	1\$9 68 to	5 4 4 5 5 6 6 5 5 6 6 6 5 5 6 6 6 6 6 6	5 81 4 60 5 81 6 77 1\$9 68 to 12 10 6 29 5 08 4 60 to 5 32

* Per annum. † For the three.

SEAMEN'S WAGES.

PORT OF HULL.

Occupation.				wag ath.	
Masters	38				40
Second mate First engineers Second engineers Stokers	33 16	24 88 94	to to	87 58 24	88 12 08 20
A. B. seamen	9	52 68		24	50 30 30

PORT OF DUNDEE.

Masters	348 40 to 3596 80°
First mate.	24 20 to 38 72
Second mate	14 52 to 29 04
Masters First mate. Second mate First engineers	Per week.
First engineers	\$13 31
Necond engineers	1 247
Stokers	6 29
Stokers A. B. seamen Ordinary seamen	Per month.
A. B. seamen	\$14 59 to \$16 94
Ordinary seamen	2 42 to 12 10

WAGES IN IRON-MILLS.

Before proceeding to investigate the rates of wages in the iron mannfacture of Great Britain in July, 1872, the author had several interviews with Walter Williams, esq., who supplied him with letters to the most distinguished iron-masters of England and Wales. In subsequent interviews both in England and the United States, and by frequent correspondence, Mr. Williams has afforded information of great value, especially in regard to the cost of labor in the Cleveland, the South Staffordshire, and the Welsh iron-mills. Finding that the prices of labor in iron-mills then and subsequently prevailing were by no means established—the mutations from the standard of 1871 being nearly as frequent as those of the mercury in the thermometer, or the price of stocks on 'change—the author postponed from time to time the compilation of the data he had at command, until the present period, in order to furnish the latest schedule agreed upon by masters and men. It is probable, however, that before the figures in the following tables meet the eves of readers, such other changes may occur as to render them then inaccurate, and they may, therefore, fail to fully represent the actual earnings of mill-operatives at that later period.

STANDARD WAGES.

To show a few of the changes that have occurred in the wages of mill-hands, it may be stated that the standard wages in the north of England iron-trade which were adopted and printed in 1871, underwent an addition of 6d. per ton on puddling prices, and 5 per cent. on other wages was made in October, 1871; a further addition of similar amount in April, 1872, and still further additions in 1872, making a total advance of 20 per cent. from standard rates. In some parts of England, such as South Staffordshire, the aggregate advance amounted to 30 per cent. on the fixed rates. Having reached the maximum the wages gradually declined, until, in October, 1874, they were established at an advance of 12 per cent. on the standard prices of 1871, which are given in the tables on the following pages. The price for puddling, which in 1871 was 9s. 6d., has, after various changes, been fixed at 10s. 9d. (\$2.60 United States gold) per ton.

Under date of Stafford, October 25, 1874, Mr. Williams writes:

I send you a printed list with all particulars at the standard rates. To these add 12 per cent. These rates represent not only the north, but Staffordshire and all the midland counties and Scotland. Wales is 25 per cent. to 27½ per cent. lower. Blast-furnacemen's wages would not be covered by a rate of 5s. 6d. to 6s. per ton on common iron, and 8s. to 9s. per ton, 2,240 pounds, on best iron and cold blast.

Advices from Wolverhampton state:

At a meeting of representative iron-masters and iron-workers held at this place October 2, 1874, a new rate of wages to be paid to the workers of finished iron was adopted. Puddlers are now paid 10s. 9d. per ton, and mill-men's wages in like proportion. This rate is based upon the average net selling prices, during the past quarter, of finished iron in the north of England, and of the bars sold by twelve selected firms in South Staffordshire. The reduction in puddlers' wages is is per ton, and in mill-men's wages 10 per cent. This settles the wages question in England for another quarter. The reduction has been cheerfully submitted to by the men, and has afforded satisfaction to the employers. The former looked for a fall in wages of 12½ per cent., and even 15½ per cent. was not thought too much, while the latter were scarcely prepared for more than 7½ per cent.

NORTH OF ENGLAND IRON-TRADE.

Standard wages in September, 1871.

PUDDLING-MILLS.

Description of work. Idling— Roy pig Mottled pig Notice pig Gray. mottled, and white, mixed.		Hopkins, Gilkes & Co. 9s. 6d. per ton 8s. 6d. per ton 8s. 6d. per ton Pro rate Pro rate	Darlington Iron Company. 9s. 6d. per ton 8s. 6d. per ton 9s. per ton	Stockton Malleable-Iron Company. 9a. 6d. per ton. 9a. 6d. per ton.
Castings Weiging and wheeling neetal to pud- dlers. Underhands' wages			9a 6d per ton 2d. puddled bar; 14d. pigʻiron, unloqding and breaking. 3a. 6d. per shift	10s. per ton. 3d. per ton, including breaking. 3s. 2d. and 3s. 4d. per shift.
Allowance for working level-hand Terms of arrangement with masons for repairing furnaces. Puddlers paid for balls made from	6d, per shift. Contract, 5d. per ton 4s. 9d, per ton.	6d. each, full heats	6d. por shift. Puddling-furnaces, 44d. per ton; ball-furnaces, 14d. yer ton. 5s. por ton	6d. por shift of full heats. Masons, 5s., and laborers, 2s. 9d. per day. Same as puddled fron on weight
ther bottoms. labs, &c	Secret produced on word or other bottoms. 2s. 6.97d, per ton House on word or other bottoms. &c Is. 8.73d, low ton, firm-charge and	2s. 74d. per ton	2s. 7ld. per ton	
Reheating puddled-blooms for rufl- tops, &c. Assistance given by firm in ball-far- meing, &c.	Robesting puddled-blooms for rull. 1s. 27d. 3.3cd. whon two bigh. Assistance given by firm in ball-far-net at 3s. 2d. por day. men at 3s. 5d. for reheating.	1a. 1.8d., firm finding belp; 1a. 3.95d. whon two high. Firm find chargers and bogeymen at 3a. 5d. for reheating.	Doubled lumps, 1s. 1fd. All chargers and bogeymen at rebeating and scrap furnaces;	2s. 34d. per ton; no assistance found.
Help found by furnacoman on preceding and wayen of each man.	Heater finds one boy at 1s., and pilvs when balling scrap.	Underhand for scrap-furnaces; boy at reheating furnaces.	catagers, se. ou., and pogor- men, 3s. 6d. per shift. One boy, 1s. per day at reheating and ball furnaces.	One at 3a. 8d. and one at 1s. 1d.
Singles Daubles Trebles and fours	9.18d. per ton 11.55d. per ton 1s. 1.86i. per ton	9.8d. per ton 11.5d. per ton 18.1.9d. per ton	94d. per ton. 1s. 4d. per ton. 1s. 4d. per ton.	104d. per ton. 18. 13d. per ton. 18. 13d. per ton.
Rail-tirraco pilos Rail-topa or stabs Assistance given by the firm in bogoy- ing or otherwise. Rolling—	6.60d. per ton 6.60d. per ton 7.41 hogeyauen from hammors, at 3a. 2al., and one helper when 6.60b)ing at 3a. 2d.	9.94. por ton f.66. per ton All bog-ymen, excepting from sorap-furnaces.	94d. por ton 63d. per ton 63d. per sing to furnoes and rolls, 3s. 6d. per shift. Time, 5s. 9d. per day underhands;	104d per ton. One boy at each hummer, at 2s. or ls 11d, per day. 104d, per ton.

Standard vages in September, 1871—Continued. BAR AND ANGLE MILLS, 19-INCH—Continued.

Description of work	Bolokow, Vaughn & Co., Mid- dlesborough.	Bolokow, Vaughn & Co., Mid. Palmer's Ship-Building and Iron Clesborough.	Darlington Iron Company.	J. Abbott & Co.
Bogoying to rollers Assistants paid by furnacemen, and wages of each. Assistants paid by firm in heating, and wages of each.	2s, Id. per day. Lighting up at 1s, per fortaight. When working piles above 130 pounds, 2 chargers at 2s, 6d, and 1 puller-out at 2s, 6d.	36 Door-drawer at 1s.; when pile exceeds 200 pounds, firm pays two chargers at 3s, per shift.	2a. 6d. per shift	Done by furnacemen. One boy each. Above prices include delivering to rolls.
Angles, T-iron, and flats	Angles and bar-iron (piles 30 pounds and above,) % 8. 8.13d. per ton. Inch do do flase below 50 pounds. 3.16f n. 8.9.33d. 1.16f n. 8.9.33d. 2.16f per ton; piles 50 pounds cotors.	Angle-iron, all sizes rolled in mill down to 14 by 14 inch, and rounds and squares down to and including 1-inch, and flats down to and including 2-inch, 28. 3 1-5d. and 15 percent. Angles, 14 by 14 inch and under, flats under 2-inch, and rounds and squares under 1-inch, 3s. 4d. and 15 percent.	Angles	Angles and T-iron, 2-inch and above: rounds and squares, 1 to 14 inch, and flats, 2 to 34 inch, 2s. 11.2d. Bolts and angles and T-iron, under 2-inch, 3s. 10.2d. inch, 3s. 10.2d.
Assistants paid by roller, and wages of each man. Rolling re-bested iron—angles, &co Labor or assistance given by firm, and	For piles 50 pounds and above: rougher 7.46d. per ton; each er, 6.6d. per ton; hooker-up roughing, 1a, 3d; hooker-up finishing, 3a, 1a, 3 boys on plake, is each, all per day. Boy on plake-atraightening at	Boller pays all help at rolls 64. 4.5d, and 15 per cent, including first heating. Two boys on each shift on plate	Bogeving to rolls, 2s. 6d.; catch-	All labor at rolls. 3s, 8d.
Cutting down, wheeling, and piling 11.34d. per ton	11.34d. per ton		up, 2a. 6d. ; per chift.	1e. 2½d.
Dragging ont and hot-straightening Paid by roller, except boy, at la. 4d, as above. Saving 4a and 2a. 6d per day. Cropping do	Paid by roller, except boy, at 1s. 44, as above. 4s. and 2s. 6d. per day. do. do.	Dragging out and hot-straight ening and sawing, 1 at 4s, 1 at 4s, 1 at 4s, 2 at 1s, each sd. and 10 per cent do	Dragging out and hot-straight- ening, 3a per day. Time, at 3a, 6d., and 4a, per shift. do Time, at 3a, per day.	Done by reliers. Time, 3s. 8t. Do.

BAR AND ANGLE MILLS, 16-INCH.

Description of work.	Bolokow, Vaughan & Co., Mid- diesborough.	Fry, Ianson & Co.	Hopper, Radoliffe & Co.	John Abbott & Co.
	Common sises la 11.75d per ton. Box piles \$a. 2.75d, per ton		Above 50-pound pile, 1s. 11d. per ton; box-piles, 2s. 3d. do do do do do	Ordinary sizes below 34 rounds and squares, angles above 2 to and squares, and 10 to rplies, 18, 5.7d.; bolts and squares, above 34, 38, 6.9d.; bolts 18 and below, 28, 5.7d.
çe-raile,	Common eizee 11.875d, per ton;		2a. 04d. per ton Half-price of first heating.	sa. oft. per wa. Do. Bo. 3s. 10.8d. includes first heating.
	box pues is, ign. por von. Common sizes 2s, 9d. per ton		Above 50 pounds, 22. 8d. per ton.	Ordinary sizes as above, 3a, 1.4d.; bolts and squares, 34 and above, 3a, 6.9d.; bolts, 13 and below, 3a, 1.4d.
P-iron,		billets, 2a. 14d., and 15 per cent. do All sizes 2a. 10d. and 15 per cent.	do 7d. per ton extra	3s. 1.4d. per ton. 3s. 10.3d. per ton.
Assistants paid by rollers out of the above, and wages of each man.	Rougher, catcher at roughing, hooker at roughing, hooker-up finishing, catcher at finishing, man on the plate 3s. 6d. paid by firm and roller half cach.	Rougher, 6d. per ton; catcher, 54d. per ton, including hooking. Catcher at finishing, 2s. per shift; hooker, 1s.; man on plate, 2s. 9d.	Rails rougher 74d., and catcher 6d., hookerin, 1a, per day; finishing-catcher, 2s, 6d.; 3 hookers, 1s, 6d., 1s, 1s, 1s, 1s, 1s, 1s, 1s, 1s, 1s, 1s	All holp at rolls and on plate, except as specified below.
Help found by firm, and wages of each man. Cutting down, wheeling, and piling Dragging out and hotestraightening	each 4 wages of man on plate as above. Wheeling & piling 10.5d, per ton. ing 2a, 8d, and 2a, 10d, day-work	Bogoyman from furnace to rolls, and when rolling heavy iron a hooker found. 1044 and 10 per cent abort lengths, 14d extra.		1 hooker-in at 4c., and allowance to rulie of 5c 6d. per shift for labor on plate. and by roller, as above. 1s. 24d. plain pile; la 44d. box. pile.
Sawing Weighing and loading.	de, per day and assistant to load bogeys & 6d. per day.	74d. and 15 per cent. 114d. merchant iron and 94d. rails per ten, with loading and clearing hot-bed.	114d. merobant iron and 94d. rails per ton, with loading and clearing hot-bed.	2 men at 3s. 2d. and 4s. 3s. 8d. per day, and 3s. 10d. per week for weighman.

Standard wages in September, 1871—Continued. RAIL AND HEAVY ANGLE MILLS.

Description of work.	Bolokow, Vaughan & Co., Wit-	Hopkins, Gilkes & Co:	Darlington Iron Company.	Stockton Company.
Sise of train Number of furasce— First heating First beating First heating— First heating— Rails.	13 toocasionally 14 13 rail; 5 angle 4 this; 2 angle 4 thi		90-inch 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	20-inch. 14. 50 pounds and upward, 1s. 7d.
Angles Workman's loss for rails condemned after they pass the saws. Second heating— Rails.	Don't make angles		bont make angles 24 per cent, or rails made Above 46 pounds per yard, D. H., 944. if Anged rails above 58 pounds, 104.; 36 pounds, F. B., 14.444. per ten, and 40, 40.7.	Don't make angles. All bad rails mads. 50 pounds and upward, 94d.
Angles and by furnacemen and wages of each man. Blooming and catching, rall-piles Rolling rails, including toughing and catching.	Don't make angles. Boy at 1a per day; furnacemen pay lighting. Blooming 2.2d.; estehing 1.21d.; boy assisting, 1a 11d. per day. Roughing and estehing 6.89d.; rolling, 4.18d.; rollers looking after crop-rolls, 2a.6d. per	Boy, at 1s, per day; furnacemen pay lighting. Blooming and catching, 34d Roughing, and catching, 7d.; rolling, 4d.; 46 pounds and above in angle mill, 2a. 5.4d., including all labor.		Boy, at 1s, per day; furnacemen pay lighting. Blooming and catching, 313-16d. Roughing, catching, and rolling, 1s, 44d.; roller pays all help.
Cutting lown— Wheeling and piling rails Angles Charging first heating Pulling out to first besting	Piling, at 4s 2d, and 4s, 10d.; Is, 24d, per furnace wheeling hars, and 44d, per furnace for wheeling slabe. 2 men, at 3s, 11d 3 men, at 3s, 8d.	Piling, at 4s 2d, and 4s 10d.; 93-4, cold 16-inch mill, D. H., 84d.; 16-inch mill, P. B., 94d.; 96-inch mill, P. B., 94d.;	16-inch mill, D. H., 84d.; 16-inch mill, F. B. 9d.; 20-inch mill, D. H., 84d.; 20-inch mill, F. B., 9d.; all cold. \$2 men, 84.3a.6d.	l shearman, at 5s. 3d, por day; 1 helper, at 4s. 7d, por day; 1 wheeler, at 4s. 3d, por day; 1 piler, at 4s. 4d, por day; 1 piler, at 4s. 4d, por day; 1 piler, at 3s. 4d, per day.

Bogeving to blooming-rolls become I man, at fa. 7d, per day amon, at 11.30d cach. D. H. 14d, F. B. 14d becoming to second I man, at 6a. 34d, per day and a famon, at 11.30d cach. D. H. 14d, F. B. 13d become I man, at 5a. 3d.	S men, at fa. 7d, per day	1 men, at 11:30d cach.	D. H., 14d.; F. B., 14d	1 man, at 3a, 8d 1 man, at 3a, 3d.	
Charging to second heating	1 man, at 3a, 11d.; bogeymen help	Вое врото	3 men, at 3c., help to run cobble- bogoy.		
Foresting out to Solution in the Community	J mon of Ke 74 and Jan	1 man at 11.00d	I man at machine, et m. per shift.		
Charging and drawing angles	1 the second sec	1s. 1d. includes coble-bogey	D. B., 174.; f. D. 134	Charging, 8 at 3s. 5d; drawing,	
Dragging from rolls	3 men, at 38.6d., pull from rolls		(3 men, at 4s. 6d. per day	- 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10	
Throwing to filers.	3 men, at 4s.11d., throw into		Helped by assistant sawyer	Helped by assistant sawyer 1 man, at 5s. 1d.; 1 man, at 3s. 11d.	
Hot filing	2 men, at 4s. 7d.		Included in rate below for cold Included in hot straightening.	Included in hot straightening.	
Sawing	1 man, at 5e. 7d. per day		Sawing 36 to 42 pounds, F. B.	Included in dragging.	
			61 pounds, 64d. per ton; 61 pounds and upward, 64 per		
			duct id. per rail for all rails		
Hot straightening	4 men, at 4e. 8d., hot straighten-		Done by sawyers	Rails, 2 at 5s. 3d. per day, includ- ing filing; angles, 2 at 4s. per	~ 1
Dragging to bank Hammering Cold filing and dressing	ing and piling on bank. Included in dressing	straightener. Patching at fire, flange rails, 28. 24d; D. heads, 18. 104d.	Included in contracts below 6a. and 4a. 6d. per day Cold-filing included in contract	day. 2 or 3 men, at 4s, 2d per day.	. 4311
Patching at fire. Punching for fish Notching	Patching, 2.60d. per rail. 4d. per ton Punching and notching 5d nor			34d. per rail. 3-316d. per ton. Punching and notching. 54d. per	~~~~
	ton, extra notehing, 747d. O 43 for all times of 3 for all times about 33 mes ton. to 35 mes ton.	There seems 's a		ton; punching and notching light rails, 6.6d. por ton.	~.
Cold straightening rails 94d 95d 95d 95d 94d	and the transfer of the total and the transfer of the transfer	stock, 24d, per ton.	בי לה היים היים היים היים היים היים היים	ogu. por voz. 10d.	

Standard wages in September, 1871—Continued. PLATE-MILIS.

	Palmer's Iron Company.	29-inch. 28. 7.2d and 15 per cent. to 10 cwt.	Half-price oxtra.	Over 10 cwt., half-price extra, first heating in addition to first	is, per ton, includes pulling out.	1 boy at 2 furnaces, at 1s. 1d. door- drawing.	Man to fire. Firm navareller 3a foreach shift.	who finds all bogeying.	3a 2.4d. and 15 per cent.	Over 15 cwt., half-price extra.	4s. 9.6d. and 15 per cent.	1a 6d. and 15 per cent.
	Consett Iron Company.	22-inch	3s. 7.95d. 4s. 5.90d., includes first heating	No specified amount	Cold-charging: rolling-off mills, 3s. 10d.; doubling ditto, 3s. 8d.; when extra firmace is working, 9d. extra; hot-charging and milling out, 3s. 10d. extra: ad.	H		P.	3s. 10‡d. per ton		5s. 84d. per ton in rolling-off mills.	Wheeling, 4e.; when working extra, 6d. extra, and piling, 4e. Spor day; when working extra.
	Pease, Hutchinson & Co.	22-inch 38. per ton rolling off, up to 15 cwt.	3s. 5d., less 5 per cent	over 20 cwt., price and quarter;	38. 34d, per shift; man at crab, 3d. per shift; man at crab, 3d. per shift extra; 2s. prizononey when 11 shifts per fortnight are obtained.	6 boys per shift, at 1s. 4d. each	Paid by rollars	To the state of th	4s. per ton, less 5 per cent. up to	From 15 to 20 cwt., price and quarter; over 20 cwt., price	6s. per ton, less 5 per cent	Time; men at 4s. 7d. per day and boys at 2s. 2d.
	Bolckow, Vaughan & Co., Witton Park.	From 4-in. thick to 1,200 pounds, 28, 697d, per ton; below 4-in.	From 1 inch to 1,900 pounds, 3s. 7.83d. per ton, includes first before 1 is. per day clipping	Above 1,900 pounds, 4s. 2.4d. per ton, on first and second heat-	3 mes, at 3s. 7d. per day, includes pulling out.		1 boy, at 1s. per day	2 DATE:	6s. below 4-inch	4s. 24d. up to 1,800 pounds	turning rolls; stamping plates,	₽
	Description of work.	Size of train. First heating—plates on sand-bottoms.	Sheets, single, 3-16 and under Second heating—plates	Allowances for heavy or extra plates.	Charging	Help given by firm, and wages of each	Assistance paid by furnacemen, and wages of each.		Noung our pades— Ordinary piles	Double piles	Rolling sheets, singles, 3-16 and under.	Cutting down, wheeling, and piling

Number of hands paid by firm, and how, except for very heavy amount to cool. Shearing include outting up the Shearing includes cutting are amount to cool. And the shearing include outting up the Shearing includes cutting are amount to cool. Shearing include outting up the Shearing includes cutting to cool and wheeling it includes cutting up; firm pay 2a, 9d, per day for wheeling includes cutting and wheeling it includes cutting up; firm pays. Meighing may be a 16s, per week, for a makeling to crap and and a set includes cutting up; firm pays. Meighing may be a 16s, per week, for a makeling to crap and and wheeling in plate and and and and a set in maceling. Loading man, at 3a, per day; testing firm according areas, and in pays. Loading man, at 3a, per day; testing firm according and and and a set in maceling in plate and and in plate and and a set in mace; algoring from furnaces, and and in plate and and and a set in mace; algoring from furnaces, and and and and and a set in mace; algoring from furnaces, and	Shearing plates	Sa. 34d. per ton, includes mark- ing, lifting, shearing, and out- ting soraps.	Ba. 6d. por ton, lees 5 per cent., marking, shearing, cutting soraps, includes lifting.	In 4 mills, 2s. 48d. por ton, firm finding 9 men, at 3s. 8d. per day; in No. 4 mill, 2s. 3d., and	185. 34d. por ton, includes mark. Sa. 6d. por ton, less 5 per cent. In 4 mills, Sa. 4d. per ton, firm Sa. and 15 per cent. marking, lift. fing strain, at 3a. 4d. per lift, and out. marking, includes lifting. day; in No. 4 mill; 2a. 3d. and 15 per cent. marking, lift.
what directing needing contains acrap leades outling up; firm pay 2s, 9d, per day for wheeling nway. Iman, at 30s, 1 at 27s, 2 at 3st. Iman, at 30s, 1 at 27s, 2 at 3st. Iman, at 30s, 1 at 27s, 2 at 3st. Iman, at 30s, 1 at 27s, 2 at 3st. Iman, at 30s, 1 at 27s, 2 at 3st. Iman, at 30s, 1 at 27s, 2 at 3st. Iman, at 30s, 1 at 27s, 2 at 3st. Iman, at 30s, 1 at 27s, 2 at 3st. Iman, at 30s, 1 at 27s, 2 at 3st. Iman, at 30s, 1 at 27s, 2 at 3st. Iman, at 3st. Iman	Number of hands paid by firm, and amount to each.	None, except for very heavy plates, when laborers assist.	2 men, at 3s. 3d. por shift, at each shears, and extra help for special ricks.	a men at 5s. per day. Both these prices include all labor, except men as always.	
Times and 1 boy, Action 2 men, at 222, and 1 boy, and 2 at 162, per week, for 2 mills. and 2 at 162, per veek, for 2 mills. By contract, 12 per ton, long machine. By contract, 13 per ton on make. Time; bricklayers, 52, per day; 24d per ton on plates made. Impector, 30e, per week. 1 man, at 32, per day, testing 1 man, at 32, per day, testing 1 man, at 32, per day, testing 1 man, at 32, per furnace, at 1 man, at 32, per furnace, wheeling 1 man, at 32, per furnace, at 1 man, at 32, per day, testing 1 man, at 32, per furnace, wheeling 1 man, at 32, per day, testing 1 man, at 32, per furnace, wheeling 1 man, at 32, per day, testing 1 man, at 32, per day, tes	Does shearing include cutting up the scrap and wheeling! If not, what is paid for this!		Includes cutting up; firm pays 3s. per shift for wheeling away.	Except wheeling, for which firm pays.	Firm pays 1 man wheeling, at 3s. 4tl., and 2 boys cutting, at 2s. 5tl., at each shears.
80. up too, includes putting on 3a. 10d. per day	Weighing	wheeling from scrap-sucars. I man, at 30s., I at 27s., 2 at 24s. and 2 at 16s. per week, for 2	Time, 2 men, at 22s., and 1 boy, at 8s. per day for weighing		Time; 48. 6d. per day.
Interpretations are the control of t	Loading	By contract, 1s. per ton, long	8d. per ton, includes putting on machine.	3a. 10d. per day	54d, and 10 per cent, per ton.
Inspector, 348, per woek	Torms of arrangement with masons	Contract, 3d per ton on make		Apr. per ton on praces mane	At. per ton.
•	for repairing jurnaces. Additional wages paid in plate-mill	Inspecting plates before delivery, 1 man, at 37s. 6d. per week;		clearing out ashes and slag, and 1s. 51d, and 1s. 8d. per furnace.	i inspector to each mill, at 48.3d. por day; boal, ash, and tap wheeling, 64d. and 10 per cent.
		I man, at 3s. per day, testing plates; slagging from furnaces 44s. 2d. per furnace; wheeling mund 2s. per day.		•	оп таке.

SOUTH STAFFORDSHIRE.

Standard wages paid in forges and mills.

	No. 4.	See Gil. per ton. See extra for beet See Gil. per ton. See extra for beet fron. Do.
figures in the following table.]	No. 3.	
are 30 per cent. in advance of the	No. 2.	9a. 6d. per ton do do do do do do do do do
[The wages paid September, 1872, are 30 per cent. in advance of the figures in the following table.]	No. 1.	9s. 6d. per ton. do do do do do do do do do los factor constra, 3 balls 5s. 6d. puddiling rail alabs 5s. 6d. per ton extra, 1s balls 5s. 6d. per ton extra, 1s bd. per ton; and id per inch above, ton; and id per inch above, ton; and id per inch above, baks; 3d. after. Id per ton Sa. 6d. Sa. 8d. Sa. 8d. Sa. 1 per ton Sa. 6d. Sa. 1 per ton Sa. 2 per ton Sa. 2 per ton Sa. 3 per ton Sa. 2 per ton Sa. 3 per ton Sa. 3 per ton Sa. 3 per ton Sa. 1 per ton Sa. 2
,	Description of work.	Puddling— Gray pig-iron Gray pig-iron White Mixed Mixed Mixed Mixed Plate-iron Extra pud puddled for doubles Balling beavy iron Gehesting puddled balls— Singles Dombles Trebles Trebles Weighing puddled bars Rolling ordinary puddled bars Rolling ordinary bars Rolling ordinary bars Rolling ordinary parse

ewit; line de doubled; 72.3d, 224 pounds. on slace above 18, on 400 lbs, and upward; fag- ewit; line de doubled; 72.3d, 224 pounds.	pp. Pati by roller. Assistance for large plates.	E SHEER	1940; besting rods, 1s. 7d.; 1s. Oay.work.	14 owt. 38. Time.	Burning, 213 per kiln of 180 tons; wheeling, 1d, per ton; grind- ing, 14d, per ton.	Day-work. Long. Time.	Тіве.	
10th and 5 per cent, on sizes 224 pounds.	Paid by roller, and 6d, per ton allowed for cutting up scraps. Paid by roller. Assistance for large plates	18s, and 5 per cent added Paid by voller.	Тіте	4 cwt. and 14 pounds 6. 2a. 3d. to 3e.		Long		
Ps. M. and 104 per cent. above 4 cvt.; 10s. 6d. doubled; 7s. 3d. annoaling.	2a per ton Paid by roller Trolloying, 7d. per ton	138. 1178. 64 1778. 64 1788. and 5 per cent added 1778. 64 178. 64 1784 by roller 1784 by roller 1784 by roller 1785. 64 1785 by roller 1785	Unloading coal and stocking fur- naces, 34d, per furnace; ashes, 2d, per furnace and 2s. 9d, per	4 and 4; cwt Cold from 6; fluid, 7; steel, 5. 22, de fluid, 83, 3d. 33, 8d. per day; 23, 4d. in other works; 24d. per form mill and bell furnaces; 44d. in the forge.	Burning, 29 5s. per kiln; grind- ing and wheeling, 44d, furnace.	Per roll, according to size Long 2s. 7d. to 5s. per day	4a. 4d. per day.	4s. 2d. per day and 1s. rer boller. 2s. 8d. per day.
104, per ton extra above 4 cwt., oxtras above 7 and 10 cwt.	1s. per ton, less 10 per ceut 3s. Cil. per ton; 1s. for extra sizes Assistance for large plates	12s. 7d 3 per ton extra on { 15s. 10d. } all thinner than 14. } 20s. 9d } gauge. Paid by roller	6s. 6d boat-load	4 cwt. and 44 cwt. 3a. 4d. per ton puddled iron; 2d. per fon finished iron; bull furmoe burs, and scrap-brop; 14d, per	ton puddled iron rebeated. Burning, 1s. 9d. per day; grinding, 1gd. per ton on all iron made at furnaces where built	44.1 per ton finished from, less 5 per cent.; extra for shafts. Long 44.1 per ton on all iron going	28. 8d. to 4s. 6d. per day. 5s. to 8s. per ton; hummers and anvils, 10s; finsks, 15s; rolls, 18s.; wheels, 20s; chilled rolls.	and beveled wheels, 35s.; melting, 1s. on whole weight. 25s. to 28s. per week.
Extra for large stace		Ningles Doubles Lattens Furnace-men in sheet-mills Shearing	Coal and ash wheeling	Weight of charge. Number of beats Underhands wages Terms of arrangement with masons for repairing furnaces.	Burning bull-dog, grinding, wheeling in fettling, &c.	Roll-turning Long or short weight Wages paid to smiths	Pattern-makers Loam-molders Sand-molders	Engine-men Firemen

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ROTARY PUDDLING.

It may not be amiss in this connection to refer to the introduction. with apparent success, of mechanical puddling, effecting as it will by its labor-saving process a very considerable reduction in the cost of puddling. Mr. Bell, who has recently been examining the process as conducted in American furnaces, says he believes-

That rotary puddling will ultimately be achieved, and it may be the result of some modification of the apparatus invented by Mr. Danks. Whenever hand-puddling is superseded by mechanical means, Mr. Danks will deserve great credit for the assistance he has already rendered, not only in perfecting the furnace itself, but in devising other appliances required in manipulating large masses of iron.

Mr. Jones, the superintendent of the Erimus works, says:

The fettling for the furnace and the materials used for the same are no longer questions of difficulty, and in this respect we have no drawback. We line the furnace after each heat with best tap, Pottery mine, purple ore, and Spanish ore; suitable proportions are mixed in a grinding mill and then used in the furnaces. Fettling can be procured suitable to any district, where the difference in the quality of

the pig-iron mostly necessitates a variation in the fettling ingredients.

With regard to the mechanical imperfections of the Danks machines, they have been of a serious character. The repairs have been very costly, and the loss of output, by reason of frequent stoppage, has affected the cost of production most unfavorably. It became apparent that unless the mechanical construction of the furnace was such as to insure regularity of work, it was hopeless to expect satisfactory returns. A new furnace of a different construction was built. It is a double-cased wrought-iron furnace, hooped with steel, and is water-jacketed. There is a constant flow of water to and from the water space, and the water at the outlet pipe is kept at from 80° to 100° Fahr., in fact, perfectly cool. This double-cased furnace has maintained its mechanical accuracy, which it is almost impossible that a single-cased furnace can do, owing to the effects of expansion and contraction. The firing of the new furnace is done in the usual manner. It will not be necessary to describe in detail the improvements of this machine. Mr. James Jones claims that it has been designed and constructed after all the weak points of its forerunner have been carefully considered. The directors are so satisfied with the work done by this machine that they have ordered five more, and six sets of new engines to drive them. In designing the engines the same amount of care has been taken. They are over-head double-cylinder engines; the wearing parts have been carefully designed, and nothing in strength or in the detail is left unprovided for, so as to assure continuous and satisfactory working.

Pig-iron refined in Thomas's cupolas is used. The chemical effect is to remove a part ef the silicon and phosphorus, and in the furnace the fettling stands better.

weight of the charge is 14 cwt.

No heat takes more than 35 minutes to puddle. The heat is removed in a single ball, and squeezed or shaped into a piece about 4 feet long by 15 inches diameter. is then cut up at the same heat and taken to reheating furnaces, where it is reheated, hammered and rolled into bars. The Erimus Company are now making angles, bulbs, bars, and tees, with no other iron than Cleveland.

Three relays of men are employed at the machines, and work eight-hour shifts.

The present consumption of coal is for actual puddling 9½ cwt. to the ton of bars.

Of fettling (half bought and half from first heating or mill furnaces) 9 cwt. to the ton of bars. The yield of bar from pig is 20 cwt. of pig to 20 cwt. of bars. The whole quantity of coal used to the ton of bars, including reheating, is under 20 cwt. The price we pay the puddlers is at present 3s. 2 4-10d per ton long weight, they paying their own underhands. The whole wages of every kind, including cupola-refining and reheating, is under 20s. per ton of bars. It is intended to increase the charge to one ton.

The experiment of working this charge has frequently been made, and the time required for puddling never exceeds forty minutes. The number of heats will be the same as at present, viz., six in eight hours, and it is simply by the increase of the weight of the charge that the quantity will be raised from 300 to 500 tons. The actual puddling of the six heats will take up four hours for fettling, repairing, cleaning grate-

bars, &c.

We find that it takes the same coal to puddle a ton as to puddle 14 cwt., and as the time consumed in charging, drawing, fettling, and squeezing will be the same as at present, it is obvious that the increase of the charge to a ton is the proper course. We have no doubt that we shall be able to bring the consumption of coal for puddling down to 7 cwt. to the ton of bars, and the whole of the coal consumed in the puddling department to 15 cwt., and we anticipate that the wages will not exceed 15s. on the ton of bars, which will include all labor charges in the puddling department.

YORKSHIRE.

Wages paid at Monk Bridge Iron-Works, and elsewhere in Leeds consular district.

	Per to	n, at
Description of work.	Monk Bridge Iron-Works, July, 1872.	Leeds Consular District, September 1, 1872.
PUDDLING.	s. d.	
Paddling iron to helve-hammers Paddling iron for 12-inch Paddling iron for molds, doubled Paddling iron for padd 10 inch bars, in 3 balls Paddling iron for 9 and 10 inch bars, doubled Paddling borings and turnings Paddling borings and turnings for 13-inch Paddling iron to steam-hammers. Paddling borings and turnings Paddling borings and turnings Paddling borings and turnings		s. d. 13 6 14 6 14 0 14 0 14 6 13 6 13 8 13 0 12 0 11 0
HELVE-HAMMERS.		
Skingling for 10-inch bars Doubling for 19-inch bars Doubling for molds Relling forge-bars	*1 10 *1 11 *3 6 *2 6 *1 0	2 4 2 6 3 3 3 3 1 3
ROD-MILL. Heating and rolling bars:		
I inch, round and square, and flats 1½ inches and above Plats under 1½ inches, bars under 1 inch round Bars, 11-16 and ½, round and square Bars, 9-16 and ½, round and square Bars, 7-16 and ½, round and square Bars, 5-16 and ½, round and square Bars, 5-16 and ½, round and square Plats, under ½ inch thick Plats, under ½ inch broad Plats, under ½ inch thick and 1 inch broad Plats, 11-16 and ½, ½ and ½, ½ and ½ Plats, 13-16, ½ and ½ Billots	†5 0 †5 6 †6 6 †8 0 †11 0 †16 0 †7 3 †7 3 †8 9 †10 0 †16 0	7 6 8 3 9 9 12 0 16 6 94 0 10 10 10 10 13 1 15 0 24 0 4 10
14-INCH BAR-MILL.	}	
Hesting and rolling: All bars, round and aquare, to 3 ewt., and all flats 1 to 6 inches broad	15 0 16 6 18 0 19 6 16 6	7 6 9 9 12 0 14 3 9 9
PLATE-MILL. Heating and rolling:		
Plates from piles under 4 cwt. Plates from piles 4 to 5 cwt. Plates from piles 5 to 6 cwt. Plates from piles 6 to 7 cwt. Plates from piles 6 to 7 cwt. Plates from piles 7 to 8 cwt. Plates from piles 8 to 9 cwt. Plates from piles 8 to 9 cwt.	†8 0 †9 6 †12 0 †14 6 †16 6 †19 6 †21 6	12 0 14 3 18 0 21 9 24 9 29 3 32 3
STEAM-HAMMERS.		
Hammermen: Yorkshire slabs, under 700 pounds. Yorkshire slabs, 700 to 1,000 pounds. Yorkshire slabs, 1,000 to 2,000 pounds. Yerkshire slabs, above 2,000 pounds. Farascemen:		7 6 10 0 19 0 14 0
Yorkshire slabs, under 700 pounds Yorkshire slabs, 700 to 1,000 pounds Yorkshire slabs, 1,000 to 2,000 pounds Yorkshire slabs, above 2,000 pounds	6 9 7 6 10 0 19 0	6 9 7 6 10 0 12 0

[•] Add 30 per cent.

NORTH STAFFORDSHIRE.

Wages paid at the Biddulph Valley and Norton Iron-Works, North Staffordshire, August 31, 1872.

Description of work.	Per	ton.	Description of work.	Per	ton,
Puddling:		đ.	Rolling and heating:		d.
Nobbling	. 12	6	Ordinary plates	†6	1
Doubling	. 13	6	Faggoting plates	19	8
Castings	.1.14		Reheating plates	19	8
Rivet-iron, (best)	. 14	6	Extra-large plates, (over 17 cwt. fin-	1	
Heating:			ished, or 5 feet wide, half circles)	119	. 2
Piles	*3	0	Rolling, heating, and straightening:		
PilesBlooms	. 10	i	Merchant bars	l †4	3
Shingling, steam-hammers:	1	-	Under 21 pounds per foot	15	ī
Nobbling	. 1	0	Rounds and squares, 41-inch and up-	l '*	•
Doubling	*i		ward, and flats, 7 to 8 inch	1 44	8
Sanaging		+84	Rounds and squares, 7-16 and 3-8 inch,	, "	-
Squeezing	٠.	านั้	and flats under 1 by 1 inch		8
Forge-rolling		***	Rounds and squares, 5-16 and 1-4	ı ''	•
Direct mying, repairing furnaces:	1	*4		l mı	
Forges		*3	inch	1 111	
Mills		-2	T-iron	14	
Cutting down for bar-mills	11	.0.	Reheating	133	1
Cutting down for plate-mills		181	Unanging rolls, §8s.0d	1	

^{*} With 30 per cent. on. † With 50 per cent. on.

NORTH AND SOUTH STAFFORDSHIRE.

Wages paid in forges and mills in 1872.

Puddling pig-iron, 6 heats, ordinary quality12s. 6d. per ton Puddling pig-iron, 5 heats, best quality12s. 6d. per ton Puddling pig-iron, 5 heats, extra best1s. per ton e 1 to 2 cwt. of scrap-iron, per turn, allowed at full rate for puddling. 1 to 2 cwt. for doubled-iron, two or more balls hammered together, 1s. Shilling	n of 2,640 pounds. extra.
1 to 2 cwt. castings 1	14 6 per ton.
Hammering, steam-hammer	1 4 per ton.
Hammering, steam for doubling	1 10 per ton.
Squeezers	
Forge-rolling	1 4 per ton.
Controlling	1 9 per 600.
Stocktaking-mills for plates	1 2 per ton.
Stocktaking-mills for bars	1 8 per ton.
Miscellaneous labor in forges, iron to forge, coal, including ash- wheeling, mill-wrighting, smithing, &co	7 6 per ton.
In plato-mill:	_
Rolling and heating ordinary plates	9 4 per ton.
Rolling and heating faggeted plates	14 6 per ton.
Rolling and heating faggoted plates	14 C per tou.
Lonewood	14 6 per ton.
Extra large and up to 5 feet wide	18 3 per ton.
Shearing and speilling, &c	7 6 per ton.
Miscellaneous labor in mills	5 0 per ton.

[†] Extrae, with 50 per cent. § Per turn per fortnight.

SOUTH WALES.

Wages paid in iron-mills.

	Per ton.
Merchant-mill, ordinary sizes, heating, rolling	6s. 4d.
Under 24 pounds per foot	
Large rounds, squares, angles, and T-iron	9s. 4d.
Small angles and T-iron.	7s. 6d.
Reheating.	3e. 4d.
Seven-sixteenths and # rounds and squares, flats under 1 and #	11s. 4d.
Miscellaneous labor in mill.	5s. Od.
	Per day.
Ordinary labor is from	4s. to 5s.
Engineers' wages	5s, 6d. to 6s. 6d.
Machinists	6s. to 7s. 6d.
Mill-wrights	5e. 6d. to 6e. 6d.
Coal-whoelers and ash-wheelers	5s. to 6s.
Forge and mill stocktakers	4s. 6d, to 5s. 6d,
Puddlers' underhands	4s. to 5s. 6d.
Hammermen's assistants	8s. to 9s.
Rollers' assistants.	8s. to 11s.
Boys from 11 to 14 years of age	1s. 8d. to 3s. 4d.

Wages range in South Wales from 15 per cent. to 20 per cent. less than other parts. Men in South Wales earn, however, about as much as in England. They have more steady work, get rent cheaper, paying about 1s. per week for rooms which in England cost about 4s.; get coal for a trifle, say 3s., while no allowance is made in England.

STATEMENT OF WALTER WILLIAMS, ESQ.

When Mr. Williams was in Washington, in December, 1872, he gave the following summary of the wages which then obtained in the ironmills of England:

For six-heat iron, 12s. 6d. in all parts of England except in Wales; less in Wales. Best, or five-heat iron, 1s. per ton extra. A man gets the same wages for five heats as

he does for gray or ordinary iron.

Puddler pays to underhands 4s. to 4s. 6d., and pays one additional turn alternate weeks. For working level-hands, 6d. per day. Prize-money allowed of 5s. per fortnight where they work full time. Puddlers allowed one scrap-ball each per day, nomimally one hundred-weight, generally two, and are paid at the same rates as if for paddling.

Hammering single balls and shingling, 9d. per ton; hammering double balls, 1s.; hammering three and four balls, 1s. 2d. Assistance given by the firm in conveying the metal from the furnace to the squeezers. Forge-rolling ordinary puddle-bars, 10d.; dragging out and straightening, 3d. per ton; add to all the above, except puddling, 20

Men engaged in shearing and taking out puddle-bars from the forge, 4s. 71d.; coal,

sh, and wheeling, 5s. 3d. per day. Roil mills.—First heating, 1s. 11d. per ton; second heating, 11½d. for rails.

Angles.—First heating, 2s. 9d.; second heating, 1s. 2½d. This is seldom done.

Furnacemen pay a shilling a day out of above wages.

In rail and heavy angle mills, when paid by the ton, including all labor, 3s. 6d. per

Blooming and catching, 51d.

Semi-skilled labor in rail and angle-mills, 5s. 3d. and 6s. 3d. per day.

All labor outside from 5s. 3d. to 6s. 3d. per day.

Rolling ordinary bars, 3s. 3d. per ton; rolling reheated iron, 4s. 6d.; all extra assistance found by the firm.

Roller finds all help at rolls at above rates.

Extra help beyond those at rolls found by firm, varying in wages from that of a man # 5s. 3d. to a boy at 2s. 10d.

WAGES IN BLAST-FURNACES.

Wages of blast-furnace men in the Stockton and Middlesbrough districts.

	B. Samuelson & Co., (new works, 3 furnaces.)	Stockton Furnace Company.	Gyer's mills & Co.	Norton Iron Compeny.
Keepers	9s. per day, and 1d. per ton over 400, (new works, large furnaces.) 7s. 6d. ner day, and 14d. ner ton over 200. (old	8e., large furnaces; 7e.6d., small furnaces 8e.6d. per shift	8e. 6d. per shift	8s. 3d. por shift.
Chargers	wor 6s. 7d. (larg	5a. 9d., large furnaces; 5a. 4d., small furnaces 6a. 3d. per shift 5a. 2d. per shift.	de. 2d. per shift	5s. 2d. per shift.
Slaggers		vided among 10 men, [small furnaces.] 5s. 1d. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per ton over 200, (small 5s. per day, and 4d. per day, and 4d	3s. 9d. per shift	4a. 9d. per abiff.
Mine-fillers	turnaces.) 4a. 9d.; (old works, 5 furnaces, 4s. 9d.)	furnaces. 4a. 9d.; (old works, 5 furnaces, 4s. 9d.) 4a. 8d., large furnaces; 4a. 8d., small furnaces. 4a. 8d. per abiff	4s. 8d. per shift	Ď.
Keepers Slaggers Brakesmen, holst		3s. 8d., and 4d. per ton over 400	3a. 8d. per shift.	3s. per shift. 5s., engine - men steam-
Coke-fillers	3.9	large furnaces; 4s. 5d. and 3. 9d., small 4s. 8d., large furnaces; 4s. 8d., small furnaces 4s. 8d. per shift	4s. 8d. per shift	lift. 4s. 2d. per shift.
Limostono-fillers Spare keepers	488 254	naces. do d	46. 8d. per shift, boys 2s. 6d. 3s. 8d. per shift. 5s. 2d. per shift.	Do. 3s. 6d. per shift. 4s. 8d. per shift.
Furnace-fillersBlast engine-men		de. 6d., large furnaces; 5s. 8d. and 5s., small Contract. Contract. 5s. 6d., large furnaces; 5s. 8d. and 5s., small Contract. Son the contract of the contract	54s. 4d. per shift	\$48., nine hours.
Weighing chargers Gas stovemen Gantrymen Breaking limestone Caloining kilninen		36. di, large furnaces; 38. 3d, small furnaces*. 3a. 3d. 3d. 3d. 4d. per shift. 5a. large furnaces; 5a. small furnaces*. 5a. large furnaces; 4d. small furnaces*. 5a. large furnaces; 4d. small furnaces*. 5a. large furnaces; 5d., small furnaces*. 5a. per veek.	3a. 4d. per shift. 5a. 2d. per shift. 4a. per shift. 54a. 6d. per shift; 2 men at 35a. per week.	4449

All of the above, except those marked §, are paid 15 shifts for full 14, per fortnight, except fittern. • Old works, (5 furneces.)

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Forgemen's wages in Sheffleld, England.

Dates.	Puddling, per ton 2,400 pounds.	Shingling, per ton.	Rolling, per ton.
April, 1868 December, 1869 October, 1871 March, 1873 August, 1873 May, 1873	#.d.	8. d.	e.d.
	7 0	1 01	10
	8 0	1 12	10
	9 0	1 2	11
	10 0	1 4	13
	12 0	1 71	16
	12 9	1 81	17

WAGES IN STEEL-WORKS.

Statement showing the average weekly earnings in 1872 of workmen in Sheffield Steel-Works,*

·				T. S.
	£	8.	đ.	Gold.
Puddlers		5	0	\$10 89
Helpers	1	Õ	Ŏ	4 84
Shinglers		Ō	Ô	19 36
Shinglers' helpers	1	Ō	Ŏ	4 84
Forge-rollers	4	Ó	Ō	19 36
Ball furnace-men	3	Ō	Õ	14 52
Ball furnace-men's helpers	1	Ō	0	4 84
Blacksmiths	2	Ō	Ó	9 68
Strikers.	1	4	0	5 80
Pitters	1	10	0	7 26
Slotters and planers	1	8	0	6 78
Laborers	1	1	Ó	5 08
Engine-tenters	ī	13	Ō	7 98
Firemen	ī	9	0	7 02
Hammer-men	ī	10	Ó	7 26
Ash-wheelers.	1	0	0	4 84
Coal-unloaders	ĩ	Ó	0	4 84
Trolley-boys	Õ	10	Ō	2 42

COAL-MINING.

Having presented the changes that have occurred in the earnings of men employed in the various departments of the iron industry since September, 1871, it is eminently proper to show the various mutations in the cost of production which another industry intimately connected with the former has undergone since the month of September, 1871.

COAL-FIELDS OF DURHAM AND NORTHUMBERLAND.

By way of an introduction to the subject the following extracts from a report of Mr. Jones, United States consul at Newcastle, on the "Industrial Resources of the Tyne," are submitted:

I will now consider the industrial resources of the Tyne, commencing with coal, that mineral being entitled to head the list as the chief product of the district, as the reports generally speak of this as the Northumberland and Durham district.

Carrying coals to Newcastle has ever been looked upon as impossible and absurd, in a business point of view, yet, since the present high figures have prevailed, coals have been carried to Newcastle from Hull, and latterly from Belgium, clearly proving that the coal-market of the present day is in an unhealthy condition.

^{*}The above is the estimate of a gentleman connected with one of the largest steelmanufacturing works of Sheffield.



The coal-fields of Durham are more extensive and the mineral softer than that of Northumberland, which is hard, and in thin seams, requiring a far greater amount of skill in the working thereof than the Durham coal. The annual product is not less than twenty-eight millions of tons. The number of colliers in the Northumberland mines is about thirteen thousand, the average price for mining being 42 cents per ton. In the Durham district the number of colliers is much larger, averging about thirty-four thousand, the price per ton for mining being 30 cents. The recent general rise in the price of coals throughout England is nowhere more striking than at Newcastle. In September, 1871, coals sold at \$2.42 per ton, and in September, 1872, the same coals were sold at \$6.05 per ton, and according to newspaper reports a contract has just been entered into in France for the supply to England of 250,000 tons.

The following statements showing the maximum and minimum cost of labor in the Durham and in the Northumberland coal-mines in 1873, also the advances and reductions made in the wages of miners, with their average earnings at various dates from April, 1871, to December, 1874, were furnished by T. W. Bunning, esq., mining-engineer of Newcastle-on-Tyne, England:

DURHAM.

Off-hand labor below ground.

[The prices include all percentages given up to December 31, 1873.]

•	Wages per day, with house or al- lowance for rent.			with	es per house ince fo	or al-	
Class of labor.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Class of labor.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.
Fore overman Back overman Deputice Timbor-leaders Master shifters Shifters Chockmen, (contract work) Stonemen Stone-putters Master wastemen Wastemen Helpers-up, (no house) Braking inclines, (no house) Drivers, (no house) Flatters, (no house) Putters-driving, (no house) Landing-lads, (no house) Couplers, (no house) Switch-keeper, (no house) Trappers, (no house)	1 78 1 82 1 57 1 78 2 42 1 94 1 37 1 90 1 55 1 33 1 55 75 97 1 23 1 35 1 35 1 35		\$1 86 1 49 1 53 1 15 1 37 1 13 1 90 1 59 9 1 43 1 17 85 67 91 85 79 63 43	Greasers, (no house) Hauling-enginemen Pumping enginemen Firemen Furnseemen Lampmen Water-leaders Horse-keepers Rolley-way men. Rolley-way boys Set-riders Onsetters Onsetters' boys Shaft-men Masons Masons' laborers. Chargemen sinkers Sinkers Waiters-on Hewers at off-hand work	1 65 1 61 1 37 1 33 1 57 1 57 1 57 1 57 1 57 1 78 1 45 1 16 1 78 1 78	\$0 38 1 25 1 09 65 67 60 69 61 97 77 78 40 79 93 1 83 1 60 1 03	\$0 83 1 45 1 01 1 01 1 03 1 103 1 109 1 45 1 07 1 15 1 98 1 101 1 84 1 74 1 101 1 84 1 74 1 101 1 84 1 74 1 101 1 84 1 101 1 1

Haud-putters' average earnings, \$1.53 per day; pony-putters' average earnings, \$1.09. These work men were all advanced and reduced at the same dates and to the same amount as miners or howers.

Statement showing the advances and reductions made in the wages of Durham miners, together with their average earnings, at various dates since April, 1871.

Dates.	Advances.	Reductions.	Total advance above 1871 prices.	Average earnings.
First six months in 1871				\$1 12
January and February, 1872 March, 1872	90 ner cent			1 95
July, 1872	15 per cent		38 per cent	l.
December, 1879				1 78
February, 1873	15 per cent		58.7 per cent	1 89
April, 1874		10 per cent	43.4 per cent	
November, 1874		9 per cent	30 per cent	
December, 1874				1 4

Durkam coal-fields. Off-hand labor above ground.

[These prices include all percentages given up to December 31, 1873.]

	with	es per house ent allo	found		with	es per house ent alk	found
Class of labor.	Class of labor. M M M Class of labor.		Maximun.	Minimum.	Mean.		
Foremen smiths Smiths Smiths Horse-shoers Pick-sharpeners Strikers Boiler-builders Foremen Joiners Joiners Joiners Wagon-wrights Tub-menders Sawyers Fitters Changers and grathers Saddlers Masons' laborers Misons' laborers Finemen, (8 hours) Pas-enginemen, (8 hours) Pas-enginemen, (19 hours) Locomotive-enginemen, (19 hrs. Boiler-minders Firemen, locomotive- Inspector or heap-keeper Bantsmen Putting in tubs, hoys Putting in tubs, mon Pick-carriers Tub-cleaners Weighmen	1 34 1 53 1 109 1 108 1 45 2 02 1 37 1 1 33 1 1 45 1 1 45 1 1 45 1 1 45 1 1 45 1 1 45 1 1 33 1 34 1 35 1 35 1 35 1 35 1 35 1 35 1 35 1 35	\$0.96 1 02 1 00 78 59 1 10 1 12 80 80 81 108 1 02 96 96 46 41 133 1 33 1 133 1 33 1 1 33 1 33 1 33	\$1 45 1 18 1 19 1 80 1 12 1 13 1 13 1 13 1 13 1 13 1 13 1 1	Token-men Token-boys Keeker on screens Screeners Small-wagon boy Apparatus-boy Waiters Callers Stone-teamers Laborers Cartmen Plate-layers Plate-layers' assistants Branch-drivers Wagon-greasers, boys Branch-men Bank-riders Bank-headmen Bank-bottom men Coke-burners Coke-drawers, (contract) Coke-dillers, (contract) Coke-dillers, (contract) Coke-drawers, boys Small-runners or loaders, (no allowance for house or rent) Oven-dsubers, boys Oven-dsubers, boys Oven-develers Statithmen Teamers Laborers, (no allowance for house or rent)	72 1 29 1 16 72 48 (*) 1 45 1 41 1 21 1 08 1 29 1 10 1 21 1 21 1 29 1 14 1 21 1 21 1 77	\$0 70 24 86 60 28 23 26 (*) 70 80 80 80 64 88 86 87 96 86 1 12 50 94 1 00 92 64	\$1 01 43 1 07 88 50 50 50 37 1 11 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

^{*} According to time.

General advances.—The first was made in February, 1872, 12½ per cent.; the second was made in July, 1872, 10 per cent.; and the third in February, 1873, 15 per cent., making a total advance of 42.3 per cent.

Reductions.—The first was made in April, 1874, 10 per cent. on all surface labor, except engine-men, who were reduced 5 per cent. The second was made in November, 1874, 6 per cent. all round.

NORTHUMBERLAND.

General advances.—In February, 1872, the above and below ground off-hand labor was scheduled by a committee and advanced in wage, and in July, 1872, banksmen, putters, and shifters were again advanced 20 per cent.; a third advance was given to banksmen, 10 per cent., putters and shifters, 15 per cent.; making a total of 30 per cent. to banksmen, and 35 per cent. to putters and shifters.

In August, 1872, mechanics' wages were advanced 10 per cent., and in March, 1873, it was decided that 5s. per day should be the maximum. Reductions.—See minutes of meetings for May 1 and October 30, 1874,

on page 299.

Northumberland coal-fields. Off-hand labor below ground.

[These prices include all percentages given up to December 31, 1873.

	with	s per house noe for	day, or al- rent.		with	e per h house ance for	oz al-
Class of labor.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Class of labor.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mosn.
Fore overmen Back overmen Deputies Timber-leaders, (no house) Master shifters Chockmen Stone-putters Master wastemen Wastemen Helpers up, boys Braking inclines, boys Drivers, boys Flatters, boys Flatters, boys Flatters, boys Rutters driving, boys Landing lada, boys Couplers, boys Nwitch-keepers, boys Trappers, boys Greasers, boys	1 82 1 23 1 80 1 82 1 94 1 45 2 02 1 63 85 1 21 61 73 73 73 73 48	1 51	92 02 1 76 1 75 90 1 53 1 30 1 51 1 72 1 33 1 61 1 29 67 91 58 1 03 70 60 48 40 55	Hauling-enginemen Pumping-enginemen Firemen Furnacemen Lampmen Water-leaders Horse-keepers Rolley-way men Rolley-way boys Set-riders, (no house) Onsetters Shaft-lade Shaft men Masons' laborers Chargemen-sinkers Slukers Waiters-om Hewersatchift or off-hand work Hand putters Pony putters	1 21 1 09 1 21 1 39 1 33 1 33 1 86 1 09 1 21 2 14 2 02 1 33 1 09 1 90 1 78 2 18	1 33	\$1 GS 1 21 1 09 91 1 04 1 21 99 1 40 1 88 1 61 1 22 1 73 1 73 1 49 1 75 1 75

Off-hand labor above ground.

[These prices include all percentages given up to December 31, 1873.]

	Wages per day, with house or an allowance for rent.		with	r day, seoran for			
Class of labor.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean, in U.S. gold.	Class of labor.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean, in U.S. gold.
Foremen smiths Smiths Horse-shoers Pick-sharpeners Strikers Boiler-builders Foremen joiners Joiners Wagon-wrights Tub-menders Sawyers Fitters Changers and grathers Saddlers Gasmen Masons' laborers Winding-enginemen Hauling-enginemen Hauling-enginemen Locomotive-enginemen Boiler-minders Pit-firemen Locomotive-fremen Guards Inspector or heap-keeper Bauksmen Putters-in of tubs, (boys)	1 39 1 21 1 08 1 33 2 01 2 42 2 42 2 42 2 43 1 33 1 29 1 08 1 45 1 45 1 57 1 98 1 1 98	\$1 16 96 1 96 1 96 1 96 1 96 1 96 1 96 1	\$1 38 1 18 1 18 97 94 1 55 1 63 1 17 1 63 1 15 1 21 1 94 1 15 1 21 1 90 1 45 1 33 1 34 1 33 1 34 1 30 1 45 1 30 1 30 1 30 1 30 1 30 1 30 1 30 1 30	Pick-carriers, (boys) Tub-cleaners, (boys) Weighmen Token-boys Token-men Token-boys Keekers on screens Screeners Small-wagon boys Apparatus-boys Waiters, (boys) Stone-teamers Laborers Laborers Laborers Plate-layers Plate-layers' assistants Branch-drivers Wagon-greasers, (boys) Branch-men Bank-riders Bank-riders Bank-beadmen Bank-bottom men, (no house) Coke-drawers Coke-dillers, (no house) Staithmen Teamers Laborers	84 1 33 88 68 1 21 1 60 96 66 81 1 14 1 29 1 10 1 10 1 16 1 16 1 14 1 16 1 16 1 14 1 15 1 15 1 15 1 15 1 15 1 15 1 15	\$0-26 84 84 32 79 84 32 70 70 82 72 72 72 72 84 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88	\$0 565 535 1 065 1 065 1 222 1 222 1 223 1

WAGES OF NORTHUMBERLAND MINERS IN 1874.

The following statement showing the earnings of Northumberland miners in 1874, was furnished by Mr. Burt:

	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.
Pors-overmen	19 10 1 92	\$12 10 9 68 1 68 96 72 8 40 6 00	\$13 31 10 90 10 16 1 80 1 02 78 9 00 6 60

ADVANCES AND REDUCTIONS.

Statement showing the advances given and reductions made in the wages of Northumberland miners, with their average earnings, at various dates since April, 1871.

Dates.	Advances.	Reductions.	Total advance above 1871 prices.	Average earnings.
March, 1871				\$1 33
February, 1872. May, 1872	10 per cent		•••••	1 47
July, 1872	22 per cent		32 per cent	
September, 1879 March, 1873	18 per cent		50 per cent	1 91
December, 1873				2 20
April, 1874 October, 1874 December, 1874 (computed)	1	14 per cent		1 85
December, 1874, (computed)			•••••	1 53

At a meeting of the Steam Colliers' Defense Association held May 1, 1874, it was decided that—

Putters and other underground men, now receiving 35 per cent. advance, be reduced to 27 per cent.

Trappers.—Wages reduced 1d. per day. Drivers.—Wages reduced 2d. per day.

Banksmen now receiving 30 and 35 per cent. advance, to be reduced to 25 per cent., inasmuch as the men who have been getting 35 per cent. have been getting more than the trade allowed.

Deputies having 7s. and 7s. 6d. per day to be reduced to 6s. 6d. and 7s.

Prop and chock drawing to remain unaltered.

Standard stonemen.—Fixed at 7s. per day.

Screeners.—Those who are paid by the piece to be reduced 5 per cent., and those who are paid by the day to remain as they are.

On June 30 engine-men were reduced 4d. per day.

At a special meeting held October 30, 1874, the following reductions were mutually agreed to:

Putters and others at present receiving an advance of 27 per cent. to be reduced 11 per cent., leaving an advance of 16 per cent.

Trappers.—Wages to be reduced 1d. Drivers.—Wages to be reduced 2d.

Banksmen.—Advances to be reduced so as to leave an advance of 15 per cent.

Deputies.—Where no prop drawing to be paid, 7s.; where they draw props, 6s. 6d.; for drawing props, 6d. per score; checkles 4d. a check?

Screeners.—Daily wage to remain as at present; piecework 10 per, cent. reduction.

Mechanics.—Wages to be reduced 5 per cent.

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SWANSEA AND CARDIFF

The following tables are condensed from more extended statements sea and Cardiff coal districts and in other collieries of Great Britain, England, February, 1875:

Statement showing the average earnings of workmen in Swansea

Class of labor.	Graigola.	Swansea colliery.	West Swanses.	Dunvant.
Cutters Day-workmen . Trammers	1 88 per day	\$1 74 to \$2 05 per day 1 20 to \$1 36 per day		\$55 00 per 4 weeks. 47 16 per 4 weeks.
Bankers	\$8 day, outside . }	1 08 to 1 56 per day	7 40 per week	30 00 per 4 weeks. 30 00 per 4 weeks.
Engine-men	{ 1 20 day, inside }	1 85 per day 1 32 to \$1 56 per day	5 96 per week 11 32 per week	30 00 per 4 weeks. 45 48 per 4 weeks.
Carpenters Smiths	1 38 per day 1 38 per day	1 44 per day 1 44 per day	1 44 per day	30 00 per 4 weeks. 30 00 per 4 weeks.
Strikers Weighers	52 to \$0 60 per day	52 to \$0 78 per day 74 to 1 20 per day	72 per day 66 per day	33 60 per month
Hostlers Firemen	92 per day 1 88 per day	84 to 139 per day 185 per day		
Roadmen Tippers Repairers	1 20 per day			••••••
Hanlers	1 08 per day		7 40 per week	30 00 per 4 weeks.
Door-boys Pitmen Stokers	30 per day 1 68 per day	32 per day		07 00 man 4 man la
Hitchers	1 88 per day 1 88 per day			
Inclinemen	72 to \$0 80 per day			••••••
Masons				
Class of labor.	Graig Merthyr.	Brynwillach.	Resolven.	Emily.
Cutters	\$2 34 per day 1 80 per day	\$1 85 to \$1 92 per day 1 85 per day	\$93 66 per fortnight 1 58 per day	\$2 12 per day 1 80 per day
Trammers Bankers Laborers	1 90 non dom	1 50 per day	1 22 per day 17 06 per fortnight	1 80 per day 1 32 per day 1 08 per day
Engine-men	1 20 per day { 1 78 per day, loco- } motive-men. }	1 56 per day	1 32 per day	1 vo per way
Carpenters	1 20 to \$1 32 per day 1 32 to 1 56 per day	1 56 per day	16 44 per fortnight 16 44 per fortnight	1 76 per day 1 44 per day
Strikers Weighers Hostlers	84 per day		96 per day 1 20 per day 15 48 per fortnight	72 per day
Firemen Rosdmen	2 00 per day		1 58 per day 1 20 per day	2 00 per day 1 76 per day
Tippers Repairers Haulers			15 72 per fortnight 17 26 per fortnight	
Door-boys Pitmen	l		I 	82 per day 48 per day
Stokers	92 per day	1 56 per day		80 per day
Overmen Inclinemen	1 72 per day		16 44 per fortnight	
Screeners	1 90 per day		to as ber formidue	

COAL DISTRICTS.

in regard to the wages or earnings of workmen employed in the Swanand were furnished by Walter Rowley, esq., mining-engineer, of Leeds,

coal district, when working full time and without restriction.

Primrose Coal Co.	Ffoy, Danybank, etc.	Cross-Hands and California.	Duffryn Main.
\$1 80 to \$1 92 per day 1 68 to 1 92 per day	\$1 80 per day	\$1 82 per day	\$11 53 per week. 1 80 per day.
96 to 1 80 per day	1 26 per day	92 per day	1 08 to \$1 20 per day.
84 to 1 32 per day	{1 08 to \$1 26 per day, } under ground. }	1 08 per day	1 00 per day.
	1 20 eight-hours' turn	1 20 per day	{1 44 to \$1 66 per day winding.
96 to 1 20 per day 1 98 to 1 44 per day	1 32 per day	1 14 per day	winding.
	60 per day	54 per day, boys	96 per day.
1 201 - 1 20 3	35 00 per month	1 44 per day	1 44 per day. 2 00 per day.
108 to 139 per day	l		1 32 to \$1 62 per day. 1 08 to 1 36 per day.
26 to 1 06 per day	1 70 per day	1 44 per day	60 to 1 20 per day.
32 to 60 per day	carter-boys. 32 to \$0 60 per day	boys	48 per day.
		82 per day	1 68 per day. 1 20 per day.
	1 26 per day 50 00 per month	,	1 20 to \$1 44 per day.
·····			1 28 to 1 56 per day.
••••••	{ 1 14 per day, head man at screen.	}	•
•••••••••		·	` 1 44 per day.
Morriston colliery, Tyr	Foxhole colliery, Park pit,	Foxhole colliery, Tir issa pit.	Western Merthyr.
1 80 per day 2 06 per day	\$1 58 per day	1 77 per day	\$2 00 per day.
1 14 per day	1 18 per day	a so por usy	
1 80 per day	80 per day	1 20 per day	1 68 per day. 96 per day.
	80 per day	1 90 per day	
1 80 per day	80 per day	1 90 per day	96 per day. 1 66 per day. 1 32 per day. 1 32 per day.
1 80 per day	80 per day	1 90 per day	96 per day. 1 66 per day. 1 32 per day. 1 32 per day. 60 to \$0 96 per day. 1 20 per day.
1 80 per day	80 per day	1 90 per day	96 per day. 1 66 per day. 1 32 per day. 1 32 per day. 60 to \$0 96 per day. 1 30 per day. 2 00 per day.
1 80 per day 1 56 per day 1 20 per day 1 44 per day 1 14 to \$1 80 per day	80 per day 1 94 per day 1 16 per day 1 92 per day 1 86 per day	1 90 per day	96 per day. 1 66 per day. 1 32 per day. 1 32 per day. 60 to \$0 96 per day. 1 30 per day. 2 00 per day. 2 00 per day. 1 68 per day.
1 80 per day	80 per day 1 94 per day 1 16 per day 1 92 per day 1 86 per day	1 90 per day	96 per day. 1 66 per day. 1 32 per day. 1 32 per day. 60 to \$0 96 per day. 1 32 per day. 2 00 per day. 1 68 per day. 1 68 per day. 1 56 per day. 1 44 to \$1 186 per day.
1 80 per day 1 56 per day 1 30 per day 1 44 per day 1 14 to \$1 80 per day	80 per day 1 24 per day 1 16 per day 1 22 per day 1 86 per day 1 86 per day 2 80 per day 48 per day	1 90 per day	96 per day. 1 66 per day. 1 32 per day. 1 32 per day. 60 to \$0 96 per day. 1 30 per day. 2 00 per day. 2 00 per day. 1 68 per day.
1 80 per day 1 56 per day 1 20 per day 1 44 per day 1 14 to \$1 80 per day	80 per day 1 94 per day 1 16 per day 1 22 per day 1 86 per day 1 644 per day 80 per day 48 per day	1 90 per day 1 06 per day 1 86 per day 1 77 per day 96 per day 24 per day	96 per day. 1 66 per day. 1 32 per day. 1 32 per day. 60 to \$0 96 per day. 1 32 per day. 2 00 per day. 1 68 per day. 1 68 per day. 1 44 to \$1 86 per day. 44 to \$1 86 per day. 72 per day.
1 80 per day 1 56 per day 1 30 per day 1 44 per day 1 14 to \$1 80 per day	80 per day 1 94 per day 1 16 per day 1 22 per day 1 86 per day 1 644 per day 80 per day 48 per day	1 90 per day 1 06 per day 1 86 per day 1 77 per day 96 per day 24 per day	96 per day. 1 66 per day. 1 32 per day. 1 32 per day. 50 to \$0 96 per day. 1 32 per day. 2 00 per day. 1 68 per day. 1 68 per day. 1 66 per day. 1 44 to \$1 86 per day. 66 to 72 per day. 72 per day. 1 56 per day. 1 56 per day.
1 80 per day 1 50 per day 1 20 per day 1 44 per day 1 14 to \$1 80 per day 1 80 per day 1 80 per day	80 per day 1 94 per day 1 16 per day 1 22 per day 1 86 per day 1 644 per day 80 per day 48 per day	1 90 per day 1 06 per day 1 86 per day 1 77 per day 96 per day 24 per day 1 07 per day 1 92 per day	96 per day. 1 66 per day. 1 32 per day. 1 32 per day. 60 to \$0 96 per day. 2 00 per day. 1 32 per day. 2 00 per day. 1 68 per day. 1 56 per day. 1 44 to \$1 86 per day. 66 to 72 per day. 72 per day. 1 56 per day.

Statement of the average earnings of workmen in the Cardiff

	Susteinent Of th		workmen in the Curuly
District.	Colliers.	Haulers.	Laborers.
MERTHYR VALLRY.			·
Dowlais	\$14.40 per week; Brith- dir, \$17.28.	\$8.64 per week; Brith-	\$6.72 per week
Plymonth	\$45.48 per 4 weeks	dir, \$10.32. \$33.86 under-ground,	
ABERDARE VALLEY.	_	\$25 above, per 4 weeks.	
Navigation and Deep Duffryn	\$42.16 per 4 weeks	\$1.26 per day; master,	\$1.02 per day
	V	\$1.44; collier, \$1.28.	V-100 por any 11111111111111111111111111111111111
Blacagwaur	\$45.48 per 4 weeks	\$1.19 per day, surface; \$1.26, under ground; collier, \$1.26.	94 cents per day, sur- face and under ground.
Abercromboy	\$54.50 per 4 weeks	\$1.14 to \$1.26 per day	\$1.02 per day, surface;
Crombach	\$2.04 per day, all sea- sons.	\$1.23 to \$1.32 per day; foreman, \$1.68.	\$1, under ground. 98 cents per day
Werfa	\$2.20 per day: \$2.40		
Aberdare Rhondda	per night. \$1.78 to \$1.96 per day	\$1.26 to \$1.29 per day	\$1 to \$1.03 per day
Nantmelyn Powell Duffryn Company's pits.	\$60 per 4 weeks \$2.50 per day	\$32.88 per 4 weeks \$1.26 per day; surface, \$1.02.	\$20.48 per 4 weeks \$1.02 per day
RHONDDA VALLEY.		-	
Ferndale	\$52.64 per 4 weeks	\$1.32 per day; colliers, \$1.36; surface, \$1.10.	\$1.06 per day; colliers, \$1.26.
Bodryngalt	\$45.52 per 4 weeks	\$1.32 perday; foreman, \$1.50; 9 hours.	\$1.16 to \$1.26 per day; \$1.20 to \$1.26 per
Tylacock	\$1.68 to \$2.40 per day	\$1.32 per day; master, \$1.60.	night. \$1.08 to \$1.76 pernight;
Pentre and Church	\$62.34 in headings; \$42.32 in stalls.	\$42.40 per 4 weeks	\$6.64 per week. Surface, \$1.14 per day;
Rhondda Merthyr	\$2.46 per day	\$7.92 per week	\$39.86 unde ground. \$6.60 per week
Abergorchs 2 feet 9 inches 6 feet	\$42.06 per 4 weeks \$36.30 per 4 weeks \$45.06 per 4 weeks	\$32.88 per 4 weeks	\$36.12 per 4 weeks of 7 days.
Llwynypia— Steam-coal	\$11.92 per 4 weeks	\$8.12 per 4 weeks	\$6.80 per week
House-coalGilfach	\$13.36 per 4 weeks \$1.80 per day	\$9.32 per 4 weeks \$1.48 per day; surface,	\$7.40 per week \$1.96 per day; surface,
Coedose	\$42.60 per 4 weeks	\$1.12. \$30.48 per 4 weeks; \$25.64 per 4 weeks, surface.	\$1.10.
Dinas Main	\$47.12 per 4 weeks	\$36.92 per 4 weeks; \$46.20 per 30 days, surface.	\$32.88 per 4 weeks
Llwyneelyn Gelli—	\$1.86 per day	\$1.56 per day	\$1.56 per day
Colliery No. 2	\$2.94 in headings; \$2.84 in stalls.	\$1.48, 6 dava: fore-	\$1.02 per day, surface;
Colliery No. 3	\$1.88 in headings; \$1.94 in stalls.	\$1.48, 6 days; fore- man, \$1.68.	\$1.39 under ground.
Lan, not full time	\$10.08 per week	\$1.12 to \$1.50 per day	\$1.90 to \$1.44 per day
Darrandder	\$2 per day \$1.92 per day	\$1.12 to \$1.50 per day \$1.44 per day \$1.08 per day \$37.40 per 4 weeks	\$1.08 per day
Powell's Llantwit	\$48.72 per 4 weeks \$12.40 per week	\$37.40 per 4 weeks \$6.48 per week; boys, \$3.60.	\$33.36 per 4 weeks
Llantwit Red Ash Company.	\$2.02 per day	\$1.34 to \$1.44 per day;	\$1.34 per day
Penrhiwfer	\$19.10 per week	\$7.58 per wook, under ground; \$6.56, sur- face.	\$7.34 per week, under ground; surface, \$5.96.
Blaenclydach	\$1.88 per day	\$1.32 to \$1.52 per day	\$1.12 per day
Seam 1	19 days, \$67.80)	
Seam 3	19 days, \$60.14	\$1 to \$1.30 per day	\$1.04 per day
CredifirBryndee	19 days, \$66.08 \$1.98 per day	\$1.10 per day; boys,	\$1.04 per day
		78 cents.	

coal district, when working full time and without restriction.

Tippera.	Benksmen.	Engine-men, winding.	Firemen.	Rodmen.
Brithdir, \$8.40 per week.	\$5.76 to \$8.64 per week. \$28.14 per 4 weeks.	\$8.40 to \$9.60 per week. \$31.62 under ground, \$34.14 above, per 4 weeks.	\$6.12 to \$6.96 per week. \$43.94 per \ weeks	\$29.54 per 4 weeks.
\$1.10 per day	\$1.20 per day	\$50 per 4 weeks; 8 hours. They clean, fit, and repair.	\$1.86 per 6 days; 84 cents per Sun- day.	\$1.26 per day.
97 cents per day	\$1.02 to \$1.20 per day.	\$1.46 per day; haul- ing, \$1.28.		\$1.12 per day.
\$1.02 per day	\$1.10 to \$1.20 per	\$1.50 per day; haul- ing, \$1.34. \$1.45, 9 days		\$1.34 per day.
98 cents, \$1.02, to \$1.10 per day.	day. 98 cents to \$1.96 per day.	\$1.45, 9 days	\$1.72, 7 days	\$1.26, \$1.34, to \$1.49 per day.
\$1 to \$1.06 per day	\$1.02 per day	\$1.36, \$1.40\(\frac{1}{2}\), to \$1.42	\$1.68 per day	\$1.18 to \$1.32 per day.
\$L14 per day	\$38.36 per 4 weeks. \$1.28 per day	per day. \$58.36 per 4 weeks \$1.26 per day	\$50 per 4 weeks \$1.86 per day	\$31.44 per 4 weeks \$1.28 per day.
\$1.01 per day	\$1.14 to \$1.28 per	\$1.49] per day	\$2 per day	\$1.26 to \$1.44 pe
\$1.16 to \$1.96, 9 hours	day. \$1.28 per 12 hours .	\$25.12 per 4 weeks		day. \$1.72 per 9 hours.
\$1.14 per day	\$1.32 per day	\$1.63 per 8 hours	\$1.84 per day	\$1.30 to \$1.34 per day.
\$33.36 per 4 weeks	\$33.36 per 4 weeks		_	_
#6.72 per week	\$10.06 per week	\$12.04 per week; hauling, \$8.54.	\$650 per annum	\$8.12 per week.
96 cents to \$1.32 per day.		\$1.72 per day; allowed 7 days extra per month.		\$1.96 per day.
\$7.40 per week \$1.14 per day	\$8.02 per week \$1.44 per day	\$1.32 per day, steam \$1.56 per day, house \$1.56 per day	\$2 per day	\$1.32perday, ate'm \$1.44perday, hou'd \$1.48 per day.
\$30.96 per 4 weeks	\$36.68 per 4 weeks.	\$46.86 per 4 weeks	\$50 per 26 days; \$43.84per 24 days,	\$1.56 per day.
\$33.36 per 4 weeks	\$1.32 to \$1.44 per day.		night. \$2 per day	\$1.56 per days.
\$1.34 per day	•••••	\$1.76, single turn	••••••	
\$1.32, 6 days	\$1.58, 7 days	\$1.76, 7 days; drift, \$1.54, 7 days.		\$1.48, 6 days.
1.12 per day		\$1.56 per day		\$1.68 por day.
1.06 per day	\$1.02 per day	\$1.44 per day	\$52 per 4 weeks	t-100 hor and.
week.		Boys, #6 per week	\$10.80 per week	\$8.46 per week.
\$1.34 per day	\$1.34 per day	\$1.50 per day	\$2 per day	\$1.71 per day.
#4.32 per week	\$6.68 per day	\$8.36 per week	\$10.12 per week	\$8.84 per week.
\$1.32 per day	\$1.90 per day	\$1.38 per day	\$12 per week	\$1.56 per day.
% cents per day	\$1.26 perday; girls, 42 to 46 cents.	\$1.06, \$1.26, to \$1.44 per day.	\$1.68 per day	
••••••	96 cents per day	\$1.02 per day		

Statement of the average earnings of workmen in the Cardiff coal

Districts.	Hitchers.	Stokers.	Weighers.
MERTHYR VALLEY.			
Plymouth	\$28.72 per 4 weeks	per 4 weeks ; \$22.02,	\$23.12 per 4 weeks
ABERDARE VALLEY.	·	above ground.	
Navigation and Deep Duffryn	\$1.42 per day	9 hours, 98 cents; chief, \$1.02.	\$1.32, C. M.; \$1.10, Billy; \$1.10, Inop.
Blaengwaur	\$1.24 per day	\$1.02 per day	\$1.32 p day
Abercromboy	\$1.26 per day	\$1.10 per day	\$1.12 to \$1.32 per day.
Crombach	\$1.14, under ground, 9 days; \$1.02, surface, 1 day per week al- lowed.	·	\$1.32 to \$1.40 per day.
∆berdare Rhondda	\$1.26 to \$1.40 per day.	76 cents, 961 cents, to \$1.04 per day.	\$1.14, \$1.90, to \$1.98 per day.
Nautmelyn	\$36.48 per 4 weeks	\$18.52 per 4 weeks	\$34.08 per 4 weeks
Powell Duffryn Company's pits.	\$1.12 per day	\$1.02 per day	\$1.06 per day
RHONDDA VALLEY.			
Ferndale	\$1.36 per day	\$1.05 per day	\$1.32 per day
Bodryngalt	\$1.46 per 9 hours \$1.32 to \$1.44 per day	\$1.32 per 12 hours \$1.14 per 8 hours	••••••
Rhondda Merthyr	\$10.08 per week	\$8.28 per week	\$7.80 per week
Bute Merthyr	\$1.26 per day	\$1.08 to \$1.16, 28 and 29 days per month.	•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••
Llwynypia	Steam, \$8.48 per week, 9 hours; house, \$12.40, piecework.	\$1.14 per day, extra cleaning flue.	96 cents per day, house; \$1.32, steam.
Gilfach	\$1.38 per day. \$1.62 per day; night, 66 cents.	\$1.12 per day \$1.02 por day	\$1.94 per day \$1.50 per day
Dinas Main Penrhiwfer	\$1.56 per day \$8.24 per week	\$1.26 per day \$7.76 per week	\$1.08 per day 42 cents per week
Blaenelydach Llwynellyn Gelli	\$1.56 per day		\$1.12 per day
Gelli	\$1.54, 6 days	\$1.36, 7 days	•••••
Darranddu Cilely Powell's Llantwit Llantwit and Risck Vein Llantwit Red Ash	A	\$1.38 per day	••••••••
Powell's Llantwit	\$1.50 per day	***************************************	
Llantwit and Black Vein	\$1.20 per day	#1 24 man de	\$7.20 per week
Limitwit Ked Ash	\$1.1x bet ava	erns per day	\$1.25 per day
Alsostig Merthyr	\$1.06 to \$1.30 per day	day.	
Bryndee	#1.12 per day; boys, 64 cents.	so cents per day	

WAGES IN ENGLAND.

district, when working full time and without restriction-Continued.

Masons.	Horse-keepers.	Smiths.	Strikers.	Carpenters.
\$34.04 per 4 weeks				
9 hours, \$1.44; la- borers, 93 cents per day.	\$1.08 for 6 days	\$1.14 to \$1.26 per day, 9 hours.	40 to 84 cents per 9 hours.	\$1.06 to \$1.20 per 9 hours.
\$1.32 per day; la- berers, 34 cents to \$1.04.	86 cents per day, surface; \$1.08, un- der ground.	\$1.28, \$1.32, to \$1.34 per day.	76, 80, to 92 cents per day.	\$1.18 to \$1.40 per day; sawyers, \$1.12 to \$1.32.
\$1.56 and \$1.46 per day; laborers, \$1.	\$1.10 per day, un- der ground.	\$1.28 to \$1.34 per day	•••••	\$1.28 per day ; saw- yers, \$1.12 to \$1.32.
•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	96 cents to \$1.08 per day.	\$1.16 to \$1.28 per day; foremen, \$1.68, 7 days.	72 to 84 cents per day.	\$1.32 per day; fore- men, \$1.72, 7 days.
\$1.44 per day	\$1.04 per day, sur- face; \$1.12, un-	\$1.18, \$1.22, to \$1.28 per day.	72, 84, to 96 cents per day.	
\$11.92 per 4 weeks; \$30 per 4 weeks,	der ground. \$32.04 per 4 weeks	\$32.88 per 4 weeks	\$25.48 per 4 weeks.	\$35.48 per 4 weeks; \$30 per 4 weeks,
laborers. \$1.50 per day	\$1.12 per day	\$1.26 per day	90 cents per day	sawyers. \$1.28 per day; saw- yers, \$1.18.
\$1.44 per day	\$1.01, \$1.17, to \$1.28 per day.	\$1, \$1.08, \$1.28, to \$1.38 per day.	66 to 92 cents per day.	\$1.25, \$1.32, to \$1.41 per day; sawyers, \$1.10 to \$1.32.
	\$1.32, 7 days \$1.38 per day	\$1.62 per 9 hours \$1.36 to \$1.44 per day	\$1.08 per 9 hours 96 cents to \$1.04 per day.	\$1.44 per 9 hours. \$1.08 to \$1.20 per day; sawyers, \$1.35.
41 56 man days - 00	\$8.40 per week	\$8 per week	\$7.44 per week	\$8.04 per week; sawyers, \$7.20. \$1.26, \$1.32, to \$1.56
\$1.56 per day; 30 days per month.	\$1.06 per day; 28 days per month.	\$1.32 perday; 25 and 26 days per month.	\$1.04 per day	per day.
\$132 per day; la- berers, 96 cents.	96 cents per day; in pit, \$1.12.	\$1.36 per day	84 cents per day	\$1.26 per day.
\$1.56 per day \$i.44 to \$1.68 per day	\$1.38 per day	\$1.41 per day \$1.44, \$1.60, to \$1.68 per day.	\$1.12 per day 84 cents to \$1.12 per day.	\$1.34 per day. \$1.46 to \$1.68; saw- yers, \$1.46.
\$1.50 per day \$8.94 per week	\$1.46 per day: \$6.80 per week; in pits, \$7.28.	\$1.70 per day \$8.36 per week	\$1.18 per day \$5.72 per week	\$1.70 per day. \$8.12 per week.
	\$1.34 per day	\$1.62 per day	\$1.12 per day	\$1.34 per day. \$1.68 per day.
***************************************			\$1.08 per day, 72 days; foreman, \$1.16.	\$1.70, v days.
\$1.44 per day	\$31.78 per 4 weeks. \$5.76 per week	\$1.28 per day \$50.96 per 4 weeks \$9 per week	96 cents per day 96 cents per day \$25 per 4 weeks	\$1.44 per day. \$1.32 per day. \$53 per 4 weeks. \$7.92 per week.
	\$1.30 per day	\$1.68 per day	\$1 per day	\$1.56 per day; saw- yers, \$1.50.
••••••	\$1.14 per day	\$1.32 to \$1.48 per day		\$1.20 per day; saw- yers, \$1.10.
	•••••		\$1 per day	\$1.14 per day; saw- yers, 92 cents.

Statement of the current wages paid to engine-men September 10, 1874.

	Colliery.	Winding-engine-men.	Pumping-engine-men.	Remarks.
	Monmouthshire: Tredegar Iron and Coal Company, No. 5 pit. Bedweelty levels and pit.			Not specified which are pumping and which winding engine-men.
	Bryn Each Incline. Rhymney Iron Company, various pits. Blaenavon Iron Company's pit. Vispond & Co., Varteg Hill	91. \$1.44 per day of 12 hours, slope \$1.06 94 cents to \$1.02, \$1.17, 10 hours per	bours, slope \$1.06.	Night and day men kept. 10 per cent. off these rates from September 1. 2 men, at \$1.17, relieve each other each hour, and go
•	Partridge, Jones & Co.'s colliery Rhos Liantwit colliery		\$1.17 per day of 104 hours Surface, \$1.56; under, \$1.14	stoking, for which 12 cents per day is allowed. Paid 7 days per week; have to do repairs on Sundays. Under-ground steam-pump men work 8 hours per
	Prothero Trust Plane Camgethin Company collieries Bargeed Coal Company's pits	;	#1.44 1.47 99 cents	12 hours per day, 7 days per week.
	Liantwit and Buck vein Company's pit Pat Nat and Bolt Company's pit Swansea, Vivian & Sons My Newydd	1.20 per may 1.20 to \$1.26 73 to 96 cents		Less two reductions of 10 per cent.
	Fentle Duffryn Main Company's pit. Jones & Saunders. Emily and Round A. Bain. Hendreforgan		1.50	Less 10 per cent.
	Merthyr: R. Crawshay, Cyfarthfa, Cethin	\$1.04	82 cents, hauling and fan 84 cents	
	Castle Course Tom Connent	1.06	82 cents, hauling 86 cents	
Digitiz	Downton Tron Company : Buxton Tunnell Aberdare Iron Company	97 cents. \$1.06; No.2 pit, 90c 1.30 per day, 9 days per week.	97 cents	All paid 7½ turns for 7 days' work. Pemping-obgine-men paid 48 cents per boiler for
ed by ${\sf G}$	Fowell Duffryn Steam Coal Company: New Tredogar Mine Lower Duffryn, Upper.	2 per day, 8 hours 1.16 per day, 9 days per week 12 per week 7 days, of 8 hours	\$1.02 hauling \$1 94 cents, 12 hours per day. \$1.10, 9 days per week, 9 hours per day.	cleaning boilers.
200	Nixon, Taylor & Cory: Navigation	\$50 per month, 28 days, of 8 hours	824 cents per day of 13 hours	Under ground, 89 cents per day; blocking engine, 69 cents; ventilator, 92 cents per day, and 69 cents for each boiler cleaned.
gle	D. Davis & Sons: D. Davis & Sons: Black gawarr A bertromboy A bertinte Coal Company	46.20 per month § turn for shift, and 1 for cleaning and repairing boilers. §1.44½ 1 turn for repairing boilers 1.45 per day 8 hours	\$1.374, same allowance as winders \$1.33, \$\frac{1}{4}\turn per week for long hours, and \$\frac{1}{4}\turns per month for repairs.	Hauling \$1.27, and 1 turn per month for repairs. \$1.33, and 1 turn per month for repairs. \$1.14 to \$1.30, less 10 per cent. from 1st June last.

							WAG	JES 1	IN I	EN	GLAN	D.				•
Hauling, \$1.94; shift, \$1.94.	Hauling, \$1.16, and 2 turns per month for repairing, less 10 per cent. from 1st June last.		Over-time for Sundays or night-work.			F m	Ä	attor pumpo.	\$2.40 per month extra for winding, and 84 cents for cleaning bollers.	5 days per mouth repairing and raising steam; \$1.56	Per mount not extend posses. 14 days per month repairing and raising steam; 84 cents per month for cleaning.	Winders allowed 9 days per week, pumpers 7.	٠	\$1.20 per day, 8 days' pay for 6 worked. \$1.16 per day, 64 days' pay for 6 worked. Cleaning boilers, 32 cents; cleaning tube, 48 cents		3 cmt. of coal allowed per week.
	1.494 and 1 turn por week for cleaning		Over-time for Sundays or night-work.		1.384 per 12 hours, 7 turns per week \$1.304 per 10 hours, 7 turns per week	Winders work pump on Sanday	\$15 per week. \$1.46 per day, 7 days per week.	98 cents	#1.16 per day, 28 days per month		\$1.08 per day, 28 days per month 1.32 per day	84 cts., and \$1.02 for each boiler cleaned. 70 to 86 cents for each boiler cleaned		\$1.16 per day, 64 days' pay for 6 worked.		96 cents per day of 10 hours
1.32 per day, 9 days per week		1.39 Shours per shift, 7 days per week.		1.72 per day of 8 hours, 7 turns per week.		45 per month. 1.56 per 12 hours, 7 turns per week 1.55 per day, 3 turns	1.22; under ground, \$1.08 1.46 per day, 7 days per week	Hauling-engiae-men, \$1.46 per day Incline-engine-men, \$1.46 per day		\$1.18 per day, 24 days per month	\$1.32 per day.	84 cts., and \$1.02 for each boiler cleaned.	\$1.44 per day; allowance for bollers, 2 days per week, 60 cents.	\$1.20 per day, 8 days' pay for 6 worked.	84 to 90 cents per week, 9 hours per day.	96 cents per day of 10 hours
Bute. Nautmelyn. Rhundda.	D. Davis & Sons	Glamorgars Coal Company Hlvyn.	Ponrhiwfer	Coffin & Co., Middle pit	Powell's Gellygaer Company	Powell's Llantwit Company Thomas & Griffiths Rhondas Merthyr Co	E D. Williams, Massuddud	Rhoswen Gwailoedywain Swanees, Governor & Company of Cop-	per Mines in England: Meadow pit.	Bryngarnos	Bryn Cwmfalin: Morgan & Thompson	Property Iron Company pits	Heath, Evans & Co	Rowers Allerton Collieries	Staffordshire	Somersetalire: Radstock Collieries

WEST YORKSHIRE MINES.

8 8 2 8 £ 8 8 8 8 2 g 8 2 3 3 8 2 2 Diagram showing advances and reduction in miners' wages from October, 1871, to October, 1875, in the mines of West Yorkshire Coal Masters' Association. Ort, 1875 Advance, Reduction Advance, Reduction Advance, Reduction Advance. Reduction pr., 1874 Det. 1874 Northumberland ob, 1873 far., 1873 inly, 1873 Oct., 18875 Jan., 1874 Cumberland, ept., 1873 July, 1674 Ort. 1875 South Yorkshire. Sept . 1672 Mar., 1873 Dec. 1871 une. 1872 Apr., 1874 Ort., 1875 Nov., 1874 Durham. F. 1873 July, 1879 .p. 1872 Advance. Reduction Ort. 1875 Somerset. 1873 49 Advance. Reduction Advance. Reduction Advance. Reduction far., 1874 Inv., 1874 Luncashire. ?eb., 1873 Ort., 1675 Monmouth, South Wales. May, 1873 May, 1874 Derhyshire Ort . 1873 Reduction O.t. 1975 ept . 1672 June, 1874 West Yorkshire, ure, 1873 Advance. far, 1973 Jan., 1872 Ort., 1871 Reduction M17, 1874 Oct. 1876 Glasgow. Ad rance June, 1879 8 2 R 3 22 8 13 ò 8 2 8 8 3 8 3 \$ 8 8 Les cent

The datum line represents rate of wages paid in October, 1871. The per centum indicated, at the most recent date, in the columns marked "Reduction," shows the present rates. South Yorkshire.

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YORKSHIRE.

Statement showing advances in wages from 1871 to March, 1873, at three vits of one of the principal collieries in the West Riding of Yorkshire.

			Во	y 4.
Number of pit, and date.	Coal-getting.	By-work.	Hurriera aver- age weekly wages.	Pony drivers, maximum dally wages.
Prr No. 1. January, 1871 January, 1872 January, 1873 March, 1873	39 52	Per day. \$1 13 1 21 1 67 1 92	\$2 90 3 43 3 69 4 52	\$0 40 48 97 1 09
Prr No. 9. January, 1871 January, 1873 March, 1873) ૭૭	1 13 1 25 1 67 1 92	3 35 3 43 4 38 6 05	• 57 44 65 75
Prr No. 3. January, 1871 January, 1872 Junuary, 1873 March, 1873	39 48	1 13 1 25 1 67 1 92		40, 44 85 97

In May, 1872, riddles ceased to be used at all the pits. The benefit accruing to the colliers from this change cannot be set down at less than 1d, per ton. One penny per ton must, therefore, be added to the apparent advance.

EARNINGS OF COLLIERS IN ENGLAND.

In the Sheffield district the colliers earn from £3 5s. to £4 a week, working only for five days. There are colliers in the neighborhood of Huddersfield who are now earning as much as £1 a day. In East Worcestershire the wages range from 8s. to 12s. a day. In Wales and the west wages are lower as a rule; in the north they are higher. Taking the average of the best coal-districts, it is obvious that a collier can easily earn from 8s. to 10s. any day he wishes to work. Price of coal in London 40s.—London Telegraph, September, 1873.

Under date of October 25, 1874, Walter Williams, esq., writes:

Colliers' wages are nominal; do not represent their earnings, which vary from 5s. 6d. to & per day of eight hours, except in portions of Wales, where they are less by 15 per cent.; but in iron-making districts, now, colliers in thin mines or common coal-works do not get more than 28s. to 30s. per week; steam-coal and house-coal from 35s. to 40s. per week, all working eight hours for a day's work; common laborers earn 3s. to 3s, 6d. per day; skilled, 4s. to 4s. 6d.; brick-layers, stone-masons, 5s. 6d. to 6s. 6d. per day, (nine hours;) painters, 7s.; carpenters, 5s. 6d. to 6s.; smiths, 5s. 6d. to 6s.; locomotive-engine drivers, 7s. 6d.; stationary-engineers, 4s. 6d. to 6s. per day.

Wages carned by workmen engaged in the Durham coal-fields, January, 1675.

Overmen, £2 to £2 15s. per week. Deputy overmen, 5s. 6d. to 6s. per day of eight hours.

Coal-hewers are paid by the score of twenty-one tubs, which vary from 6 cwt. to 12 coal-newers are paid by the score or twensy-one tius, which vary from 5 cwt. to 13 cwt. each, according to the different seams of coal worked; their average earnings are from 5s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. per day of from five to seven hours.

Laborers, under ground, 4s. to 5s. 6d. per day of eight hours.

Pit-engine-men, 5s. to 5s. 6d. per day of eight hours.

Laborers, at bank, 3s. 4d. to 4s. per day of ten hours.

Mechanics, 4s. to 5s. per day of nine hours.

In addition to those wages, it is the custom at nearly all collieries to provide houses for their work men. The houses vary very much in quality at different collieries, but, teactives with fire coal may be taken at £15 to £90 per annum addition to workmen's

together with fire-coal, may be taken at £15 to £20 per annum addition to workmen's Wages.

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ENGLISH MINING IN 1872.

Mr. Robert Hunt, keeper of the mining-records for Great Britain, has made the following returns of English mining in the year 1872:

Minerals.	No. of mines.	Quantities.	Value.
Coal	117 109 455 63 35 15 3 1 5 1 1 25	1, 309, 497 10	246, 311, 133 7, 774, 874 443, 738 1, 246, 135 1, 146, 165 73, 951 39, 470 17, 964 993 30 38, 865 40 8, 247 7, 078 450, 000 654, 748 50, 000
Total value of the minerals produced in the United Kingdom.			58, 913, 541

Metals obtained from the ores above enumerated in the United Kingdom in the year 1872.

Description of metal.	Quantities.	Value.
Pig.iron. tons Copper do Tin do Load do Silver ounces Zinc tons Other metals, (estimated) Total value of metals produced from the ores of the United Kingdom	. 5, 703 9, 560 69, 455 . 628, 920 5, 191	£18, 540, 304 543, 238 1, 439, 990 1, 209, 115 147, 230 118, 076 2, 500

The total value of the metals produced, coal and other minerals raised, in the year 1872: metal, value of, as above, £22,070,447; coal, ditto, £46,311,447; minerals, earthy, &c., £1,811,826; total, £70,193,416. The increase in total value, amounting to £12,871,523, is chiefly due to the additional cost of "getting" each ton of coal. To the 3,001 coal-mines should be added the product of 150 others not included..

RISE OF WAGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The tables on pages 243 to 278 give the wages or earnings of work-people in Great Britain which were paid in 1871 and which, with the exception of work in iron-mills and in coal-mines, do not in general differ greatly from those which ruled in 1872 and subsequent years. The strikes in the engineering and other trades were chiefly for diminished hours and not for an increase of per-diem wages. The reduction of hours demanded was, in most cases, from ten to nine hours per day, or from fifty nine to fifty four hours per week, an actual advance in the cost of labor of about 10 per cent. The rise in wages which originated mainly in the coal and iron industries, soon extended to nearly all other branches. In most trades there was an advance in the cost of labor

more or less marked, in addition to the increase caused by the reduction in the hours of labor.

The various advances and reductions in wages which have taken place since 1871 in the iron mills and furnaces and in the collieries, appear in the pages immediately preceding, while on the following pages the rates obtaining in 1872 when the author visited the manufacturing districts of Great Britain, and at subsequent periods, are presented. While the rates of wages indicated in the following tables vary but little from those of 1871, the respective hours of labor at the different periods must be regarded, whether for fifty-nine hours in the earlier, or from fifty-four to fifty-one hours in the later periods. Those in the later years show, it is true, the extent of the weekly earnings of workmen, unless they labor after hours, which is unusual; but whether compared with similar data at another period or in other countries where the hours of labor were or are greater, the increased cost of labor per hour in recent years is indicated in the tables.

RATES OF WAGES IN 1873—MECHANICAL TRADES.

Rates of wages paid per week in the kingdom of Great Britain for different kinds of labor.

Trades.	Per week, in U. S. gold.	Trades.	Per week, in U. S. gold.
Engineers and machinists. Elacksmiths, (general). Carpenters and joiners. Stone-macons. Bricklayers. Carriage and wagon makers. Saddle and harness makers. Themen and tinners. Painters. Coppersmiths. Angle or iron smiths.	8 83 83 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85	Ship-joiners. Iron-molders. Pattern-makers. Puddlers. Smelters. Stone-quarry men French polishers. Printers Book-binders. Cabinet-makers. Upholsterers.	8 22 8 71 8 71 5 12 8 22 7 74 8 23

The above statement, furnished by a gentleman in Liverpool, gives a fair average of the rates of wages paid throughout Great Britain for the different kinds of skilled labor indicated. But inasmuch as the same wages, \$8.22 per week, is given as the rate paid to carpenters, cabinet-makers, and painters, as well as to blacksmiths, masons, iron-molders and machinists, who usually receive higher wages, it is not so accurate as the tables on the two following pages, which show the various rates paid to skilled workmen in mechanical and building trades in each of the principal towns of the United Kingdom.

BOILER-MAKERS AND IRON-SHIP BUILDERS.

Table showing the weekly wages paid to boiler-makers and iron-ship builders in same of the principal towns and cities of the United Kingdom during the year 1573.

[Hours of labor per week, 54, except in Aberdeen, Dundee, and Glasgow, where they are 51 hours.

Average of 514 hours per week through the year.]

Localities	Smithe.	Platers.	Rivotora.	Calkers.	Holders-up.*
Aberdeen			95 81 to 98 05	• • •	\$4.60
Barrow-in-furness		\$8 23 to 8 72	7 74 to 8 23		\$5 81 to 6 05
Belfast	8 72 to 9 16	8 23 to 8 72	7 96	6 99	
Birkenheadt	8 73 to 9 16	8 79 to 9 16	7 26 to 7 74	\$7 26 to 7 74	5 81 to 6 17
Bradford		7 74		7 02	6 89
Briefolt		8 79	7 74	7 96	5 56
Bury	9 19	8 79	8 23	1	
Chester	9 19	8 79			
Cork	9 44	8 71	7 26	6 74	
Crewe		7 99 to 8 71			
Derby Dublin†	8 71	871	6 78		
Dublin†	8 71 to 9 19	8 23 to 8 71	7 75		
Dundee		7 02	6 53 to 6 77	6 53 to 6 77	4 84
Ebbro Vale	7 99	7 99	6 77 to 7 99		
Glasgow ship yard	7 26	7 75	. 680	6 80	4 12
Glasgow ship yard	8 47 to 9 19	8 23 to 8 47	7 96 to 7 35	7 02 to 7 35	4 36 to 5 56
Greenwich ship-yard	10 10	10 16	8 23	7 26	6 77
Greenwich boiler-shop	10 16	10 16	798	7 26	6 29
Unddowefold	1 200	8 23	7 96	l	5 81
Hull boiler-shop	10 12	9 19	7 74	7 26 to 7 74	6 29
Hull ship vard	10 12	2 19	7 74	7 50 to 7 74	6 29
Hull boiler-shop Hull ship-yard Leeds boiler-shop Liverpool boiler-shep	9 19 to 9 68	8 71 to 9 19	6 29 to 7 74		5 32 to 6 29
Liverpool boiler-shep	9 19 to 9 68	8 71 to 9 19	7 26 to 7 74	7 26 to 7 74	6 05 to 6 29
Liverpool ship yard London boiler-shop	8 71 to 9 19	8 71	7 26	7 96	5 81
London boiler-shop	8 71 to 10 65	8 71 to 10 16	7 26 to 9 19	6 77 to 7 99	4 84 to 6 29
London ship-yard	9 68 to 10 16	9 19 to 9 68	7 74 to 8 71	7 99	5 81 to 6 99
Manchester	9 68	9 19	8 23		7 96 to 7 75
Newcastle-upon-Type boiler-	1				
shop goda	7 75 to 8 71	8 23 to 8 71	7 27 to 7 75	6 77 to 7 75	
Newcastle-upon-Tyne boiler- shop Newcastle-upon-Tyne ship-yard	7 99	7 99	7 75	7 09	6 29
Nottingham	9 19	8 71	7 27		5 81
		9 19	7 99		5 81
Preston boiler-shop	9 19	8 71	7 75	7 75	5 81
Preston shin-yard	9 19	9 19	7 75	7 75	5 39
Rochdale	9 19	8 71	5 81		7 75
Portsmouth Preston boiler-shop Preston ship-yard Rochdale Sheffield Wigan	7 99 to 9 68	8 71 to 9 19	7 75 to 8 23	6 77 to 7 27	
Wigan		9 19	7 75	1	7 62
Wolverhampton	8 71	8 23	6 53		5 56
Wigan Wolverhampton Woolwich	9 44	8 71	7 75		
York		7 99	7 50		
		. 00			
Average in above places.	8 97	8 64	7 48	6 82	5 92
Triores of shore betode.				"	
	7		1		

^{*}In some shops holders up are employed on the piecework system.
† Working hours from light till dark in winter.

CARPENTERS AND JOINERS.

Table showing the weekly wages of carpenters and joiners, with the number of working-hours per week, in the following principal towns of the United Kingdom during the year 1873.

	Wage	e per	of lab	ours or per oek.		Wage We	e per	Hours of labor per week.		
Towns.	Summer. Winter.		Summer.	Winter.	Tewns.	Summer.	Winter.	Summer.	Winter.	
Aberdeen Abergavenny Aldershoe Ayr Belfast Birkenheed Biraingham Bolton Reafford Reistol Bary Chester Coventry Crewe Cork Dundee Dunfries Dundfries Dundfries Dundee Buster Reafford Reistol Bary Chester Coventry Crewe Cork Derby Dablia Danfries Dundfries Dundfries Dundee Dundee Dundee Buster Reafford Reister Reafford Reister Reafford Reister Reafford Reister Reiste	6 49 7 6 93 7 6 93 7 6 93 8 8 17 7 6 93 7 7 95 8 8 17 7 96 97 7 95 7 95 7 95 7 95 7 95 7 95	96 49 6 49 7 98 7 69 3 7 69 8 7 63 8 7 63 8 7 7 86 7 7 86 8 23 8 3 5 7 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	51 54 55 51 55 55 55 54 55 54 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56	51 53 51 55 51 55 55 55 56 54 55 56 54 55 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56 56	Kirkcaldy Leeds Leicester Liverpool London Leith Londonderry Macolesfield Manchester Newcastle-ou-Tyne Nottingham Oxford Plymouth Preston Pertamouth Preston Perth Roohdale Rugby Sheffield Southsupton Stafford Stockport Sligo Stirling Wolverhampton Woolwich Worcester Waterford York Average	7 06 7 08 9 53 9 53 7 71 6 29 8 79 7 56 8 79 7 66 8 77 7 66 6 53 7 7 66 6 68 7 7 66 6 7 95 6 7 95 7 6 68 7 9 7 68 7 9 7 68 7 9 7 68 7 7 7 7 68 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	\$6 93 7 06 7 08 8 39 9 53 9 53 7 7 11 6 37 7 56 6 6 53 6 6 77 7 15 6 6 6 53 6 6 77 7 15 6 6 79 6 6 79 6 6 79 6 6 79 6 6 79 6 79	510 515 510 514 50 515 50 515 510 510	51 50 54 55 51 50 55 51 50 47 50 47 50 49 51 50 50 50 51 51 50 60 51 51 50 51 51 51 50 51 51 51 51 51 51 51 51 51 51	
Kilmarnock	7 20	7 20	51	51	Average	7 24	7 10	59	54	

^{*}Although here computed by the week, the rate of wages is usually fixed either by the hour or by the day.

STONE MASONS.

Table showing the wages of stone-masons per hour and the number of hours worked per week in some of the principal towns of Scotland during the year 1874.

Localities.	Wages pen hour.	Hours worked per week.	Localities.	Wages per hour.	Hours worked per week.
Aberdeen Airdie. Ayr Dunburton Dunfries Dandee Edinburgh Glasgow Greenook	16 14 16 to 17	51 51 51 51 51 51 51 51 51	Kilmarnock Leith Montrose North Berwick Perth Saint Andrews Stirling Average	16 to 17	51 51 51 51 51 51

In many of the smaller towns the hours of labor are longer and the wages lower.

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PRINTERS' WAGES IN ENGLAND.

In London the established wages of either compositors or machinemen are 36s. (\$8.71) for fifty-four hours' work. There are always a few men, not exactly overseers, who will have, perhaps, five to eight shillings (\$1.21 to \$1.93) more than the established wages, men of quick and steady habits, who are worth the extra money.

Piecework is paid per thousand ens. The prices paid per thousand vary, according to the description of work—close manuscript and leaded manuscript, and also reprint matter leaded and reprint matter close. The prices are from six to seven pence (12 to 14 cents) per thousand. English to minion and nonpareil take one-half penny (1 cent) rise per thousand, and smaller than nonpareil a higher rise, according as the font may be. When books are stereotyped or electrotyped, one-fourth to one-half penny of rise on the above, as spaces being high or low determine.

Piece-hands.—Good or average men can make, easily, from thirty-six to forty shillings, (\$8.71 to \$9.68.) Inferior hands run from twenty to thirty shillings, (\$4.84 to \$7.26.) Some of them are poor hands, those that can only make twenty shillings, (\$4.84.) Superior hands can make

from forty-five to fifty shillings, (\$10.89 to \$12.10.)

In the provinces, in some of the large towns, such as Manchester, thirty-three shillings (\$7.98) is the established wage. Piece prices, consequently, a shade lower; but all other things much in the same way as in London, &c. In most of the English provinces earnings are about thirty shillings (\$7.26) per week.

SCOTLAND.

The established wages in principal towns, twenty-seven shillings and six-pence, (\$6.65,) for fifty-four hours, for machine-men and compositors. Best class of men are generally on a wage of thirty shillings, (\$7.26.) Machine-men, all nearly, thirty shillings. Piecework is paid at six-pence (12 cents) per thousand ens; all descriptions of work, except very wide-leaded books, which are one-fourth penny (½ cent) per thousand less. Stereotyped and small fonts the same as in London.

Piece-hands.—Good average men can easily make from twenty-eight to thirty shillings, (\$6.78 to \$7.26,) and where very diligent and attentive, thirty-five to forty shillings, (\$8.47 to \$9.68,) and sometimes more,

but they seldom keep this up.

Boys, in case-room, after three or four years, can earn about ten shillings (\$2.42) per week, if they are active; and their earnings increased to fourteen shillings (\$3.33) a week, during the seventh and last year of their apprenticeship. Many of them, from the fourth year, get the half of their earnings.

In the machine-room, or press-room, they start with seven or eight shillings, (\$1.69 to \$1.95) per week, which gradually rises to, say, sixteen shillings, (\$3.87,) during the last weeks of apprenticeship. Little boys, not apprentices, from four to seven shillings, according to work; some as high as ten shillings—pointers.

Girls in machine-room, earn from four to eleven shillings, (96 cents to \$2.66,) according to ability. Those earning eleven shillings per week are

they who point the sheet on the second side of platen machines.

MECHANICAL AND FARM LABOR IN ENGLAND.

Statement showing the rates of wages paid for mechanical and farm labor in the year 1874.

Mechanics.		D	arh	am.				3	Mic	ldle	sex.				N	ott	ingh	am.	
Blacksmiths	81	30	per	day	,	81	20	to	\$1	68	per	day	\$0						
Bricklayers and masons	1	44	per	day	٠.,	1	44	to	1	92	per	day	l				our.		
Cabinet-makers												day					our.		
Carpenters												day					our.	-	
Coopers	1	10	per	day	7	1	68	to	. 1	92	per	day	1.				our.		
Miners	1	46	per	day	7	G	ene	era	IJУ	by	the	job	1		pe				
Machinista												day					ay.		
aintere	1	33	per	day	7	1	44	to	1	68	per	day	1				our.		
Plasterers	1	42	per	day	7	1	44	to	1	68	per	day	1				our.		
Shoemakers	1		per									· · · · · · · · ·			per				
tone-cutters	1	44	per	day	7	1	44	to	1	92	per	day	1	16	per	r b	our.		
Cailors	1	20	per	day	7	1	20	to	1	68	per	day	1	21	per	r d	ay.		
Canners	l					1	44	to	1	92	per	day	1 1	33	per	r d	av.		
Cinsmiths	1	20	per	day	٧	1	44	to	1	92	per	day	1	21	pe	r d	av.		
Wheelwrights		32	per	da	ý	1	44	to	1	92	per	day					our.		
FARM-LABOR.	ł		•	•							٠,	١ .			•				
FARA-LADUR	1												1		•	1			
Experienced hands Summer	ĺ	84	per	day	y	2	40	to	3	84	per	week.	4	84	to	\$ 5	56 pe	I Wo	ok.
. (M THICEL	Į.	64	per	da	y	2	40	to	2	88	per	week.	4	84	to	5	56 pe	r we	θk.
Summer	ļ	64	per	day	7	1	92	to	2	88	per	week.	4	35	per	7	reek.		
Ordinary hands Winter	ļ	40	per	da	7	1	92	to	2	40	per	week.	4	11	pe	r W	reek.		
Common laborers at other than																			
farm-work, for six days only	ŧ	70	per	day	7		32	De	r d	lay	. .		1	84	per	r d	2V.		
emale servants	4	86	per	1110	nth	40	00	to	\$10)0 (00 pe	r year.	38	72	to	\$4 8	3 40 p	er ye	ar.
PRICE OF BOARD.																		•	
(For workmen	3	40	per	wo	ek.			•				. 	2	90	to	3	39 pe	r we	ek.
ctober, 1874. For workwomen																		r we	

^{*} Working five days only, and for the sixth day, 72 cents. In Saint Helens. Lancaster, ordinary farm-laborers receive 84 cents per day.

In previous pages statements have been presented showing the wages or earnings of work-people in various mills and factories of the United Kingdom, classified by industries. The prices of factory-labor therein given were chiefly those prevailing in 1871, and which were kindly furnished to the author by officials of the British government. It is now proposed to present statements, classified by towns, showing the rates of wages, which were obtained personally by the author in the year 1872 and by consuls of the United States and others at subsequent periods.

CHIEF MANUFACTURING TOWNS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

In presenting the prices of labor in the chief towns of the kingdom it is neither intended to submit historical statements in regard to the rise, the progress, or the present condition of what may be regarded as the leading industry of each town or manufacturing center, nor to consider the causes which rendered each place eminent in its peculiar branch of industry. Interesting as such a historical and statistical sketch might be of the manufactures of Manchester and Birmingham, of Leeds and Sheffield, of Bradford and Nottingham, of Glasgow and Dundee—and it must be confessed that the temptation to pursue such a course is unusually strong—there is neither time for its preparation nor space in these pages for its presentation. A passing allusion to the chief industries of the above and other manufacturing towns of Great Britain is all that is necessary; any more detailed statement would be a reflection upon the intelligence of the larger part of Anglo-American readers. Indeed, the leading productions of some of these manufac-

turing centers are so well known that towns in the United States largely engaged in similar industries are frequently designated as the counterparts of the former. Thus, Lowell is the Manchester, Pittsburgh the Birmingham, and Paterson the Macclesfield of America; while, owing to the recent rapid growth of iron-ship-building in Wilmington, Chester, and Philadelphia, the river Delaware is designated as "the Clyde of America."

LIVERPOOL.

Population in 1871, 493,405.

Liverpool, the principal sea-port of England, situated on the river Mersey, four miles above its mouth, is celebrated for its great commercial importance and its immense trade with every part of the world. The vast amount of English merchandise which finds a market in the United States is chiefly shipped from this port, the value of which, in the year 1871, reached £26,310,743, (\$128,041,230.) In the beginning of the eighteenth century Liverpool possessed only one dock, but now its magnificent and commodious docks cover a space of 400 acres. Shipbuilding,* both iron and wooden, is extensively carried on at Birkenhead, on the opposite side of the river, where the engineering works of Messrs. Laird and others are situated. The manufactures of the town of Liverpool, however, are but limited, while the products of the consular district, which, during the year ended September 30, 1872, were exported to the United States amounted to nearly \$38,000,000, as indicated by the following table:

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES FROM LIVERPOOL.

Statement showing the value of exports to the United States from the Liverpool consular district during the year ended September 30, 1872.

Articles.	Value in U. S. gold.*	Articles.	Value in U. S. gold.*
Iron Steel Hardware Tin Tin-plates Wire-rope. Wool Chemicals Leather and skins Satt Dry goods	97, 515 468, 298 12, 949, 396 127, 692 3, 840, 763 3, 215, 769 1, 539, 439 941, 507	Rags, waste paper, &c. Fruit Beer Coal Earthenware India rubber Slates Miscellaneous Total.	493, 715 262, 480 239, 869 107, 146 189, 244

^{*} Although the rates of wages and cost of subsistence in the United Kingdom which appear on preceding and subsequent pages are computed at the rate of \$4.84, United States gold, per pound sterling, and the shilling at 24 cents, yet, in the above and other tables of exports from manufacturing towns, the pound sterling is computed at the rate now established by law, viz. \$4.8665.

RATES OF WAGES IN LIVERPOOL.

Mechanics and skilled artisans, in October, 1873.—The wages of engineers, boiler-makers, shipwrights, mast and block makers, printers

^{*}Shipbuilding on the Mersey in 1873.—The five principal ship-building firms on the Mersey turned out twenty-nine steamers and seven iron sailing-ships during the year 1873, the total tonnage of the steamers amounting to 33,507 tons, and of the sailing-ships 12,164 tons. Messrs. Laird Brothers built eleven steamers, whose tonnage amounted to over 13,000 tons, and six gun-boats, aggregating nearly 2,000 tons. Messrs. Bowdler, Chaffer & Co. built seven steamers, amounting to 7,000 tons. Messrs. Thomas Royden & Sons launched five screw-steamers of the total amount of 5,407 tons, and four iron sailing-ships, aggregating 6,764 tons. R. & J. Evans & Co. built four steamers and one iron sailing-ship, amounting to 7,900 tons. Messrs. Potter & Hodgkinson built two steamers and two sailing-ships of iron, aggregating 5,600 tons.

and lithographers, and of some of the men in the building trades, as painters, joiners, masons, plumbers, &c., vary from 5s. 6d. to 6s. (\$1.33 to \$1.45) per day of nine working-hours, or from 33s. to 36s. (\$7.98 to \$8.70) per week of fifty-four hours.

The wages of pressmen in oil mills, of the higher class of workmen in chemical works, sugar-refineries, &c., vary from 27s. 6d. to 32s. 6d. (\$6.25 to \$7.86) per week, the hours varying from ten to twelve per day.

The wages of day laborers in Liverpool vary from 21s. to 25s. (\$5.08 to \$6.05) per week. In some of the smaller towns they range from 18s. to 22s. 6d., (\$4.35 to \$5.44.)

Domestic servants.—The wages of housemaids and waitresses vary from £10 to £20 (\$48.40 to \$96.80) per annum, (of course board found;) of cooks from £12 up to £40, (\$58.08 to \$193.60;) of gardeners, £1 to £1 10s. (\$4.84 to \$7.26) per week, living out of the house at their own cost. Footmen and coachmen's wages vary too much to give any fixed rates.

WAGES IN ENGINEERS' SHOPS, IRON-WORKS, ETC. .

The following statement, showing the rates of wages paid by the general association of master engineers, ship builders, and iron and brass founders, was kindly furnished by Colonel Clay, of Clay, Inman & Co., proprietors of the Birkenhead Forge, under date of October 29, 1873:

Statement showing the weekly rates of wages paid to workmen in different classes of work in the district of Liverpool during the second quarter of the year 1873.

Class of work.	No. 7.	No. 9.		T	1 .
- tot -		ł	No. 11.	No. 12.	Aver- age.
miths	. 88 32	\$8 82	\$8 46	\$7 82	\$8 2
Strikers	. 5 48	5 50	5 08	5 18	5 3
ngle-iron smiths.		9 19	8 46	8 53	8 7
Strikera		1	I. 	l. 	53
lators	. 8 39	8 71	9 19	8 50	8 4
Helpers	. 4 64	l	1	l	4 6
livoters		7 50	7 74	7 50	7 6
lolders-up		6 29	6 29	6 97	6 6
urners		8 32	8 24	8 12	8 1
ownersmiths		l		8 11	8 1
race-finishers		7 74	7 62	7 86	77
itters and erectors	. 7 86	7 62	7 62	7 80	77
(illwrights		1	7 74	7 74	77
laners		7 50	7 50	6 53	7 0
hapers		6 77		6 33	6 6
lottera		7 26	6 77	6 05	6 7
drillers	5 94	6 05	5 80	5 92	5 9
ren-molders Sand	.1	871	871	8 71	8 7
run-moiders Losm		9 68	9 43	9 43	9.5
rass-molders		10 16	8 83	8 01	9 0
ore-makers	.	7 50	7 01	7 32	7 2
attern-makers	. 8 47	8 32	8 22	8 10	8 2
Carpenters and joiners	. 7 98	8 32	7 50	7 32	77
rinders	. 7 56	8 47	7 50	7 08	7 6
Engine drivers and tenters	. 6 05	5 32	5 08	5 56	5 5
Calkers	. 6 11	l. 	1	. . .	6 1
Coundery-dressers		6 29	6 29	6 29	6 9
Foundery-laborers	. 4 84	5 32	5 32	4 69	5 0
Ordinary laborers		4 35	4 59	4 69	4:
Average wages of skilled workmen in all the shops.		!			7

WAGES AT THE CANADA WORKS, BIRKENHEAD.

Average rates of wages paid to skilled workmen at the Canada Works, Birkenhead, in the sixteen years from 1854 to 1869, inclusive.

Year.	Fitters.	Tarners.	Coppersmiths and bruziers.	Grinders.	Smiths.	Boiler-smiths.	Bricklayers.	Saddlers and belt- makers.	Forgemen.	Painters.	Molders.	Joiners and pat- tern-makers.	Boiler-makers.	Average.
1854	e. d. 29 0 28 3 29 0 30 6 28 10 27 6 27 6 27 6 27 10 28 0 28 0 28 1 31 0 33 6 31 0	#. d. 29 4 30 3 31 3 31 6 31 0 32 0 31 6 32 0 31 6 31 5 31 6 31 5 31 6 31 0 30 0 4	e. d. 31 6 30 10 28 10 28 10 29 0 30 0 31 0 29 6 28 6 28 1 31 6 31 7 32 6 32 0 32 0 30 0	8. d. 97 0 97 0 97 0 94 0 94 0 96 0 96 0 97 6 97 6 97 6 98 0 98 0	8. d. 31 0 31 5 32 0 31 0 39 6 30 3 30 0 29 6 31 0 30 3 31 9 31 9 31 0	8. d. 34 0 34 0 35 0 34 6 33 0 33 8 33 0 33 6 33 0 34 6 36 0 36 0	4. d. 34 0 34 0 34 0 34 0 34 0 34 0 34 0 34	26 0 27 0 26 0 26 0 27 0 27 0 27 0 27 0 27 0 27 0 27 0 27	4. d. 36 6 37 0 36 0 33 6 33 0 36 0 35 6 35 0 34 6 33 0 32 9 33 0 32 6	24 0 23 0 24 0 26 0 6 25 0 25 6 8 25 8 26 6 27 6 24 0 23 0 23 0	s. d. 32 0 31 6 33 0 32 0 31 6 31 6 32 6 32 6 32 0 32 0 33 0 32 7 34 6 34 6 34 6	28 6 0 28 6 29 0 28 2 27 6 0 29 6 30 0 29 6 30 0 30 6 31 4 30 9 0	8. d. 31 6 31 0 30 6 32 0 30 6 31 0 31 0 31 6 31 3 31 3 31 9 32 0 32 0	e. d. 30 34 30 54 30 5 30 4 29 6 29 1 30 3 30 2 30 4 30 4 30 11 31 7 30 84 29 10
Average in U.S.gold.	\$ 7 0 2	\$7 53	\$ 7 34	\$ 6 4 5	\$ 7 44	\$ 8 26	\$8 22	\$ 6 07	\$ 7 27	\$ 6 11	\$ 7 86	8 7 11	\$ 7 17	\$7 24

The above table, extracted from Mr. Brassey's "Work and Wages," exhibits but slight variations in wages during the sixteen years prior to 1870. The average of the thirteen different occupations for the years 1854 to 1857 and from 1860 to 1864 was almost identical, while in 1869 there was a slight decrease.

Nor does the general average in the sixteen years, viz, 29s. 11d. (\$7.24) vary greatly from the rates in 1872, when the author visited the works, or from those of 1873, as shown in the table on the preceding page, in which the wages of all the skilled workmen averaged 31s. 10d., (\$7.70,) an advance of but 1s. 11d. (46 cents) per week, or about 6 per cent. The increase in the cost of labor, however, is chiefly owing to the reduction in the hours of labor, which, as before stated, is equivalent to about 10 per cent.

The weekly wages paid in the above works, as stated by Mr. Laird, of Laird & Brothers, October 14, 1872, were as follows: turners, 30s. to 32s.; riveters, 34s. to 36s., but do not work all the time; ordinary machinists, fitters, &c., average 26s.; pattern-makers, 34s. to 36s.; laborers from unskilled to skilled, 18s. to 23s.; ship-carpenters, 6s. per day in shop; 7s. outside.

Mr. Laird stated the advance in the rates of wages paid in 1872 over those of 1867 was 10 per cent. on the higher and 15 per cent. on the lower rates. From 800 to 900 men were at that time employed in the works.

BIRMINGHAM.

Population in 1871, 343,787.

In addition to the various articles of iron manufacture for which Birmingham was, at an early period, celebrated, brass goods began to be produced about the seventeenth century. This branch now forms one of the most important in the town. Every description of article in this

metal is produced in immense quantities. Metallic bedsteads in brass and iron, lamps, chandeliers, gas-brackets, cornice-poles, ornamental railings, metallic picture-frames, curtain-bands, as well as more common articles, afford employment to many thousands of men, women, and boys. The buckle trade, formerly so large, has entirely disappeared, and metal buttons are produced in but small quantities. The glass trade, including stained glass for windows, is very successfully prosecuted, and in the vicinity of the town is the gigantic establishment of Messrs. Chance, who supplied the whole of the material required for the glazing of the Crystal Palace for the exhibition of 1851.

A writer (Leland) in the time of Henry VIII, speaking of Birming-

ham, savs, (ipsissima verba et litera:)

The beauty of Birmingham, a good market towne in the extreame parts of Warwickshire, is one street going up alonge almost from the left ripe of the brooke, [the Rea,] up a meane hill by the length of a quarter of a mile. I saw but one paroch church in the towne. There be many smithes in the towne that use to make knives and all manner of cutting tooles, and many lorimers (saddlers) that make bittes, and a great many naylors; so that a great part of the towne is maintained by smithes, whoe have their iron and sea-cole out of Staffordshire.

Camden, who wrote half a century later, describes it as "swarming

with inhabitants and echoing with the noise of anvils."

Electro-plating, which has sprung up entirely within a recent period, is now carried on to an almost incredible extent. The manufactory of Mesers. Elkington, elsewhere mentioned, is the parent establishment in the town. Jewelry, in the fabrication of which female labor largely enters, is made in great quantities. The papier-maché trade is extensive. Such articles as sofas, tables, and other kinds of furniture, in addition to the smaller kinds, such as desks, work-boxes, and inkstands, are manufactured and ornamented with figures, flowers, and landscapes. and inlaid with pearl. Fire-arms in great numbers are made in Birmingham. The gun trade, first stimulated by government patronage in the time of William III, retains its early reputation. The factory of the Birmingham Small-Arms Company is largely employed in executing orders from foreign governments. A proof-house, where all gun-barrels manufactured are required to be proved, was established by an act of Parliament in 1813. Metal-rolling, wire-drawing, and pin-making are extensively carried on, while Birmingham stands unrivaled in the man ufacture of steel pens.

Mr. Consul Gould furnishes the following interesting information in

regard to this important industry:

Steel pens are now made at fourteen factories in Birmingham, and the aggregate production is 15,000,000 per week. There are not less than 2,500 persons employed in

the manufacture, producing an aggregate of 750,000,000 annually.

Joseph Gillott, the famous steel-pen maker, died in this town January 6, 1872, at the age of seventy-one. Probably no name has been more widely known for the last forty years than that of this man. Every school-boy in the Old and New World has become familiar with the articles which bear his name. At the time of his death it is estifamiliar with the articles which bear his name. At the time of his death it is estimated that his establishment was producing 150,000,000 pens annually, averaging a ten per day. If we estimate one-half this number as the average for the last thirty years, it will give the enormous aggregate of 2,250,000,000 pens sent out by one man. It has been denied that he was the first to produce the steel pen, which was originally in the round or barrel form, the two edges of the strips of steel being brought together and forming the slit. These were produced by hand, but Mr. Gillot conceived the idea of manufacturing them by machinery, and his establishment has long been one of the attractive places for persons visiting Birmingham.

Joseph Gillott began life poor, his calling being that of a grinder of cutlery at Shef-

Joseph Gillott began life poor, his calling being that of a grinder of cutlery at Sheffield. He came to Birmingham about fifty years ago and followed the business of steel-toy maker for some time, and about thirty-five years since began to make the steel pens which have caused his name to be so well known to the world. These pens

at first were clumsy and stiff and poorly adapted for writing purposes. One of his first devices to remedy the stiffness was the small slit on each side of the point. With the use of dies came the various forms which have since been furnished. The first pens sold for fifty and seventy-five cents each, and for a long time the value was twenty-five cents. The price has gradually decreased, till at the present time they

are sold as low as one cent per dozen.

Josiah Mason, also a manufacturer of steel pens, is still living at a greater age than that of Mr. Gillott, and his history is quite similar to that of his compeer, he having started from the most humble circumstances, though he is now regarded as the richest man in this wealthy town. Having no children of his own, he has devoted the whole of his immense wealth for the benefit of the children of the poor. His magnificent orphanage, costing a half million of dollars, is one of the ornaments of our suburbs, and a whole square has been purchased by him in the heart of the city, where elegant and costly buildings are to be erected for a college for poor young men. His immense pen establishment is to be left in the hands of trustees, who are to devote the proceeds to the support of his beloved schools. Mr. Mason's name has not become so intimately associated with steel pens as that of Mr. Gillott, from the fact that he has chiefly manufactured for other parties, whose names have appeared upon the products.

* * * Each establishment manufactures three hundred and fifty tone annually. The celebrated Perry, of London, has had his stamp upon Mr. Masen's peus from the first, and they have been justly esteemed as equal to any in the market.

EXPORTS FROM BIRMINGHAM TO THE UNITED STATES.

Comparative statement of exports from the consular district of Birmingham to the United States for the respective years ending September 30, 1873 and 1872.

Description of goods.	1873.	1879.
Hardware, steel, and iron		\$1, 994, 966
Sheathing-metal	83, 305	•••••
ron cotton-bale hoops	179, 456	111, 363
Anvils and vises		83, 641
l'in-plates	119, 194	104, 788
Dains, hoes, and scythes	439, 745	416, 456
Saddlery and skins		181, 954
Juns and implements		675, 449
Needles and buttons		451, 92 1
Watches and materials		42, 924
Chemicals	147, 101	133, 636
Cotton and silk goods	61,506	167, 779
Beot materials	61, 378	63, 434
Flass, sheet and ware	283, 182	273, 109
ens and tipe		85, 256
Towelry and fancy-goods	344, 117	484, 560
)ptical	30, 604	37, 146
handeliers	39, 152	30, 56-
Nickel and cobalt		22, 23
et, real and imitation		16.443
China ware and Parian	122,092	78, 203
Miscellaneous	19, 994	10, 200
Total for Birmingham	4, 716, 765	5, 400, 945
leicester agency		821,011
Kidderminster agency	696, 679	947. 905
Wolverhampton agency	519, 453	669, 956
Redditch agency	630, 384	673, 710
Total from Birmingham and districts	7, 463, 413	8, 531, 82

WAGES IN BIRMINGHAM.

On previous pages, in the classification by industries, the wages paid in Birmingham are given. The rates in some branches of manufacture were personally obtained from the proprietors of the shops, factories, and works indicated, and verified by conversations with the more intelligent workmen.

Engineering works.—Mr. May, of May & Fountain, engineers, took particular pains to afford full information in regard to the wages paid in iron-founding and machine shops, as they are designated in the United States. Fitters, turners, smiths, &c., best men, earn 36s. per week, a very few as high as 40s.; ordinary machinists, 28s.; inferior machinists, 24s. to 26s. Those receiving but 24s. have not served a regular apprenticeship. Average of the whole shop, about 30s.; laborers, somewhat skilled, 18s. to 24s.; laborers, unskilled, 15s. to 18s. This firm does not employ society men. In shops employing society men only, the average rate is about 32s., some of the best earning as much as 40s. Young men, not so well skilled, earn 25s. per week.

A "society man," a molder of considerable intelligence, working in another establishment, gave the following as the wages in shops employing society men: Molders, 34s. per week of 54 hours, a few obtain but 32s.; fitters, 30s. to 32s. A few superior men get more. Average of all except molders, 30s.; laborers assisting in putting up machinery.

20s.

Harness-factory.—Messrs. Ashford & Winder furnished the following information in regard to the earnings of their work people: Ordinary workmen earn from 24s. to 26s. per week; best workmen earn from 28s. to 30s. per week; girls, 8s. Men on saddles, piecework, after paying women to help, earn about 40s. Curriers, on piecework, earn from 50s. to 60s. These last save nothing, however, some being out of money before the week is over, owing to intemperance. The sewing is chiefly done by hand. They have one sewing machine and are about to order another. They prefer those of Boston make.

In houses of working-people, girls were seen sewing traces, and at other harness work. A harness-maker, working in another shop, stated that he earns at piecework 26s. Men working by the week average not over 24s., or at most 25s. They find it difficult to support their families on such wages. Many leave off working at trades and become porters,

because they can thus earn more money.

Silver-plated ware.—Messrs. Elkington & Co.'s manufactory of silver-plated ware is celebrated throughout the kingdom for the excellence of the workmanship and for the artistic taste displayed in the great variety of articles produced. The manager gave the earnings of the employés as follows: About 500 hands are employed, who work fifty hours net per week, mostly on piecework. Chasers earn from 40s. to 45s.; other workmen, from 35s. to 40s.; inferior, as low as 26s.; average of the whole, about 35s.

Gillott's Steel-Pen Works.—The employés are nearly all girls, who earn

about 10s. per week.

Thimble-factories.—Small girls chiefly employed, who earn from 4s. 6d. to 5s. per week.

Other factories.—The average weekly wages of girls at other factory-

labor is about 8s., some receiving as high as 10s.

Birmingham Small-Arms Company's Works.—These works are at Smallheath, some four miles from the city. About 1,000 men are usually employed, but when the visit of the author was made only 500 were at work, on a large order for the Russian government. Most of the men work under contractors, who pay from 30s. to 35s. per week for good hands; ordinary and inferior obtain less. Small boys receive 8s. per week; youths, 16s.; laborers, about 16s., but they usually work over-hours, and thus earn 20s.; tool-makers, 36s. to 40s., average about 38s.; grinders, 50s. to 60s., obtaining higher wages in consequence of the dangerous nature of the work.

WAGES OF LABORERS IN BUILDING TRADES.

Mr. George E. Jeffery, secretary of the Birmingham Master-Builders' Association, in a letter to one of the newspapers of that city, dated March 10, 1874, gives the following statement of the rates of wages paid to laborers in Birmingham for the preceding nine years:

For several years before 1864, and to May of that year, the rate of wages paid was 17s. per week of sixty hours.

In May, 1864, 18s. was paid per week of sixty hours.

In June, 1865, payment by the hour was commenced, and the rate per hour was advanced to 4d., the time worked fifty-eight and a half hours, or 19s. 6d. per week.

In May, 1867, time was reduced to fifty-six and a half hours, and wages advanced to

41d. per hour, or £1 per week.

In May, 1868, the rate of wages paid was 4\(\frac{4}{6}\)d. per hour for fifty-six and a half hours, and this rate of wages and time continued till May, 1872, when, under the arbitration, conducted by Mr. R. Kettle as umpire, wages were advanced to 4\(\frac{4}{6}\)d. per hour, and the time reduced to fifty-four hours, or to £1 1s. 4d. per week, which is the present rate of wages and time.

These figures show an advance of wages per hour in nine years at the rate of 40 per cent., and 5 per cent. more is now offered, making fifty-four hours, at 5d. per hour.

or £1 2s. 6d. per week.

It is proper to state in this connection that Mr. Stephens, secretary of the laborers' association, asserted that the rate of wages was then but 16s. per week.

WOLVERHAMPTON.

Wolverhampton is situated in the great midland coal and iron mining district known as the Black Country, and has manufactories of almost every article produced from iron, steel, and brass. It is a place of considerable antiquity, although little is known of its history until the year 996, when Wulfrune, sister of Ethelred II, endowed a church and college here. The town was then called Hampton, and afterward Wulfrune's Hampton, which has since been corrupted to the present name. Wolverhampton depends mainly upon the manufacture of iron and hardware. The lock-manufacture is one of the oldest in the town, the famous Chubb lock being made here. Tin and japanned ware, hollow ware, gun-locks, safes, cut nails, tools, and implements, are also manufactured; and all these branches together with brass founding give employment to a large number of hands.

The report of the sub-inspector of factories for this district, in 1873,

states:

In Wolverhampton and the Black Country, trade has been very good in almost all branches. Many new works have been opened, and old ones have been enlarged. One firm that in 1868 employed 272 hands, now employs 829; and another that at the same date had one factory with 540 hands, 280 of whom were females, has now three factories with 1,143 hands, of whom 504 are females. The tube trade in particular has made great strides within the last few years. The number of such factories has doubled since 1868; and, with one or two exceptions, all the factories then in operation have been enlarged. The demand for labor has consequently increased.

The following notes, in regard to wages in Wolverhampton, are from the author's note-book; those relating to the cost of subsistence and the condition of the working-people will appear in subsequent pages:

July 10, 1872.—Went to Wolverhampton, passing a succession of villages in the Black Country, the town of Dudley off to the left—all engaged in coal-mining or in the production of iron. Saw ruins of the old Warwick Castle, which, with the mines, belong to the Earl of Dud-

ley. The Earl works the mines and makes iron. His income is said to have been £600,000 in 1871, and it is estimated that in the current year (1872) it will reach £1,000,000. Visited large iron-works of Thorney-craft & Co., Wolverhampton. They pay the usual rates for puddling. Laborers in yard wheeling iron, &c., receive 16s. per week. Men who assist in rolling large iron get higher rates, some 4s. 6d., and a few 5s. per day. Women wheeling cinders earn 8s. per week. The firm had declined to employ women for such work, but of late, owing to the scarcity and high wages of men, have been obliged to engage them. The work, though very dirty and unsuitable for women, is not hard.

Coal now costs 13s. to 14s. per ton of 22 cwt. The firm owns mines, but can purchase coal which is mined nearer the works at lower rates

than they can mine it.

A puddler employed in Jenks & Sons' iron and steel works says that his net earnings are only 30s. per week, viz: 4 tons at 11s.—44s.; less paid for helper, 4 tons at 3s. 6d.—14s.; net 30s. He says that he can

lay up little or nothing.

Visited Chubb's lock factory; from 80 to 90 men employed; no machinery used. The locksmiths are highly skilled workmen. Men are engaged on piecework. Average weekly earnings 35s. per week. On consulting the books of the firm it was found that some of the most skilled men received last week 44s. each.

In other shops and factories: In engineering or machinists' shops the average wages is 30s. per week. A tool-maker earns at piecework 50s.,

pays assistant 7s. on the £1—18s. 9d.; net earnings 31s. 3d.

A hoe-maker who had gone to the United States, where he obtained higher wages, but owing to high prices of subsistence and the heat, had returned, has worked for one firm twenty-four years, and never lost time except from sickness. Receives 30s. and has to work all the time to live and support family of five children, none of them old enough to earn anything.

Girls in various branches receive from 7s. to 11s. per week.

античний.

Population in 1871, 239,946.

The enumeration of the various leading articles manufactured in Sheffield would fill many pages, and yet the principal productions can be expressed in two words, steel manufactures. This town was renowned for its knives in the time of Chaucer, and is still the chief seat of the English manufacture of cast, shear, and blister steel of all kinds, steel wire, cutlery and tools of almost every variety, railway and carriage springs and buffers, and many other kinds of steel and iron ware, as well as all classes of silver, silver-plated, electro-plated, German silver, britannia and other white metal goods. Britannia metal and the process of silver-plating were invented here.

The Cutlers' Company, known throughout the kingdom by its anniversary, called the "Cutlers' Feast," had its origin in the sixteenth century in certain trade regulations, wholly opposed to modern ideas, "Agreed upon by the whole fellowship of cutlers." It was incorporated by statute in the reign of James I. The list of trades given in the charter of the company enumerated only "knives, scissors, shears,

sickles, and other cutlery."

An examination of the stock of one establishment, such as that of the Messrs. Rogers, would indicate a considerable increase in the variety as well as the volume of articles manufactured from steel. It would be interesting to trace the progress of the leading industries of Sheffield, and to refer to some historical incidents,* but time and space forbid.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The variety as well as the value of the manufactures of Sheffield, which find a market in the United States, are, to some extent, indicated in the following:

Statement showing the exports from Sheffield to the United States during the years ending December 31, 1872 and 1873.

Articles.	1879.	1873.
Steel		\$2, 975, 973
Bessemer-steel rails	1, 829, 019	1, 803, 658
Fish-plates	12,519	47, 456
Tires	2, 273	1, 593
Axles	19, 213	5, 876
Crank-nine	2 915	2,868
Crank-pins. Wheels and axles with Bessemer-steel tires.	4, 137	, ~~~
Cast-steel tires	165, 446	161, 036
Tire-blooms		192, 565
Springs		13, 458
Axles		
Frog-points, crank-pins, and pinions	3,692	74, 053
Switches, railroad-chairs, &c	2,286	2,208
		2, 559
Cast-steel bells		3, 462
Cast steel rolls		1, 893
Steel tube		3, 438
Gun-castings		3, 658
Iron, iron wire, iron fence, rods, &c	72, 193	41, 290
Telegraph-wire	187	1, 358
Machinery	3,743	4.897
Hardware	2,502	2 849
Anvils		5.613
Cutlery		1, 514, 385
Files	564, 024	563, 498
Saws	24, 024	14, 364
Other tools	111,094	94, 599
Garden tools	111,094	
Garden work		5, 875
Scythes, sickles, and grass-hooks	10, 291	10,003
Sheep-shears		22, 979
Plated goods	4, 876	1, 403
Trays and waiters	3, 496	3,094
Umbrella-ribs	19, 584	17, 439
Hackle and gill pins, steel mills, flyers and doctors or calico web	6, 172	4, 296
Upholsterers' materials, viz., curled hair, cotton-warp seating, &c	56, 118	51, 994
Guns, gun-material, shooting-tackle, &c.	38, 779	27, 348
Measures, measuring tapes and rules	17, 537	15, 997
Optical and mathematical instruments, spectacles, &c	7, 529	7,968
Surgical instruments, bandages, &c	8, 403	4, 195
Salted skins.	956, 685	355, 365
Granite tomb	477	333,340
Grindstones	10, 887	14.093
Miscellaneons	90, 033	19, 570
MANYVANIMIVVUT	au, 0.55	15, 510
/ Total	7, 969, 440	8, 035, 884

^{*}The poet Montgomery lived, was imprisoned, and died in Sheffield. The advocate of political as well as personal liberty, of free speech, and of a "free press," he was rewarded by a long imprisonment. The publication office of his paper "The Iris," (now a small provision shop,) his editorial room, his chair and his desk, as well as the house in which the latter years of the good old man were passed, and where, in 1854, he died, were visited with deep interest and veneration.—E. Y.

BATES OF WAGES IN 1872.

The earnings of workmen in the mechanical trades and in some of the iron and cutlery works of Sheffield, in 1871, are given on previous pages. In addition thereto the following statements are presented:

Table showing the mean wages of mechanics and other laborers per week, in United States gold.

Class of labor.	Wages.	Class of labor.	Wages.
Mechanica:		Engineers' tools—Continued.	
Blacksmiths	\$6 53	Grinders	\$7 69
Carpenters	7 26	Filers	6 53
Masons	7 74	Shoon shoors	
Painters	6 53	Forgers	9 68
Plantarara	7 02	Strikers	6 78
Plasterers Shoemakers	5 32	Grinders	9 80
Roller-makers	6 53	Hammer-makers:	200
Wheel and mill wrights	7 74	Forgers	9 68
Carters	5 08	Strikers	7 26
Clerks in railway-offices	6 05	Razora:	1 20
Slaters, 7d. per hour, 53 hours per	0 03	Forgers	7 26
week	7 26	Grinders	9 44
	1 20	Urinuers	
Slaters' assistant, 5d. per hour, 53	5 32	Hafters	6 78
hours per week	5 32	Girls, assisting, putting up, &c	1 63
Table-cutlery:	- 10	Silver-plated ware:	
Table-blade forgers	7 19	Silversmiths	7 87
Table-blade grinders	6 69	Chasers	7 87
Table-blade hafters	5 34	Engravers	9 68
Table-forks, steel:		Rurnishers Women	3 03
Forgers	6 29	Girls, 12 to 16 years	1 82
Grinders	7 87	Ruffere (Women	. 3 39
Filers, boys and girls	2 05	Burnishers Women Girls, 12 to 16 years Women Women Girls, 12 to 16 years	1 82
Pocket-cutlery:		White-metal ware:	
Pocket-blade forgers	6 69	Spinners	8 83
Grinders	7 26	Putting together	7 02
Hafters	6 05	Casters and stampers	7 50
Saws:		Buffers \{ Men	6 41
Saw-makers	7 02		
Saw-grinders	8 47	Women-casters	2 42
Handlers	6 78	Girls, buffers and cleaners	1 45
Rubbers, women	2 18	Women in warehouse	2 54
Scissors:		Burnishers, women	2 90
Forgers	6 05	Files:	
Grinders	8 83	Forgers	13 31
Filers	6 41	Strikers	9 68
Putting together	6 41	Grinders	12 71
Burnishers, women	1 94	Cutters	7 26
dge-tools:		Steel:	
Forgers	10 16	Melter	12 10
Strikers	7 74	Puller-out	7 02
Hardeners	6 78	Cokers	4 86
Grinders	10 29	Pot-maker	9 63
ingineers' tools:		Converting-furnace men	4 88
Forgers	7 87	TT OT TIME . LUTHING OF THE CO.	- 00

Builders' Association wages in November, 1873.

Carpenters	15 cents per hour.
Stone-masons	16 cents per hour.
Stone-fixers, (trimmings, &c.)	18 cents per hour.
Laborers	10 cents per hour.

The following extracts from the author's note book present some data in regard to wages in Sheffield. Those relating to cost of provisions and rent will be found on subsequent pages.

July 12, 1872.—Visited the extensive steel-works of Messrs. Thomas Firth & Sons, and was courteously shown through every part by Mr. Firth, jr., who explained all the processes and afforded information in regard to wages, &c.

Head-roller works by the cwt. and earns from £3 to £4 per week.

At melting, five men employed at a fire; one receives 40s., two 28s. each, and two 19s. each per week. Hammer men from 30s. to 40s., la-

borers more or less skilled from 19s. to 21s., average, 20s. Small boys from 6s. to 8s., large boys or youths, who assist in rolling, receive up to 15s. and even 16s.

Swedish iron is largely used, especially for tools. For other work and for some of this, there is an admixture of best English iron, selected brands.

July 13.—In company with Dr. Webster, United States consul, was shown through the celebrated cutlery works of Messrs. Rogers & Sons.

Grinders receive about 60s. per week, but having to find stones and tools, they net about 45s. per week. Owing to precautions taken, this work is not so destructive to health as formerly.

Average earnings of the men engaged in the various kinds of work

range from 28s. to 30s., some earn 35s.

In some branches, such as forging pocket-knife blades, two men work together, and at piecework each can earn 7s. 6d. per day, but as the work is hard, they are unable to labor all the week, averaging only four days, and earning but 30s.

In Laycock's hair-cloth factory the girls who weave hair-cloth earn 8s.

per week

Some men who do work for large establishments by contract, pay men from 28s. to 30s. and earn from £5 to £6 per week; but these are really contractors or small manufacturers, and must not be classed with men who work at fixed rates.

Laborers in Sheffield earn from 18s. to 19s.

Carters, drivers of teams carrying steel and hardware to railway-stations, or driving for manufacturers, get from 20s. to 22s.

PROSPECTIVE DECLINE IN WAGES.

It has been seen from statements presented on preceding pages that there has been a considerable reduction in wages in the iron and coalmining industries from the maximum rates of 1872, but a movement has been made looking to a reduction in iron-founderies, engineering-shops, and other branches, or, in other words, an increase in the hours of labor. A return to the old system of ten hours per day is proposed. The following extract from an article in the London Times of December 21, 1874, more fully explains the proposed change:

A very important step is being taken by the directors of the Atlas Works, John Brown & Co., one of the largest manufacturing concerns in Sheffield. A few weeks since they discharged a large number of their workmen, and reduced the wages of others by 12½ per cent. They are now about to make a change more important than any yet carried out. A notice has been posted in the works announcing that from the 4th of January the wages of the engine-tenters, the hammer-drivers, and the boiler-firemen will be reduced 10 per cent., and those of the laborers in the engineer's, buffer, foundery, and planing departments will be reduced by a similar amount. The time of the laborers in the steel, spring, forge, rail, and tire mills and hammer-shops will be altered to fifty-nine hours instead of fifty-four as at present. The object of the notice clearly is to endeavor to bring about a return to the old system of working ten hours a day. In departments where this cannot be done the wages of the men are to be reduced 10 per cent. Thus, in the engineer's, buffer, foundery, and planing departments the skilled workmen are under the fifty-four-hour system. While this continues it is obviously useless to keep the laborers employed fifty-nine hours, and consequently the wages of the whole of them in these departments are to be reduced 10 per cent., which is considered equivalent to the difference between fifty-four and fifty-nine hours. But in the steel, spring, forge, hammer shops, and mills it is possible to increase the working hours of the laborers to fifty-nine, because the skilled artisans work night and day turns. In all these departments, therefore, so far as the laborers are concerned, the fifty-nine-hours system is to be introduced. The proposed change is one which will strike a severe blow at the nine-hour movement, but in the present condition of trade it is not likely the men will offer any very serious opposition to it. To the introduce-

tion of that movement the directors, John Brown & Co., attribute very much of the present depression in the Bessemer steel, railway, and other heavy departments. It is said that the loss of four working hours per week has resulted in an increase in the cost of productions of fully 10 per cent. This fact, coupled with the keenness of continental competition, makes it almost impossible for Sheffield makers of railway and other heavy-class goods to successfully compete with Belgian houses, for wages in Belgiam are not so high as they are in England, and the men work ten hours a day. There is no doubt that the example set by John Brown & Co. will be followed by all the other large works at Sheffield, and that ultimately the skilled workman, the engineers among the number, will be asked to return to the fifty-nine-hour system. An attempt in this direction on a small scale has already been made at two works and with a successful result.

NOTTINGHAM.

Population in 1871, 86,621.

The invention of the stocking-frame in the year 1589 gave rise to one of the most interesting chapters in the history of mechanical and manufacturing industry. It was upon this machine that, about a century ago, a coarse imitation of cotton-lace was first produced. The fabric was all woven from one continuous thread. A beautiful adaptation of the machinery enabled a fine silk net (point lace) to be made, employing for many years 1,500 frames in Nottingham and its vicinity. fabrication has long since died out. Then the machine was so arranged that the material should be used altogether as warp. This very ingenious machine is still usefully and extensively employed. working-frame smith in Nottingham invented and patented the bobbinetmachine. A woman making lace on a pillow may produce three to five meshes or interstices in a minute. The first machine produced 1,000 meshes per minute. A square yard of the produce was sold for \$25. This machine, as originally constructed, though displaying great mechanical skill, was a complicated one. During the time that has since elapsed, incessant and remarkable ingenuity has been shown in simplifying and improving the machine, and plain net, of like quality to that first made, is now sold currently at 12 cents the square yard. A man turns off with ease 40,000 meshes per minute from this "mechanical pillow," as the bobbinet-machine was originally called by its talented inventor. The Jacquard apparatus has been since applied, at great cost, but with perfect success.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The annual exportation of lace, hosiery, and other Nottingham goods are exhibited by the following statement, showing the exports from Nottingham to the United States during the years ending December 31, 1872 and 1873, the value being computed in United States gold:

Goods.	1872.	1873.	Goods.	1872.	1873.
Lace Hosiery Cottons Linens Quilts White goods Hundkerchiefs Musline Elastice Velvets Crape Silk	47, 460 96, 569 3, 751 208, 935 21, 703 125, 324 66, 376 68, 577 555	\$3, 389, 687 1, 033, 058 60, 205 33, 084 1, 136 61, 945 4, 767 49, 154 57, 699 69, 202 27, 154 1, 903	Ribbons Artificial flowers Straw plait Woolen goods Umbrellas Salted skins Plaster and cement Earthenware Machinery and iron goods Miscellaneous Total	\$1, 389 9, 655 2, 329 2, 505 301, 977	\$16, 386 796 169 330, 891 15, 283 3, 426 20, 135 9, 049

Nottingham, although not visited in the order indicated, is noticed in this place, because it lies within the consular district of Sheffield.

The following data from the author's note-book relate only to wages. Information in regard to the rent of rooms, prices of provisions, and condition of the work-people will appear further on.

July 20, 1872.—Visited a number of lace-factories. In that of Mr.

Thomas Hill the following wages are paid:

Earnings of men, piecework, average, Mr. Hill states, 28s. or over per week. His son thinks the average nearer 30s., and handed me the weekly pay-roll. The first twelve averaged exactly 30s., but those lower down received less. The average is between 28s. and 29s. Some men receive as high as 40s., while others, such as old men, earn as low as 10s. Those who average 28s. are the first class. The second class earn from 20s. to 22s. There is a wide difference between the efficiency of the first and second classes, owing partly to difference in machinery, the latter using old-fashioned hand-looms, the former the most improved machinery.

The average earnings of the young women is 9s. 6d. per week. A few earn from 11s. to 13s. per week, but they usually overlook a few others. Small girls—known as "half-timers," because they are required by act of Parliament to attend school half the time—receive from 2s. 6d. to

3s. per week for such labor as they can perform.

The wages of work-people, with best class of lace-machinery, on lace-curtains, black-silk laces, &c., average from 35s. to 40s. per week of fifty-four hours for men, as given by Messrs. J. S. Wells & Co., lace-curtain

manufacturers, and 40s., as stated by Mr. Hill.

In explanation of the high rates, Mr. Hill stated that the work commanded higher prices because it is injurious to the eye sight, few men over fifty five, or at furthest sixty, being able to work at it. Women employed in the same branch earn on an average 10s. 6d. per week. Good fitters engaged in these factories earn 40s. per week. Some men on machines making black-silk lace earn from £3 to £4 per week, but this is exceptional. The high wages obtained is explained by the fact that the work consists of some new pattern or style, which is at the moment fashionable and in great demand, but will probably soon go out of fashion and the demand consequently cease. Did not visit the works of Mr. Mundella, M. P., whom I saw in London.

Hosiery factory of Messrs. A. T. Stewart & Co., of New York.—The earnings in this factory are indicated by the following extract from a letter from Mr. T. G. Carver, agent in Nottingham, to the firm in Manchester, in reply to an inquiry addressed to him concerning the average earnings of the various hands employed in the factory there. The original was shown, and a copy handed me by Mr. Fox, resident

partner at Manchester:

In reply to your question as to the earnings of our various hands for the last three months, I have to report as follows: Rotary half-hose hands, £2 4s. 5d. per week; shirt-body hands, girls mostly, £1 9s. per week; rib-top hands, £2 1s.; average earnings on Paget's patent frames, all girls, 16s. 6d.*

MANCHESTER.

Population in 1871, 383,843; Salford, 124,805-508,648.

This ancient town, the site of a fort built by the Celts, was named Mancenion, or "the place of tents." It was taken possession of about the year 72 by the Romans, who continued masters of it until their final departure from the island, some three centuries afterward. It fell into the hands of the Pictish invaders and was occupied successively by the Saxons, the Danes, (about 870,) and long afterward by the Norman Conqueror, by whom it was assigned to William of Poicton, who

^{*} It is not pretended that the above are the regular or usual earnings of operatives in other factories in Nottingham, or elsewhere in England. In reply to my inquiries of Mr. Fox, in Manchester, and of Mr. Stewart, subsequently, in New York, it was stated that the men and women who earn such high wages are most superior in skill and industry.—E. Y.



became the Lord of the Manor. It is not celebrated, however, for its historical associations, but from the fact that it ranks as the first manufacturing town in the empire, while in population it is only surpassed

by London and Liverpool.

Manchester has been a place of trade from a very early period. In the reign of Henry VIII a law was enacted to remove the right of sanctuary from Manchester to Chester, on the ground that it caused the resort hither of idle and dissolute persons, to the injury of trade, both in linens and woolens, for which the place was distinguished, and which gave employment to many artificers and poor folks, whose masters, by their strict and true dealing, caused the resort of many strangers from Ireland and elsewhere with linen, yarn, wool, and other necessary wares for the making of cloth to be sold there. The disturbances in France and the Netherlands had tended not a little to the growth of manufactures in the town, by causing the settlement of French and Flemish artisans in Lancashire. Early in the last century, it was mentioned as a remarkable fact that in Manchester and Bolton alone goods to the amount of £600,000 were annually manufactured.

Manchester is the center of a great system of canals, and has railway communication with nearly all parts of England. The name of the town has from a very remote period been connected with industry and trade; but its present great importance is specially due to the magnitude of its cotton manufactures, the greatest in the world. It is mentioned as having maintained a trade with the Greeks of Marseilles. In 1552 an act was passed for the better manufacture of Manchester cottons; and in 1650 its manufactures ranked among the first in extent and importance, and its people were described as "the most industrious

in the northern part of the kingdom." Connected with the cotton manufacture are many important and extensive branches of industry, such as bleaching, printing, and dyeing works, manufactures of the various materials employed in those processes, and particularly the great establishments for the construction of steam-engines and machinery. Among these the Atlas Works and those of Sir Joseph Whitworth are the most prominent, while the extensive works in Oldham and Manchester for the production of cottonmachinery are well known in other countries. It is also the chief market in the world for the production of cotton yarn or thread, the supply of which passes through the hands of numerous resident foreign merchants, who export it to their respective countries, giving to Manchester in this respect a character quite unique among inland cities. The manufacture of silk and silk goods and of mixed cotton and silk fabrics is also largely carried on.

As Manchester is the seat of the cotton-trade of Great Britain, it may not be inappropriate to present here some data in regard to the

extent of that vast industry:

In 1871 there were in Great Britain 2,484 mills for its manufacture, 38,218,758 spinning-spindles, including 3,523,573 doubling-spindles, 440,676 power-looms, employing in all 449,087 persons. The cost of the buildings and machinery about the trade is said to have amounted to £57,000,000, (\$277,390,500,) with a floating capital of £30,000,000, (\$145,995,000;) and there were 4,500,000 persons, in all its branches, dependent upon its prosperity for their livelihood. The total quantity of yarn exported in 1872 was 211,900,000 pounds weight, of the value of \$81,270,550; and the total quantity of calicos, cambrics, fustians, &c., was 3,535,100,000 yards, worth \$286,636,850. Besides these there were \$21,899,250 worth of lace and small wares, raising the local value to \$389,806,650. Such is the perfection, too, to which cotton-spinning

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is carried, that on a self-acting mule a single thread has been produced measuring upward of one thousand miles in length and only weighing

one pound.

To illustrate the great decline in the prices of cotton goods, owing to the introduction of improved machinery and the reduced price of raw material, the fact may be stated that a kind of calico which sold toward the close of the last century at 6s. a yard can be produced now at 6d. The average price per yard of goods exported in 1815 was 34½ cents; in 1825, 20% cents; in 1835, 13 cents; in 1845, 6½ cents; in 1859, 6½ cents; and in 1871, 6% cents. The average price of yarn exported, per pound, in 1815 was 3s. 7%d. In 1871 it was 13½d.

In this connection it may be interesting to present a statement of the number of spindles and amount of cotton yarn produced in Great Britain as compared with other cotton-consuming countries at the close of

the vear 1873.

Table showing the number of spindles and cotton consumed per spindle in the under-mentioned countries, with the pounds of cotton consumed per spindle and the total annual consumption, supposing the mills to be running full time.

Countries.	Number of spindles.	Pounds per spindle.	Pounds spun annually.
Great Britain, (1871). United States, (1874). France Zollverein Russia Austria Spain Alsace and Lorraine Switzerland Belgium Italy Swellen and Norway Holland	*9, 415, 383 5, 200, 000 3, 000, 000 2, 000, 000 1, 900, 000 1, 400, 000 2, 000, 000 500, 000	32 57 38 47 60 47 48 38 25 43 48 60 43	1, 923, 000, 000 538, 082, 000 197, 600, 000 121, 000, 000 130, 000, 000 67, 900, 000 64, 600, 000 50, 000, 000 34, 400, 000 18, 000, 000 9, 890, 000

^{*} Furnished by B. F. Nourse, esq., of Boston.

WAGES IN COTTON-MILLS.

The reduction in the hours of labor and the increase of wages in cotton-mills are shown in the following table:

Occupation.	Sex.	Week of 69 hours.				Week of 60 hours.			
occupation.	502.	1839).	184	19.	18	59.	187	73.
Steam-engine tendera		\$5 °	76		72 80		20 28		68
Carding:	Women and girls Young men	2	58 54 00	1 2 6		1 3 6	92 36 72	4	88 56 68
Spinning: Winders on solf-acting mules Piecers Overlookers	Women and young mon.		34		32 16 28	8	80 40 94	63	00 84 90
Recling: / Throttle-rulers Warpers.	Women	2 :	16	2 5	28 28	9 5	26 53 60	3	00
A Sizors. Doubling: - Doublers Overlookers.	Women	1 (12 18 16		52 80 00	8	16 72	3 7	

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Other branches show the same ratio of advances

The following statement was furnished by the proprietors of the cotton-mills of Messrs. Shaw, Jardin & Co., of Manchester, England, operating 250,000 spindles, and producing yarns from No. 60 to 220, sewing-cottons, lace-yarn, crape-yarn, and two-fold warp-yarns:

Average wages (per week of 59 hours) of persons employed in 1872.

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Carding: Overseer Second hand Drawing-frame tenders Speeder-tenders Grinders Strippers Spinning: Overseer	\$10 89 7 26 9 66 3 14 5 32 5 33 14 52	Spinning—Continued. Mule-spinners Mule-backaide piecers Repair-shop, engine-room, &c.: Foreman or overseer. Wood and iron workers Engineer Laborers.	9 49 to 3 87 14 52 7 74

Wages per week (59 hours) in cotton-mills in July, 1872.

_ 0	ecupation.	Sex.	Wages.	Remarks.
Spinners	{ Fine	Mendo	\$9 60 8 16	Very few in Manchester; nearly all
Cyphers		do	3 60	self acting. A cypher is a kind of piecer, &c., on a hand-mule machine; he helps the spinner.
Piecers, on s	self-setors {	do	3 60 2 40	
Piecers	Fine	Boys Girls Boys		
Overlooker .	(Coarse	Girls Man Boys	8 40	In a fine mill.
Scavengers	Coarse Fine	Girls	1 44 1 19 96 60	
Weaving:	Half time	Girls under 13 yrs.	60	30-3-4
Weaver	 }	Men	4 80	Minds two sail-cloth looms or four calico-looms.
Winders Rulera .		Womendodo	4 08 3 24 3 12	Minds three calico-looms. Taking all sorts together.
Minders	{ Fine	Mendo	8 64 6 79	
Doublers	(Womendo	3 00 2 88	

Average weekly wages (54 hours per week) in engineering-works, in July, 1872.

Trade.	Wages.	Remarks.
Boiler-makers Riveters Molders Pattern-makers Pitters Turners Machine-men—minders of slot- ting, drilling, and planing ma- chines Racksmiths Strikers Laborers	\$9 20 8 23 8 23 8 23 7 02 7 02 5 39 7 09 4 84 4 36	OVERTIME.—For the first four hours past the usual time each hour worked counts as 14 hours, and for each succeeding hour it is reckoned as 14 hours. No bonus or overtime is allowed, unless the full week of 54 hours is worked. This note applies to all the trades mentioned on this list. NOTE.—The rates of wages given in this table are those paid by one of the largest engineering firms in Manchester. At present, in consequence of the special activity in this branch of business, the wages paid are higher than the trades-union rates.

Weekly wages (541 hours per week) in building-trades in July, 1872.

Trade.	Wages.	Remarks.
Plasterers Painters Plumbers Carpenters and joiners Bricklayers Bricklayers' laborers Masons Slaters	\$7 98 14* 7 98 7 98 8 71 5 56 5 581 7 98 7 96	The plasterers are threatening to strike for fewer hours. Painters are paid by the hour, and in some amall shops work 50% hours per week. Bricklayers, bricklayers' laborers, masons, plasterers, and slaters work only from light to dark from the latter end of October to the beginning of March, and, except in the case of masons, receive 12 cents a day less.

^{*} Per hour.

Weekly wages in miscellaneous trades.

Trade.	Wages.	Hours per week.	Trade.	Wages.	Hours per week.
Engine-drivers, &c. : Drivers Stokers Cleaners	\$8 47 to \$10 89 5 08 to 6 78 1 45 to 3 67	60 60 54	Binding: Folders and stitchers Binders Finishers.	\$3 39 7 09 8 71	55 55 38
Printing: Compositors Compositors on newspapers Machine-men Machine-men on newsp'ers	8 23 7 98	55 53 55 53	Baking: Foreman Second hand Third hand.	7 09 6 78 5 81	60 60

The foregoing tables furnish accurate data in regard to the rates of wages paid in various shops and factories in Manchester and vicinity in 1872. The investigations of the author made in this seat of the cotton industry related chiefly to the condition of the work-people, their habits, mode of life, and condition of their homes, and also to the cost of subsistence, the success of the co-operative stores, and their influence upon the members.

The wages paid in several well-known establishments were as follows: In the works of Sir Joseph Whitworth & Co., where heavy and light machinery and machine-tools and steel-guns are made, the weekly wages of ordinary workmen range from 30s. to 32s., probably averaging, as in other manufacturing towns, 30s. Some of greater skill obtain higher rates, while inferior workmen receive less. Laborers in the works receive from 18s. to 20s.

Sir Joseph Whitworth is favorably known to American engineers, and his report in regard to various industrial establishments of the United States was a fair exhibit of such as he visited. An account of the aid which he offers to young men who have an inclination toward mechanical pursuits will appear on a subsequent page.

The works of Messrs. W. Higgins & Sons, manufacturers of cotton machinery, though not so large as that of Mr. Platt, at Oldham, is well known in the United States.* About 800 hands are employed.

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[&]quot;In this and other machine-shops, and in engineering works in various parts of Europe, one who, though an inexpert, has visited such first-class works as those of Sellers & Co. and others in Philadelphia, of Corliss in Providence, and, indeed, in all our chief cities, especially the locomotive-engine works in Philadelphia, Paterson, Taunton, &c., is struck by the inferiority of the tools and machinery as compared with those of the United States, which are of the best class. There are exceptions, such as the Atlas Works, in Manchester. In iron-ship yards, however, such as that of Messrs. J. Elder & Co., and others, on the Clyde, the Tyne, the Mersey, and the Thames, although all are not of equal excellence, yet the larger number are thoroughly equipped with the best and most improved tools and machines.

Machinists earn about 30s. on an average; boys from 6s. 8s.; laborers, 18s. Some men work by the piece, and earn more than 30s. They can earn 40s. per week if they work full time, which many here, as elsewhere, do not. "Blue Mondays," though less known than in some other industries and in other towns, are not unknown here.

Mr. Dodge, formerly of Cohoes, N. Y., who now makes files near Manchester, gives the following as the average rates of wages in machine-

shone:

Turners and fitters, from 30s. to 32s.; planers, from 28s. to 30s.; shapers, also drillers, or those running drilling-machines, from 26s. to 28s.; laborers, from 16s. to 20s. Indeed, in machine-shops throughout the manufacturing towns of England, the average rate of wages for

skilled hands is 30s., and of laborers 18s. per week.

Rochdale is another of the cotton-manufacturing towns in Lancashire, and the wages of operatives in cotton-mills and in machine-shops are substantially the same as in Manchester. The earnings of young women were stated to be 12s. per week, while some of greater experience and skill receive from 13s. to 14s. Half-timers, whose weekly wages were only 2s. 6d., now receive 4s. 6d., and some as high as 5s.; turners in machine-shops 28s., and some higher.

SEAT OF WOOLEN MANUFACTURES.

As Lancashire is the chief seat of the cotton industry, so almost the whole of the woolen trade is confined to the West Riding of Yorkshire. Leeds is the principal center and emporium of the woolen manufacture, and on its semi-weekly market days its celebrated Cloth Hall* is crowded with manufacturers and merchants, where the various kinds of woolen cloths, long celebrated for their ex-

cellence, change hands.

Huddersfield is also largely engaged in manufacturing trouserings, waistcoatings, and fancy goods; while Dewsbury, Heckmondwicke, and the surrounding neighborhood make great quantities of carpets, blankets, and coarse cloths. Even more important is the worsted manufacture, which, like that of woolen, has its chief seat in the West Riding, viz, at Bradford. The neighboring towns of Halifax, Keighley, Bingley, Otley, and the surrounding villages are also engaged in it as their staple business.

The number of hands employed in these textile industries in 1871 was as follows: Woolen cloth, 71,683 males, 56,781 females—total, 128,464; worsted manufactures, 34,053 males, 60,713 females—total,

94,766.

LEEDS.

Population in 1871, 259,212.

Its site was probably at one time a Roman station. It was subsequently occupied by the Northmen, and in succession by the Saxons and Normans. The name Loidis (Leeds) is Saxon. As a manufacturing town it dates back only to the sixteenth century. There are many handsome public buildings, an excellent library, founded by Dr. Priestly in 1768, and library and museum of the Literary and Philosophical Society, and a Mechanics' Institute, with 2,000 members and 8,000 volumes.

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^{*}Among the rules which govern the trade are the following: 37 inches are allowed to the yard; and, in addition, about one-half yard in pieces under 40 yards, and a yard to pieces over 40 yards in length. Sales are made at three months, and 4d. in the pound deducted for cash payments.

The flax manufacture consumes annually 12,000 tons of flax. Dyeing, coal-mining, iron and machine making, the manufacture of paper, tobacco, pottery, oil and chemicals, form also important branches of

industry.

. Nearly one-fourth of the whole population, half of whom are females, are employed in the various manufactories. No other town in England is so admirably situated for trade, being placed in the heart of the inland navigation of the country. It is also the center of a net-work of railroads converging to it from all parts of the country, and placing it in connection with every important town of the kingdom.

WAGES IN WOOLEN-MILLS.

The following statement showing the rates of wages paid the employés in the Saint Helen's Mills, Leeds, was furnished by the proprietors, Messrs. John Wilkinson, Son & Co., October 9, 1872:

[Hands employed, 443; hours of labor per week, 58½.]

Occupation.	Men.	Women.	Boys.
Blook-cutters Color-mixers Fullers Willey-men Weavers, tapestry Weavers, tapestry Washers Overlookers Hardener-machine-men Firemen Card-fillers Sewers Spinners Tentering-machines Perpetual cutting-machines	3 90 per week. 5 64 per week. 4 44 per week. 3 76 per yard. 3 28 per week. 3 59 per week. 4 69 per week. 5 76 per week.	\$3 28 per yard. 2 64 per week. 2 04 per week. 1 44 to \$2 16 per week.	

WOOLEN MANUFACTURERS.

Occupation.	Per week.	Occupation.	Per week.
Overlookers Spinners Turners Woolliers Fillers	7 74 7 74 5 80	Weavers Burlers Cloth-millers Engine-men Warp-dressers	\$3 63 2 66 9 20 8 47 6 29

Statement showing the prices paid for labor in the various trades in the Leeds consular district, September, 1872.

[Hours of labor per week, 54.]

Trades.	Per week.	Trades.	Per week.
CLOTH-DYERS.		FINE-LEATHER FINISHERS—Continued.	
Blue-dyers		Kid-calf grounders	\$10 16 9 88
Date Cycle	101	Finishers	7 40
CLOTH-FINISHERS.			
Giggers	7 26	LINEN THREAD.	
Giggers, boys		Skilled men, mechanics, joiners, &c.	\$5 80 to 6 78
Hand-raisors.	7 02	Overlookers	5 08 to 6 05
Overlookers	19 10	Head overlookers	Up to 9 68
Cutters		Laborers, (unskilled)	3 87 to 4 36
Cutters, boys	1 57	Women, and girls over 15 years of age Half-timers, under 13 years, (for a week of 29 hours). Reelers and winders, (paid by piece).	1 41 to 2 54
Steamers	8 47 7 26	Half-timers, under 13 years, (for a	48
Tenterers .		Reelers and winders (noid by niese)	1 69 to 2 90
Pressers	\ \alpha \	Weavers, (paid by piece)	2 18 to 3 63
Drawers		······································	
Numberers	2 90	MACHINERY.	
Handle setters	(t)		
Engine-men	``` 8 47	Boys, (according to age)	1 21 to 2 90
Burlers	1 94	Laborers Strikers	4 36 4 60
TANKERS AND CURRIERS.		Smiths	6 53 to 6 77
		Planers	5 56
Skilled tanners	7 26	Turners and fisters, (ordinary me-	
Unskilled	87 02 to 6 77	chanics)	6 53 to 6 77
Skilled curriers	7 26 to 8 95	Best mechanics	9 68
Unskilled assistants	4 36 to 7 26	Foremen	12 10
LADOTETS for Doth trades	4 30 10 5 33	Model-makers, (joiners)	7 09
FIRE-LEATHER FINISHERS.		BOOTS AND SHOES.	
Pellmongers	5 94	Critters	4 36 to 6 05
Fleshers	8 32	Fitters	4 36 to 6 05
Purers	8 78	Machinists	194 to 290
Chamois grounders	8 76	Overlookers	7 26 to 9 66

^{*8}d. per end up to 40 yards.

†7d. per end up to 40 yards.

11d. per rod.

March's machine works—(manufacturers of flax-machinery.)—Mr.George March, jr., stated that wages had advanced about 16 per cent. The rates now paid for fifty-four hours' work are as follows: molders, 34s.; riveters, turners, best men, 34s.; machinists, ordinary to good, 30s. to 32s.; machinists, inferior, 26s. to 28s.; laborers in works, 18s. to 20s., formerly 16s. to 18s.

Woolen Factories.—Yewdell & Sons make woolens of a common quality. They state that weavers, experienced women, earn at piecework

18s. per week, some few as high as 20s. Men earn more.

Younger girls work by the day and earn 9s. to 10s. per week, as doff-

ers, &c. Small girls, half-timers, from 3s. 6d. to 4s. 6d.

Planing mills.—Men working in yard, loading flooring and other finished lumber, driving team, &c., 19s. to 22s.

BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.

At a conference of the Leeds boot and shoe manufacturers and their workmen, held April 26, 1872, the following rates of wages were agreed upon, the scale of prices to be clear of all rivets, sprigs, &c.:

Wages in the boot and shoe trade at Leeds.

Trayes in the oost that shoe trade as Lectes.	,		
		Per doze	n.
Class of work.	Rivet.	Finish- ing.	Paired.
MEN'S LIGHT WORK.			
Best kid, calf, and seal levant. Kip and grus levant Spil tor fleahers Common lace-kip, brown bottom Common lace-flesh boot, plain brown bottom Men's shooting-boots, wide welt Cricket boots and ahoes	1 94 1 89 1 89 1 70 3 16 3 98	\$2 66 \$ 42 \$ 30 1 94 1 83 3 87 3 40	\$2 18 1 94 1 53 1 46 1 33 3 39 2 90
Best kid, calf, and seal levant Kip, split, gnus, and grained levant. Common lace kip and flesh boot, plain brown bottom		1 82 1 70 1 46	1 46 1 33 1 21
Elect kid, calf, and seal levant. Kip, split, gnus, and grained levant. Common lace kip and fleah boot, plain brown bottom Sevens to tens:	1 46 1 33 1 21	1 58 1 46 1 21	1 33 1 91 96
Best kid, calf, and seal levant Kip, split, gnus, and grained levant Common lace kip and flesh boot, plain brown bottom	1 08 96 84	1 33 1 21 96	1 14 1 02 78
men's strong work.		ļ	
Stubbed heels and mock clinkers	2 66 2 49 1 89 1 58	1 70 1 70 1 70 1 33 1 08 84	1 91 1 91 1 91 1 06 84 66
Patents	24	24	1
Machine-sewn Bevel edge Red welt Best inside-bevel clump Best outside-bevel clump Seconds and thirds inside-bevel clump Seconds and thirds outside-bevel clump Firsts, seconds, and thirds square clump. (All clumps to be jumped in the waist) One row of rivets or sprigs extra* Screwed toe and joint in clumps. Three rows of rivets or sprigs in middle. Common laced kip and flesh boot, black waist Nailed boot, with black waist Wellingtons. Twos to fives: Patents Machine-sewn Fiddle-waist Bevel edge Red welt Best and common inside bevel clump. Outside-bevel clumps. Firsts, seconds and thirds square clumps Screwed toe and joint in clumps One row of rivets or sprigs extra* Three rows of rivets or sprigs in middle. Compon lace kip and flesh boot, with black waist Nailed boot, with black waist Elevens to ones and sevens to tens: Patent Fiddle-waist	94 72 94 73 94 48 13 18 18 19 48 12 36 12 12	19 94 94 19 18 18 18 19 48 19 18 19 19 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	
Fiddle-waist. Machine-sown. Best and common bevel clumps. One row of rivets or sprigs extra* Three rows of rivets or sprigs in middle. Common lace kip and flesh boot, with black waist. Nailed boot, with black waist.	19 19 19 19	12 12 36 6 6 6	
MEN'S SLIPPER WORK.			
Common pumps, white bottoms	84 84 79 79	96 84 84 72	•

^{*} No extra for finishing one extra row on common brown bottoms.

WAGES IN ENGLAND.

Wages in the boot and shoe trade at Leeds-Continued.

	1	Per doze	n.
Class of work.	Rivet.	Finish- ing.	Paired.
WOMEN'S WORK.			
1. Best kid and seal levant, either plain, fancy, blocked, turned in or not 2. Kid and gnus levant, either plain or blocks, not turned in 3. Kid, sand-boots, and block-grained 3. Calf and grained bals 4. Calf, iron rivets or sprigs. 5. Common calf or sheep, iron rivets or sprigs, flat heels, (not higher than 2 inch)	\$1 27 1 15 96 96 84 84	\$1 45 1 33 1 21 1 09 1 09 96	\$1 21 1 09 96 84 84 72
Elevens to once: 1. Best kid and seal levant, either plain, fancy, blocked, turned in or not 2. Kid, gnus, levant, sand-boots, and calf	84 72 66	1 09 96 84	90 78 66
1. Best kid and seal levant, either plain, fancy, blocked, turned in or not. 2. Kid, gnus, levant, sand-boots, and calf	72 66 60	96 84 72	78 66 54
1. Best kid and levant	60 54	73 66	6C 54
EXTRAS ON WOMEN'S WORK.			1
Firsts, seconds, and thirds outside-bevel clump Firsts, seconds, and thirds inside-bevel clump Firsts, seconds, and thirds square clump Firsts and seconds machine-sewn. Thirds machine-sewn. Whitemburg heel. Fiddle-waist Channels. White foreparts Back waist and brown foreparts Brown waist and black foreparts All patent One row of rivets or sprige extra* One row of sprige or rivets round forepart and three in middle Women's high-legged boots, 7 inches Elevens to ones and sevens to tens: Machine-sewn, sevens to tens Machine-sewn, sevens to tens	24 24 24 12 48 	24 24 12 48 24 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 6	
Piddle waist White foreparts Riack waist and brown forepart. Brown waist and black forepart. Channels Firsts and seconds bevel clump One row of rivets or sprigs extra* One row of rivets or sprigs round the forepart and three up middle.	12	12 6	
Fours to sixes: Machine-sewn Fiddle-waist. White foreparts. Black waist and brown foreparts. Brown waist and black foreparts. Girls' high-legged boots, all sizes. Copper the gla sizes.	6	6 12 12	
WOMEN'S SLIPPER WORK.			
Pumps, white and black bottoms Pumps, brown bottoms Women's cashmere pumps, with top-piece or spring-heels	60 60 72	84 72 84	72

^{*} No extra for finishing one extra row on common brown bottoms.

HUDDERSFIELD.

Extensively engaged in the woolen manufacture, Huddersfield is celebrated for its production of shawls, flushings, &c. It possesses extensive canal and railway communication and a plentiful supply of water and coal. The number of operatives in the manufacture of woolens in 1871 was 17,297, of whom 11,292 were males and 6,005 females.

The variety and extent of the exports to the United States are indi-

cated by the following—

Statement showing the exports from Huddersfield to the United States during the year ending June 30, 1873.

Description.	U. S. gold.	Description.	U. S. gold.
Woolen goods. Wool and worsted goods. Worsted goods. Worsted and silk goods Worsted and cotton. Wool and silk Wool, silk, and worsted. Wool, cotton, and silk Worsted, cotton, and silk. Worsted, cotton, and silk. Mohair and cotton	82, 328 43, 517 3, 551 9, 182 38, 815 21, 381 2, 219 4, 304 8, 697	Cotton and wool Cotton and silk Sewing cottons Fustians Flocks Linen Linen and cotton Calf-hair Chemicals and colors Machinery All others	1, 203 149, 48 3, 634 64, 163 31, 45- 4, 263 927, 503 46, 229 3, 719
Mohair and wool	4, 497	Total	3, 049, 37

WAGES IN WOOLEN-MILLS.

Wages paid in a large manufactory at Huddersfield doing business with the United States.

Occupation.	Sex.	U. S. gold.
	Men	
Dyers	do	
	do	
Feeders		
	Men	
Spinners		
Warpers		
Beamers		2 18 to 2
Sizers		4 84 to 19
Timers		4 84 to 19
***	(do/	5 80 to 9
Weavers	Women	
Menders	do	
Knotters		9 18 to 9
Burlers		
Scourers		
Fullers or millers.	do	
Tantareta		
	(de	
Finishers		
	[DOJG	
warenousemen	do	4 84 to 7
	do	580 to 9
Firemen	do	5

WAGES OF MECHANICS AND FARM LABORERS.

Racies of wages paid for mechanical and farm labor in the year 1874. [Hours of labor vary from 50 to 524 per week.]

Occupation.	Per	w	ee k		Occupation.	Per week.		•	
MECHANICS.					MECHANICS—Continued.				
Blacksmiths	\$4 80	to			Tanners			\$ 5	76
Bricklayers and masons	1			68	Tinemithe				90
Cabinet makers	4 80	to	7	20	Wheelwrights	\$6 20	to	G	73
Carpenters			6	48					
Coopers		to	7	20	FARM-LABORERS.				
Miners	İ		8	64	4				
Machinists	l		4	80	Experienced hands			†1	9
Painters	*11	to		14	Ordinary hands	136	to		7
Shoemakers	7 90	to	8	40	Common laborers at other than				
Stone-cutters			7	20	farm-work	160	to		94
Tailors	7 20	to	9	12	Female servants	172	to	1	3:

^{*} Per hour.

Per day.

BRADFORD.

Population in 1871, 145,830.

Bradford, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, is, as was previously stated, the seat of the British worsted trade, and exports largely to the United States. In the years 1872 and 1873, the value of principal merchandise exported from the Bradford consular district to the United States was as follows:

Statement showing the exports to the United States from the consular district of Bradford, during the respective years ended September 30, 1873 and 1872.

Articles.	1873.	1872.	Articles.	1873.	1872.
Worsted goods	. 1, 620, 304 926, 362 167, 590 124, 514 66, 558	1, 911, 470	Yarns Shawls Mate and rugs Velvet Damasks Miscellaneous	446 1, 291 1, 573	\$16, 562 5, 297 562 1, 077 68, 306
Flocks	. 12, 511	8, 544	Total	15, 900, 266	17, 940, 40

In addition to the above the value of Bradford goods, invoices of which are certified at Manchester, amounts to about a million dollars, making an aggregate importation into the United States, in 1872, chiefly of worsted goods, from Bradford and vicinity, of about \$19,000,000 in specie, at prime cost. When the freights and other charges, insurance, and duty (of about 60 per cent.) were added, the total currency value of these goods when landed in New York must have approximated \$36,000,000.

In this connection the following extracts from a pamphlet on "Bradford and the Worsted Manufacture," by Mr. George Taylor, will prove interesting:

The whole area of the West Riding worsted manufacture may be included in a triangle, of which the base is a line drawn from Halifax to Otley, and Skipton the apex, containing about 200 square miles. In 1861, the population of this district was 358,698; in 1871, it was 453,047. The term "worsted" is generally said to be taken from a small town in Norfolk, where the manufacture at one time was chiefly conducted. The rapid growth in Bradford and the district which it embraces, of the trade indicated by the word "worsted" has been remarkable, and indeed almost unprecedented. Wool had long been spun by hand in private houses, but it was not till the end of the last century that spinning by steam-power was established in Bradford. The first steam-factory in the town, which was built in the year 1800, had grown, in the year 1871, into 133 worsted factories within the borough of Bradford alone, with 12,807 horse-power, and employing 27,855* work-people; and, in the whole of the worsted trade throughout the kingdom, into 630 worsted factories, worked by steam-engines of 48,977 horse-power, and employing 109,557 work-people.

ANNUAL VALUE OF THE WORSTED TRADE.

A careful investigation of the value of this industry was made in 1864, by Mr. Behrens, then president of the Bradford Chamber of Commerce.

The total value, then, of the wool, goats' hair, cotton, &c., manufactured into worsted and woolen yarns and tissues, in A. D. 1864, was £64,400,000. Of this, the worsted portion was £33,600,000, the woolen £30,800,000.

After quoting this estimate, Mr. Taylor continues:

The progress has been great in both respects; and, without going into unnecessary details, an estimate made by the same gentleman, and which is mainly based upon

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^{*} The returns of the census of 1871 give the number of work-people in the worsted trade as 26,598; males, 9,340, and females, 17,258; and in the woolen-cloth manufacture, 6,508 males, and 2,727 females, total 9,235.—E. Y.

the agricultural returns and the board of trade tables for 1872, shows a corresponding extension of the worsted trade during that period. While the available quantity of wool and of similar animal fiber for all purposes was 384,000,000 pounds in 1864, it was last year 500,000,000 pounds, (138,000,000 pounds being of home growth,) of which, probably, 245,000,000 pounds were required for worsted, and 255,000,000 pounds for woolen manufactures, producing in combination with cotton, silk, and other materials, £46,700,000 of worsted yarns and tissues, and £36,100,000 of woolens.

Nothing shows better the great and constant development of the Bradford trade than the amounts exported to all parts of the inhabited globe, which were—

	Yards.	Worsted tissues.	
In 1842	£637, 305	£3,556,963	£4, 194, 268
In 1852	1, 430, 140	4, 933, 030	6, 363, 230
In 1862	3, 662, 555	5, 881, 789	9, 544, 344
In 1864	5, 183, 229	10, 800, 521	15, 983, 750
In 1872	6, 110, 138	20, 905, 163	27, 015, 291*

As even a brief mention of the worsted trade would be incomplete without a reference to Sir Titus Salt, to whom more than to any other man is the growth and prosperity of that leading industry due, a somewhat extended notice of the works at Saltaire will appear on subsequent pages.

WAGES IN WORSTED-MILLS, BRADFORD.

Statement of the rates of wages paid to the various operatives employed in manufactories of varns and textile fabrics in Bradford in 1872.

Occupation.	Sex.	Wages per week.	Remarks.
Wool-combing:		_	
Wool-sorters*	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	\$6 77	Long English wool, \$1.44 to \$2.40 per pack.
Wool-washers*		5 08	Patent bowl.
Wahamana .	Men	4 60 4 00	Hand-fork, (old way.)
Makers-up	Women	2 90	
Takers-off	do	2 78 4 11	
Preparers	Woman	3 63	
Rallera	do	9 00	
Dryers	Men	4 11	
Dryers Jobber	Young man 16 to 20	3 15	
Mechanics	your	7 69	
Warehousemen		4 36	
Overlooker	l	9 07	For competent person.
Drawing and apinning:			and composite process.
Drawers	Women	2 78	
Spinners { Twisters Bobbin-layers Bobbin takers-off Jobber		2 90 2 30	Minding 3 sides of a frame.
Twisters	Woman	2 90	Minding 2 sides of a frame.
Bobbin-lavera	Roys and girls	2 30	
Bobbin takera-off.	Boys over 14 years.	2 54	
Jobber	do	2 48	
Reclers, (piecework)		9 68	61 to 7 cents fine counts over \$9.60.
Hank and grossers (piecework)		52	V -1V
Packers		4 11	
West-men			
Overlooker		7 56	For competent person.
Weaving:			
Warp-dressers Twisters		7 26 7 26	
Wasyare (pleasurery)		4 36	\$4.32 per week : men. \$5.76.
Weavers, (piecework)	•	7 02	41.0% per week; men, \$5.10.
Overlookers		7 56	
		10 97	

^{*} Foreign wool \$2.40 to \$4.80 per pack of 240 pounds.

Some portion of this extraordinary increase may be accounted for by the advance in prices which took place in 1871 and 1872.



Approximate rates of wages and earnings of work people in the alpaca-mills of Sir Titus Salt,
Sons & Co., Saltaire, October, 1872.

Occupation.	Sex.	Average earnings week.	per
Preparing : Wool-sorters	You.	\$6 78 to \$	
Wool-washers		3 87 to	
Wool-dyers			
Wool-combers	do	3 87 to	
Carding and spinning:	1	30110	1 01
Spinners	Girle	2 18 to	K 00
Warpers and beamers			
Reciers			
Overlookers.			
Weaving:		1.2000	0 11
•	do	4 84 to	5 81
Weavers	Women		
Burlers	Men		3 15
Overlookers.	do	7 74 to	
Warp-dressers			
Ingine-room yard cleaners			6 05
dechanica, such as machinists, carpenters, &c	do	1	7 99
aborers and watchmen	do	5 81 to	
arters			6 05

Mr. Titus Salt, jr., who furnished the above figures, states that the workmen are not quite so well off now as they were before the rise in wages, owing to the greater advance in the prices of provisions and especially of coals.

Mr. Bacchus, the resident agent of Messrs. A. T. Stewart & Co.,

says:

Women in worsted factories earn 18s. and men about 24s. per week. 'Laborers and the lowest class of workmen earn 20s.; machinists, 28s. per week.

Mechanics' wages.—Masons, joiners, plumbers, plasterers, smiths, and painters, 5s. 6d. per day to good workmen for five days in a week and 2s. 6d. on Saturdays; total earnings, 30s., \$7.25.

HALIFAX.

Population in 1871, 65,510.

The manufacture of cloth commenced here in the beginning of the fifteenth century, and Halifax ranks next to Leeds and Bradford as a seat of the woolen and worsted industries. But it is best known as the place where the carpet-mills of the celebrated firm of John Crossley & Sons are situated. A visit to these extensive works, when so courteously shown through every department as the author was, amply repays the journey. It is pleasant to recognize patterns of carpets in use in our houses, to note that the most elegant and tasteful patterns belong to several of the leading carpet dealers in the chief cities of the United States, and to be assured that one of them has the best taste in this direction of any dealer in Europe or America. Sir Francis Crossley is deceased, but the present head of the house, Mr. John Crossley, and his partners, possess also a high reputation for business integrity and enterprise and for the benevolent interest taken in their employés and townsmen. A notice of some of the benefactions of the members of this firm, as well as those of Sir Titus Salt, alike celebrated in a kindred industry, will appear on subsequent pages.

The number of hands employed in the chief industries of Halifax, according to the report on the English census of 1871, was as follows:

	Males.	Females.
In woclen-cloth manufacture		1,837
In worsted and stuff manufacture		4, 603 732
m carpet and rug manufacture	1, 220	104

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The following scale of weekly wages in the carpet-mills of John Crossley & Co., Halifax, was sent to the author by that firm at the date indicated:

While the wages are correctly stated above, the margin is too extended. From conversation with weavers employed in these mills, the information was gained that men earned at piecework from 23s. to 24s. per week, and women from 13s. to 14s. It will be observed that these figures are within the limits above given, and are more definite, and may be regarded as the average earnings of male and female weavers. It was stated that girls on regular wages, not on piecework, receive but 10s.; laborers, 18s.; and machinists to repair looms and machinery, from 26s. to 28s. per week; the latter working ten and a half hours per day.

KIDDERMINSTER, WORCESTERSHIRE.

Although not in Yorkshire, Kidderminster has long been known as the seat of the ingrain-carpet trade, but of late this branch has been transferred to Dewsbury, while Kidderminster now makes the worsted or tapestry carpets. The following statement of the average rates of wages paid in carpet mills was presented by the proprietors at the date indicated:

Weekly wages of persons employed in 1872 in the worsted spinning and corpet manufactory belonging to John Brinton & Co., in Kidderminster, England.

[Hours	of	lahor	DAT	week.	59.1

Description of work.	Wages.	Description of work.	Wages.
Engine-room, yard, &c.: Engineers Mechanics Laborers, watchmen, and yard hands Foremen Worsted yarns and fabrics: Wool-sorters Wool-washers Combers	\$9 68 \$0 72 to 1 21 4 36 to 6 05 9 68 7 26* 4 84 4 84	Worsted yarns, and fabrics—Con. Gill-box and drawing hands. Spinners. Twisters.: Reclors Oversecus. Assistants. Dyers. Dyers. Per day Weavers. Per pard Finishers. Per piece.	\$2 66 1 31 2 05 2 66 4 84 \$0 56 to 0 64 12 to 14

^{* 72} cents to \$1.69 per pack, according to quality of wool.

AGRICULTURAL-IMPLEMENT WORKS AT IPSWICH.

In the exposition at Moscow, in 1872, a most creditable display of agricultural tools and implements was made by the firm of Bansomes, Sime & Head, proprietors of the Orwell Works at Ipswich, Hingland. In reply to a request for the rates of wages paid in the works, the following letter and statement were received:

IPSWICH, October 12, 1872.

EDWARD YOUNG, Esq., London:

Our books will not enable us, without considerable trouble, to give you the information which you have asked for respecting wages paid in our works to different classes of men, so that, although we have filled up your paper as nearly as we can, yet the fig-

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ures must not be taken as strictly correct. The wages vary very much, according to the skill of the workmen, and the average weekly earnings depend very much upon the amount of overtime which the men may make. We may say that we have for a number of years taken the average weekly wages earned by all the men and boys, whether mechanics or laborers, in our employ, and find that it averages 20s. 6d. per week. The proportion of boys under twenty to men is about 3 in 11. The standard hours of labor per week are fifty-four, but this is considerably increased by overtime. The price of coal is also much more than it has been for many years.

We are yours, faithfully,

RANSOMES, SIMS & HEAD.

Mean rates of wages paid in United States gold to workmen employed in the agriculturel-implement works of Mesers, Ransomes, Sims & Head, Ivewich.

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Wood-workers Iron-workers: Molders Tarness or machinists Elecksmiths	6 77 7 50	Painters Laborers Carters Apprentices or youths Foremen or overlookers	4 354 1 93

Hours of labor per week, 54.

On pisoework they earn from ½ to ½ more.

Rents of 3-roomed tenements, occupied by working people, 72 cents per week.

Present price of coal at works per ton: steam coal, \$7.26; smiths' coal, \$5.39.

THE BRICK MAKING TRADE.

The following extract from the report of the inspector of factories for 1874, shows the earnings of work people at brick-making, and also in the blacking works:

BRICK-MAKING, NEAR MANCHESTER.

By the union tariff, the sum drawn by the molder from the master is now 9 shillings (\$2.16) per thousand bricks, which is thus distributed: to the molder, 2s. 4d., (56 cents.) and the same amount to the temperer; to the wheeler, 2a. 3d., (54 cents;)

to the carrier-off, 1s. 04d., (25 cents;) and the same to the waller.

The molder has also the right to nominate the carrier-off (who is from 13 to 16 years of age) and the waller. The former is generally his son, the latter his wife or daughter. If the molder does not claim his right to nominate, it passes to the temperer; failing him, to the wheeler; and failing all three, to the employer himself.

The average number of bricks turned out by each molder this season has been 500,000 during the 20 weeks; which is at the rate of 25,000 per week of 45 hours,

making a total weekly average for the molder, his wife, and his son of \$26.89.

One case of a molder I knew, who turned out 620,000 bricks this season. His son, aged 14, carried them off, and his daughter aged 17, walled them; a second daughter, of 19, worked at another stool. The net weekly earnings of this man and his three shidten amounted to \$41.00. children amounted to \$41.00.

The brick-makers, as a rule, are not improvident; the system of leaving back money with the masters is being generally adopted. Some carriers-off, at the end of the season, had £8 to £10 to take.

MOSS BROOK BLACKING-WORKS.

The wrappers-up are lads of 16 to 20 years of age; there are 70 of them, each served by two half-timers, or by one full-timer putter-on, at which rate the average weekly earnings are as follows: A wrapper-up, per week, \$4.32; full-time putter-on, per week, \$2.16; half-time putter-on, per week, \$0.96. The total number of persons employed, all boys, is 321.

LONDON.

Population in 1871, 3,254,260.

The rates of wages in the metropolitan district, especially those ruling in 1871, are given on preceding pages under the heading "Metropolis." Unlike most of the towns whose industries have been considered, it is not the seat of any very extensive manufactures which find a market in the United States.

To show the variety, but not the extent, of the exports from London, the following report, made by the United States consul general, Gen. Badeau, to the Department of State, is presented:

Summary of goods exported from London to the United States of America during the years ending September 30, 1871, 1872, 1873, with a list of the principal articles supplied.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES SENT FROM LONDON TO THE UNITED STATES.

Acids, arrowroot, artists' materials, animals of every description, (alive,) alpaca wool, ammonis, ammunition, axes, brass, bronzes, bleaching-powder, blacking, beer, biscuits, buttous, braces, belts, buckles, brushes, bristles, bricks, books, boots, bulbs, baby-linen, brilliants, balls, barometers, braids, bone, bolts, bedsteads, bars, bark, copper, cutlery, clocks, crystals, cabinet-work, carvings, cork, cork-wood, cochineal, chemicals, cement, chalk, chocolate, cocoa, colors, china, coffee, chiccory, corsets, carpets, cords, cottons, crapes, cartridges, caps, cards, cricketing materials, castings, candles, cliff-stone, carriages, drugs, druggists' sundries, dogs, diamonds, decanters, emery, cssences, essential oils, engravings, earthenware, furniture feathers, flowers, all kinds of fancy articles, furs, fringes, felt, floor-cloth, fog-signals, flax, flannels, fishing-tackle, granite, guns, gold, gold bronze and leaf, gums, glass, gloves, gutta-percha, gun-waddings, gelatine, gold-beaters' skins, grindstones, hardware, hats, hatters' furs, horse-hair, harnesses, horns, horses, hope, haberdashery, hosiery, human hair, hides, iron, ivory, ink, India-rubber goods, isinglass, jewelry, jet goods, kamptulican, lead, lime, leather, linens, laces of all kinds, linoleum, metals, mustard, mineral waters, manufactures of latkinds, models, moldings, molds, musical instruments, music, millinery, manufactures of leather, matches, milk, machinery, needles, newspapers, oils, oilman's stores, oakum, oxen, oatmeal, platina, precious stones, plated goods, perfumery, powder, provisions, pins, photographs and photographic materials and utensils, paintings, pictures, prints, piano-fortes, paper, periodicals, pamphlets, parchment, playing-cards, paper-waste, pigs, plants, prints, parseols, percussion-caps, pickles, preserves, patent barley, quicksilver, ribbons, retorts, rags, ready-made clothing of all descriptions, rugs, roope, raw silk, steel, skins, spelter, stone, silver, sticks, soaps, sodas, starch, spirits, shells, shell go

Year ending Sept., 1871.	Value.	Year ending Sept., 1872.*	Value.	Year ending Sept., 1873.†	Value.	
Dec. 31, 1870. Mar. 3!, 1871. June 30, 1871. Sept. 30, 1871. Total	2,331,842 16 01 2,248,830 12 3	Dec. 31, 1871 Mar. 31, 1872 June 30, 1872 Sept. 30, 1872 Total	1, 856, 446 11 6 9, 644, 485 14 8	Dec. 31, 1872 Mar. 31, 1873 June 30, 1873 Sept. 30, 1873 Total	£ s. d. 2, 759, 304 16 1 2, 060, 138 7 8 1, 556, 815 9 11 1, 202, 814 0 9 7, 579, 072 14 5	

^A Year 1872, £13,947 5s. 10d. more than the year 1871. † Year 1873, £1,092,911 19s. 3d. less than the year 1872.

DEPTFORD, COUNTY OF KENT.

Statement showing the arrange weekly wages (in United States gold) of persons employed in the engineering-works of Mesers. J. Stone & Co., in the town of Deptford, county of Kent, England.

[Hours of labor per week, 54.] No. of each class. o of each Wages. Occupation. Wages. Occupation. \$4 36 to \$5 18 16 12 20 10 12 86 Pattern-makers. Laborers . \$8 71 to 10 16 9 19 Brass-molders Boys and apprentices..... Iron-molders . Engineers..... 4 36 to 5 1 20 to 2 Coppersmiths 9 19 Laborers or unskilled workmen 7 26 to 8 71 7 98 to 9 19 6 77 to 7 96 Apprentices or boys..... Braziers..... Turners..... Foremen or overseers... Fitters

And upward.

NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE.

An extended report on the trade and industry of Newcastle-upon-Type was prepared for these pages by Evan R. Jones, esq., United States consul for that district, a condensed statement from which is presented in the following pages. "The various tables given in connection with the different subjects treated in the report," Mr. Jones says, "have been prepared with great care, and can be relied upon with confidence."

NEWCASTLE.—Newcastle-upon-Tyne, as its name indicates, is situated upon the river Type, ten miles west of where that river flows into the North Sea. Formerly Newcastle was the chief town of the county of Northumberland, but by virtue of a charter granted by Henry IV, in the year 1400, it became a county in itself, and is represented in Parliament by two members.

At the last census, taken in 1871, the population of this town was 128,443, to which we must add 48,637, the population of Gateshead; for, notwithstanding the last-named place is in the county of Durham, its interests are identical with Newcastle, and in a commercial point of view we must consider them as one.

The two towns are divided by the river Tyne, and united by three large bridges, including the High-level Bridge, one of the engineering triumphs of Robert Ste-

The source of the great wealth of Newcastle and district, which includes North and South Shields, is the rich coal-beds found in the immediate neighborhood. Not only does this commodity contribute toward the prosperity of the Tyne directly; but we are also indebted to its cheap price, in all probability, for the establishment upon the banks of this river of some of the most complete and extensive engineering-works to be found in the United Kingdom, if not in the world. I particularly refer to the Elswick engine and ordnance works of Sir William G. Armstrong & Co.; the shipbuilding establishment of Messrs. C. M. Palmer & Co., at Jarrow; the factories of Messrs. Robert Stephenson & Co., and Messrs. R. & W. Hawthorn, for the manufacture of locomotives and other engines and machines, together with some of the largest chemical-works in this country

THE TYNE.—I have repeatedly been informed by masters of American ships that in former years the entrance into the Tyne was both difficult and dangerous, and that the channel of the river was in a shallow and otherwise unsatisfactory condition. I need not remind you that such a state of things must have proved a check both upon the shipping interests and the general commercial growth of the district. Thanks to

the river Tyne commissioners, causes for complaints, under this head, no longer exist. I extract a few brief passages from the "report of Captain E. K. Calver, royal nary, on the improvements effected in the river Tyne." He says:

"The depth of the channel over the bar, which was 6 feet 8 inches in 1849, had been increased by dredging to 15 feet in 1865, the time of one of my periodical examinations. Now there is no bar, as a depth of 27 feet exists along the track in from sea, till the proper channel of the river is reached.

"There is now a minimum depth of 24 feet in that portion of the entrance channel

where the 'stones,' with 9 feet over them, formerly existed.

"Briefly stated the result is, that the commissioners have, by the process of dredging, cleared away the bar; they have freed the throat of Shields Harbor from the obstructions which nearly blocked it up; they have removed seven extensive shouls from out of the channel of the river between Shields and Newcastle, and increased the ruling navigable depth between the same limits from 24 feet to 13 and 14 feet, while, by the consequent tidal gain, they have created a power for assisting in the future maintenance of the increased capacity of the river. These results, of national as well as of local importance, establish the Tyne as the most noteworthy example of river improvement within the bounds of the United Kingdom."

No one questions but what these truly wonderful improvements have greatly contributed toward making the Tyne what it is, and has been for several years, the third among the great shipping rivers of the kingdom, in the number and tonnage of vessels

entering and clearing.

Ship-building .- Irou-ship-building takes rank next to the coal-trade in magnitude and importance, no less than 20,000 men being employed in the various establishments

on the Tyne for the construction of iron vessels.

Among the many extensive works of the kind to be found on this river, the Palmer Among the many extensive works of the kind to be found on this river, the Palmer Ship-building and Iron Company at Jarrow is the largest and most complete. They Ship-building and Iron Company at Jarrow is the largest and most complete. employ about 8,000 men. Next in importance stands the establishment of Messrs. C. Mitchell & Co., at Low Walker, four miles down the Tyne, where about 3,000 men are employed.

Vessels of an aggregate of 88,000 tons were launched from the various ship-yards on

the Tyne during 1871.

Locomotive and engine works.—Newcastle-upon-Type is the cradle of the locomotive engine. At Wylam, eight miles west of this town, George Stephenson, the inventor of the first successful locomotive, was born in 1781, and in 1824, associated with other men of skill and means, he opened the locomotive-works which have since made Newcastle famous for the manufacture of these engines.

Locomotives and marine engines manufactured here are exported to every country

in the civilized world, with the single exception of the United States.

Those who have traveled in England will verify my statement, that both in appearance and in the arrangement of suitable protection for engine-driver and fireman, the locomotives of England, generally, are behind those of America. But in countries where Newcastle engines are brought into competition with those manufactured elsewhere, statistics prove them to be possessed of great merit, both for speed and durability.

The work turned out per annum and the number of men employed at the works of Mesers. Robert Stephenson & Co. and those of Mesers. R. & W. Hawthorn are as

follows:

Firms.	Locomotives	Marine en-	No. of men	Labor per
	built.	gines built.	employed.	day.
Messrs. Robert Stephenson & Co	52	19	1, 400	9 hours.
	40	(*)	1, 700	9 hours.

^{*4,000} horse-power. I was engines, by Messra Hawthorn. I was furnished with the number of horse-power, and not the number of

The Elswick ordnance and engine works.—The Armstrong gun, by name at least, is known to nearly every American; comparatively few, however, are aware that the ordnance works of Sir William George Armstrong & Co., where the destructive weapons are forged, are situated at Elswick, in the West End of Newcastle.

Sir William, the son of a born merchant, who once filled the office of mayor of New-

castle, was born at this town in 1810. He was educated for the law, and finally practiced as a solicitor in his native town. But the law had no charms for him; his mind

was of the inventive and scientific turn.

His earlier achievements were improvements upon hydraulic engines and cranes; and in 1846 the Elswick engine-works were founded by Sir William and a few friends, chiefly for the construction of that class of machinery. During the Crimean war he invented the breech-loading gun, with which his name will ever remain associated.

At present the Elswick engine and ordnance works of Sir William G. Armstrong & Co. is one of the richest firms, and most completely arranged works on the Tyne, where

artillery is manufactured for nearly all the governments of the earth.

The number of men employed in these works are in the neighborhood of 3,000, and are distributed nearly as follows:

Ordnance works, about	,200 409 200
Total	, 966

The genius, indefatigable energy, and persevering industry of Sir William Armstrong have brought his gun to such a state of perfection, both in range, precision, and economy of powder, that, by almost unanimous consent, it is acknowledged to be the

An ordinary 32-pounder weighs 6,384 pounds, requires ten pounds of powder, and carries a ball 3,000 yards. The Armstrong 32-pounder only weighs 2,912 pounds, requires five pounds of powder, and sends its shot or shell 9,000 yards.

The first pieces turned out by the inventor were lined with steel; wrought iron, in the hand of a master, has since been found to be equally efficient. The Elewick ordnance-works construct guns ranging from a 12-pound field-piece to a 600-pounder, and are possessed of facilities for turning out several cannons per week.

The time occupied in the construction of a 600-pound gun is as follows: Forging. three weeks; for contraction, one week; turning, three weeks; rifling, two weeks; finishing, two weeks; and for extra work, two weeks—total, 13 weeks.

Glass-works.—The Tyne Plate-Glass Company, of South Shields, employs 500 hands, at the following rate of wages: Casters, 30s. (\$7.26) to 35s. (\$8.47) per week; finishers and polishers, 35s. (\$8.47) to 40s. (\$9.68) per week.

The quantity of glass produced per annum is about 600,000 feet; present price, 3s, 3d. (79 cents) per square foot.

The works of Mr. John Sowerby, for the manufacture of glass-ware, are situated at

Gateshead, just across the Tyne.

There are several leading houses engaged in the manufacturing business, which are also large exporters to America, not yet mentioned; such as Mesers, W. J. Cookson & Co., in the leads, red and white lead, and Venetian red trade, Mesars. Hoyle Robson & Co., manufacturers of pitch, varnishes, paints, &c., and others.

The alkali trade.—The alkali trade forms by far the most important branch of the

commerce carried on between this district and America. Soda crystals, alkali, and bicarbonate of soda are continually going forward to all the larger ports on the Atlantic coast, and occasionally to San Francisco.

Cheap fuel has induced capitalists to establish some of the largest chemical works

in the kingdom upon the banks of this river.

Taking three largest manufactories in the district, viz, the Jarrow Chemical Company, the Tyne Chemical Works, and the works of H. L. Pattinson & Co., I find that together they manufactured during the year 1871, 40,607 tons of soda crystals, 34,720 tons alkali, (refined and unrefined,) and 8,153 tons bicarbonate of soda, besides large quantities of caustic sods, chloride of lime, pearl hardening, and oil of vitriol.

The alkali trade is in a thriving condition. Either through sagacity or by good fortune the manufacturers made large contracts for both salt and coal before the late advance in the prices of those articles took place, and by consequence they are now

resping a rich harvest.

In former years the outlay attending the transportation of salt from the Cheshire beds was nominal; the charges of railway companies to Hull and Grimsby were at a very low rate, and at those places the article was taken in as ballast by vessels bound for the Tyne. However, such a state of things no longer exists; railway charges are high, and regular freight is charged by all vessels bringing salt from Hull and Grimsby to this river; and to-day the price of that article is 27s. (\$6.53) per ton, with an upward tendency. Small coal, which is chiefly used in the manufacture of this class of chemicals, is at present commanding 20s. (\$4.84) to 25s. (\$6.05) per ton. I need scarcely add that these figures are considerably in advance of those at which the fortunate contracts were made.

If manufacturers engaged in what is generally known as the alkali trade were obliged to pay current prices for salt and coal, I conjecture that decomposing the chloride of sodium would yield but a very moderate profit.

The three firms above named employ no less than 4,500 men, at an average wage of

4. 6d. (\$1.09) per day.

The hours of labor necessarily vary according to the nature of employment. The following exhibits a fair estimate of the working hours of men engaged in the alkali trade: Mechanics, fifty-four hours per week; yard laborers, fifty-eight hours per week; trade: Mechanics, fifty-four hours per week; ward laborers, fifty-eight hours per week; "Overtime" processmen, (excepting decomposing furnacemen,) twelve-hour shifts. "Overtime" is largely entered into in this as well as nearly every other branch of industry, and the more active and ambitious men frequently realize from 40s. (\$9.68) to 45s. (\$10.89) as their week's earnings.

Price of labor.—During the year 1871 a complete revolution took place in the labor market of this country. In the early spring the engineers and machinists of Sunderland, spontaneously and without organization for the purpose, demanded a reduction of the time of labor from 59 to 54 hours per week. The demand was refused by the masters, and the men came out on strike. This might be considered as the keynote of the nine-hours' movement, which resulted in establishing nine hours as a day's work in all branches of industry which admit of its application, throughout the

United Kingdom.

Not only have the working-hours been reduced, but in consequence of the increased demand for nearly every natural and manufactured commodity produced in this country, and the very considerable rise in the cost of living, wages have also been gradually advancing, especially since the first of this year. To illustrate this fact I have selected the engineer, as belonging to that class of workmen most closely identified with the great strikes of 1871. An engineer (erector and fitter) while working ten hours a day received only 26s. (\$6.29) as his weekly wage previous to the strike; at present, with nine hours as a day's work, he obtains 30s. (\$7.26) per week.

The following table gives the average prices paid for labor on the Type September. 1879 .

Occupation.	Wages.	Hours per week.	Occupation.	Wages.	Hours per
Carpenters	\$8 47 7 50	54 54	GLASS TRADE.		
Bricklayers Stone-masons	7 26 7 26	54 54	Casters Finishers and polishers	\$7 96 to \$8 47 8 47 to 9 68	54 54
Plasterers	6 78 7 26	54 54 54	COLLIERS.		
FittersBlacksmiths	\$6 78 to 7 26 7 02 4 84	54 54 54	The Durham pits	30 cts. per ton. 42 cts. per ton.	4
Riveters Holders-up	7 74 to 8 47 5 81 to 6 29	54 54	PRINTING AND BOOK-MAKING TRADE.		
PlatersALKALI TRADE.	8 47	54	Engravers, first-class Lithographic printers Compositors and letter-press	6 78	
Mechanics	7 26 to 8 47	54	printers	7 26	5
Laborers	4 84 6 05 to 7 26	58 (*)	Book-folders and sewers, wo- men first-class	\$2 42 to 2 90	

^{* 19.} hone shifts

Night-work upon daily papers.

Ruby, per 1,000 ems	17 cents.
Nonpareil, per 1,000 ems.	16 cents.
Minion, per 1,000 ems	15 cents.
Bourgeoia, per 1.000 ema.	15 cents.
Weekly naners are less_12 cents per 1 000 minion instead of 15 cents	

we can papers are sees—12 cents per 1,000, minion, instead of 15 cents.

The prices for day-work are 1d. (2 cents) per 1,000 less than for night-work.

NOTE.—Printers in England measure differently from what they do in America. The width is measured in ems and the depth in ens.

Wages in iron-ship-building and engineering works.—The following statement of the wages, ruling at the close of 1874, shows but few changes from the rates of 1872, as given by Mr. Jones. In this, as in a case previously noticed, the difference between the maximum and minimum rates is too great; the mean is not believed to be the true average. For instance, some boiler-makers may earn 38s., but the mean rate, as above stated, 35s., is above the average, which is under 34s. So in regard to laborers; the average is not 22s., the mean rate here given, but 20s. at the utmost.

Average weekly wages (computed in United States gold and working 54 hours per week) paid to persons employed in fron-ship-building and engineering shops in Newcastle-on-Tyne and vicinity in the year 1874.

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Iron-molders. Machinists. {	7 50 6 05 5 32 4 84 7 74 to 9 19 6 53 7 26 to 7 74 5 80 to 6 77 9 68 to 10 69 6 77 to 7 74	Foremen Engineers, fitters Pattern-makers and carpenters Assistants Laborors, carters, &c Apprentices Millwrights Assistants Brass-founders Brass-futers Brass-turners Sailmakers	5 33 to 5 80 4 35 to 5 80 1 45 to 2 90 7 26 to 8 71 4 35 to 5 80 7 26 to 9 68 6 77 to 7 74

The above list of wages shows what is being paid in the first-class and largest ship-building and engineering establishments in this neighborhood; we ourselves employing some men in all the trades for our making new and repairing old work.

DAVID MOFFAT,

Master Superintendent.

NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE, November 25, 1874.

Wages in steamers.—The following scale of wages in steamers belonging to the Tyne Steam Shipping Company, limited, was furnished by Richard Weltord, esq., secretary and manager:

	Pay whi	le navigating.	navigating. Pay during detentiat home.			
	Per wee of 7 days		Per week of 6 days.	Per day.		
Master. Mate. { Chief }	£ s. d *4 0 0 48 0 37 0 36 0 310 0 324 0 21 0 60 0 42 6 33 0 28 0	6 10 5 3½ 5 1½ 4 5 4 3½ 3 5 3 0 3 11 8 7 6 1 4 8½ 4 3½	30 0 26 0 35 0 24 0 24 0 24 0 24 0 22 6 0 25 0 24 0 24 0 24 0 24 0 24 0 24 0 24	s. d. 5 0 4 4 5 10 4 0 13 6 14 0 7 0 5 5 4 0 4 0 3 6		

^{*} Generally this amount. † Not found. ‡ If a mechanic, 28s. § 3s. extra on Sunday. || Per agreement.

NOTE.—Twenty-four hours before sailing-hour, and twenty-four hours after arrival, vessels are to be considered as in "commission." Detention beyond this time places officers and men on reduced pay. Wages in all cases are to be reckoned and paid by the day.

GLASGOW, SCOTLAND.

Population in 1871, 477,732.

Glasgow is the commercial and manufacturing metropolis of Scotland, situated on the river Clyde, which, along its whole course, is beautified by magnificent natural scenery and embellishments of art. Its banks are crowded with the abodes of industry and a thriving population. It was a place of some consideration at the commencement of the twelfth century.

Glasgow now unites within itself a portion of the cotton spinning and weaving manufactures of Manchester, the printed calicos of Lancashire, the stuffs of Norwich, the shawls and muslins of France, the silk-throwing of Macclesfield, the flax-spinning of Ireland, the carpets of Kidderminster, the iron and engineering works of Wolverhampton and Birmingham, the pottery and glass making of Staffordshire and Newcastle, the ship-building of London, the coal trade of the Tyne and Wear, and all the handicraits connected with or dependent on the full development of these various and important branches. Glasgow also has its chemical-works, tanneries, rope-walks, dye-works, bleach-fields, paper-manufactories, distilleries, and breweries, beside a vast number of staple and fancy hand-loom fabrics, which may be strictly said to belong to the locality.

While the iron, textile, and chemical products of Glasgow and vicinity are well known, the manufacture of iron machinery, and more recently the building of iron vessels, have given the Clyde a fame which is possessed by no other river.

SHIP-BUILDING ON THE CLYDE.

While in the days of wooden vessels the Clyde was noted for the marine-engines built by Napier and others, which attained the highest excellence of workmanship, the introduction of iron as the chief material used in building sea-going vessels, both sail and steam, has more recently rendered this small stream one of the celebrities of the world. From Glasgow to Greenock, twenty miles, the river is almost lined with ship-yards, working to their full capacity in the building of merchantships.

There are in all twenty-eight yards on the Clyde, and these have launched during the year 227 vessels in all, with an aggregate tonnage of 224,000. The following table will specify the classes of vessels and

tonnage of each class for 1872:

STEAMERS.		_
	Number.	A ggregate tonnage.
Paddle-wheel	10	6, 200
Screw		198,800
Hoppers and dredges		1, 900
SAILING.		
Iron		12, 500
Wood	1	300
Wood	12	1,700
Barges	14	600
YACHTS.	_	
Steam		1,600
Sailing	20	400
Total	227	224,000

The larger of these vessels are destined to the following services: For the East Indian and China trade, 38; West Indian trade, 6; South American, 18; New York, 10; New Orleans, 6; Canadian, 7; African, 8; Mediterranean, French, and Spanish, 30. The others are chiefly coasters.

The following is the aggregate tonnage launched from the Clyde yards during each of the last ten years.

1863	124,000 1	1868	169, 571
		1869	
1865	153, 932	1870	180, 401
		1871	
		1872	

The year 1872 has been the most prosperous one in ship-building yet experienced on the Clyde. Although the number of vessels launched has not been quite up to each of the last few years, the tonnage exceeds 1871 by 28,000 tons and 1870 by 34,200 tons. The increase of last year has been larger than any yearly increase for many years past, and has been entirely in the class of screw-steamers. The year's tonnage of screw steam-vessels is 40,800 tons above 1871; 67,000 tons above 1870; 73,000 tons above 1869; and 77,500 tons above 1868. But while the screw-vessels have so enormously increased, all the other classes seem on the decline. In the building of war-vessels, 1872 has been a blank on the Clyde. In paddle-steamers there has been a considerable decline,

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and the year only shows 6,200 tons as against 10,900 tons in 1871; 10,150 tons in 1870; 8,300 tons in 1869; and 6,300 tons in 1868. vacht-building there has been a good trade, chiefly in screw steam-Tessels.

CLYDE SHIP-BUILDING DURING 1873.

[Condensed from an article in the London Economist of March 14, 1874.]

When the movement for reducing the hours of labor in the engineering and ship-building trades was in progress a couple of years ago, followed or attended, as it was, with an advance of wages, there were many persons who, like "birds of ill omen," prognosticated a sudden collapse in the great ship-building industry of the Clyde, but, strange to say, notwithstanding the past year, 1873, has been the most extraordinary one that has ever been experienced in the whole history of that industry, and has most completely falsified all the evil prognostications, when we compare the tonnage launched during the whole of 1573 with that launched in 1872, the result of the contrast is surprising. In making the annual summary statement regarding the Clyde ship-building trade, it is customary to embrace all the vessels shipped in pieces, barges, and ing trade, it is customary to embrace all the vessels shipped in pieces, barges, and most of the small vessels in the December return; and doing so now we find that the December tonnage for each of the four years, 1871-73, is as follows: 1870, 61 vessels of 23,100 tons; 1871, 76 vessels of 22,300 tons; 1872, 50 vessels of 26,300 tons, and 1873, 46 vessels of 33,500 tons. This last monthly total, therefore, brings up the work done during 1873 to 194 vessels of an aggregate of 261,500 tons, as against 227 vessels of 224,000 tons in 1872, 231 vessels of 196,200 tons in 1871, and 234 vessels of 189,800 tons in the year 1870.

A brief examination of these returns brings out some very interesting facts. First, we notice that extending over a series of four years, while the number of vessels has fallen from 234 to 194, the tonnage of vessels has increased from 189,000 tons to 261,500, the increase upon the four years being 71,700, or considerably more than one-third of the whole tonnage launched in the year 1870. Within the short period of four years, therefore, the average size of vessels built on the Clyde has advanced from about 811 tons to about 1,348 tons, which indicates such a radical revolution in the mechanical arts as but comparatively few persons could have confidently calculated upon at the com-

mencement of that brief period.

The question of "paddle versus screw" has again come to the front in connection with the ship-building statistics now under consideration. Paddle-steamers, as to tonnage, were nearly stationary in 1870 and 1871, being between 10,000 and 11,000 tons; they fell off in 1872 to rather over 6,000 tons, but last year they again rose to 19,100 tons, which was a very considerable increase. It was due, however, almost entirely to the demand made by the China Steam Navigation Company of Shanghai, which had no fewer than five large paddle-steamers supplied to them of 1,250 up to 3,200, and 200 up to

400 horse-power, or in totals 12,410 tons and 1,450 horse-power.

Of screw-steamships there were 125 launched during 1873, of an aggregate of 218,000 tons. These numbers show that the average size of the Clyde-built screw-steamers has risen to 1,744 tons, which is a very extraordinary fact. For its explanation we must refer to the very large number of first-class ocean steamers built during the year for various great mercantile companies. The Pacific Steam Navigation Company, for example, were supplied with nine new steamers as the year's addition to their already magnificent fleet. One of them was a vessel of 4,620 tons and 650 horse-power, and the totals were 28,895 tons and 4,500 horse-power. No fewer them six of these great ocean steamers were built by Messrs. John Elder & Co. This is the largest amount of tonnage ever supplied in a single year to any shipping company.

There was a marked increase in the amount of tonnage launched in 1873 under the

head of from satting-vessels. As compared with 1872, there was only one additional vessel, making twelve in all, but there was an increase in the aggregate tounage from 12,500 tons to 19,000, most of the vessels of the class ranging from 1,500 to 1,920 tons,

which are certainly extraordinary sizes for sailing-vessels.

[From the Glasgow Daily Mail.]

The total number of vessels of different classes launched on the Clyde during the year 1874 amounted to 187, with a gross tonnage of 244,467. This, as compared with last year, shows an increase of 17 in the number and a decrease in the tonnage of 2,375. In the class of sailing-vessels, as compared with the previous year, there is an increase in number of 29, with an increase in tonnage of 33,710. Paddle-steamers have decreased in number by four, and in gross tonnage by 8,651. The number of screw-steamers launched during 1874 has been only one less than that of the previous year, while the gress tonnage of these vessels shows a decrease of 29,229. From this it would appear that the average tonnage of the screw-steamers built on the Clyde this year has been much below that of those built during the previous year. As compared with 1864, the number of vessels shows a decrease of 18, while there is an increase in the tonnage of 64,959. Digitized by GOOGIG

EXPORTS FROM GLASGOW TO THE UNITED STATES.

During the year ending June 30, 1872, the imports into the United States from Scotland, chiefly from Glasgow, were as follows:

Pig iron, (135,695 tons)	\$2, 305, 183
Old and scrap iron	344, 033
Steel rails	484, 723
Steel ingots, bars, &c	117,065
Steel manufactures	271,474
Cotton goods	839, 837
Other cotton manufactures	2, 206, 318
Flax, raw	208, 082
Flax manufactures	3,740,148
Jute manufactures	313, 206
Chemicals	300, 933
Sugar, brown	316, 351
Other articles	2, 894, 164
•	
Total, 1872	14, 341, 572
Total, 1873	14, 344, 770
Total, 1874	12, 166, 452

RATES OF WAGES.

Mr. Consul Jenkinson, in transmitting to the author a statement of the rates of wages at the close of the year 1872, makes the following remarks in regard to the cause of the fluctuations in the price of labor:

United States Consulate, Glasgow, January 1, 1873.

Hon. EDWARD YOUNG, Chief of Bureau of Statistics.

Sir: The condition of the laboring classes in Scotland is a subject well worthy the careful study of all who are interested in solving the great problem of labor in the United States. The last three years have been years of unceasing strife between capital and labor, the employers and the employes. "Locking-out," as it is termed, on the one side, and strikes on the other, have been of almost daily occurrence. As the capital of the country is in the hands of comparatively few, these can readily combine to put down the wages of labor, thus forcing the laborars into combinations and "unions" to put them up again. Nearly every trade has its "union," and almost every locality its combination of these unions. All classes alike suffer from these ceaseless contentions between master and man. For instance, for some months past a struggle has been going on between the miners of this district and the proprietors of the coal-mines, resulting in great loss to the proprietors, destitution and suffering to the miners and their families, and an extraordinary rise in the price of coals to the public. Coals which sold here at retail one year ago for 16e, per ton are now selling at 36s., an increase of more than 100 per cent. But the trouble ends not here; iron and many other things, in the manufacture of which coals largely enter, have enormously advanced in price. And what are manufacturers to do? They supply a foreign market, in which they can successfully compete only by selling as low as or lower than others. High prices for labor and material at home will require high prices abroad. If they demand these, others will undersell them and take their trade, while, if they fail to get the advance, they must close their works at home. High wages are, therefore, impossible with them. And this explains in a word the lamentable condition of the laboring man in this country, and his utter inability to elevate his condition. He must work for a mere pittance, to enable his employer to sell his goods abroad at low rates, or there will be

The strikes of the last few years have considerably advanced the wages paid to skilled labor in Glasgow; still, to an American mechanic the prices now received would seem exceedingly low. In some instances the best workmen get from 30s. to 33s. per week, but the average pay of mechanics, such as blacksmiths, carpenters, masons, tailors, &c., is not more than 27s. per week, equivalent to \$6.53 in United States gold.

Wages in engineering works in 1872.—The following figures show the average rates of weekly wages paid to workmen in engineering and shipbuilding trades in Glasgow:

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Pattern-makers. Tursers Planers Drillers Plusers Finishers Fitters Smiths Hammermen Platers	\$6 62 6 40 6 13 4 74 6 11 6 27 6 64 4 54 7 70	Carpenters Smiths finishers Paintere Ship riveters and calkers Ship-smiths Holders-on Average of all classes	5 97 5 30 6 49 6 90 3 90 6 11
Rivetors Calters Joiners Bawyers	6 96 6 96 6 40 5 52	Unskilled labor	3 6 03

Works of John Elder & Co.—The author went to Glasgow from Liverpool on purpose to obtain trustworthy information in regard to the cost and condition of labor in the ship-yards and engineering-works on the Clyde. The facts and figures immediately preceding were obtained afterward and forwarded at the date indicated, as well as more extended information as to the condition of the working classes in Glasgow, which will be found under its appropriate head. The following extract from the author's note-book affords some information in regard to a wellknown firm which has recently forwarded one of the most valuable statements in this report:

GLASGOW, October 15, 1872.

Reached here this morning after an uncomfortable night-journey from Liverpool, in an unwarmed car. Having been furnished with a letter of introduction to Messrs. J. an unwarmed car. Having been furnished with a letter of introduction to Messrs. J. Elder & Co., one of the most eminent iron-ship-building firms, we crossed one of the bridges over the Clyde, examined their upper works, and rode down about three miles to their yard; were courteously received by one of the partners, who conducted us through every part of the works, explaining every process, from the drawings and models to the finished ship ready for launching. The demand for iron vessels has become so great that this firm and nearly all the other builders are working to their utmost capacity. A steamship which had already received part of her plating was on the stocks, from which another had been launched but thirteen days previously. The ships of the National Line, plying between Liverpool and New York, were built by this firm, and are of great strength and entire seaworthiness, [as we afterwards ascertained by a return-passage in one of them.] The tools and machines in use in Elder's works were fully equal and a few superior to those in Laird's well-known establishment, which I visited on the previous day.

The increase in wages and in iron and other materials has greatly enhanced the cost The increase in wages and in iron and other materials has greatly enhanced the cost of building iron ships. One nearly completed was pointed out for which the builders were to receive £130,000, of the same size as another which had previously been built on the same spot for £91,000. True, there were some changes made in the construction of the higher-priced vessel, which enhanced her cost to some extent.

The great demand for Clyde-built ships has not been caused by their superiority, (for, no doubt, those of Newcastle, Birkenhead, and Belfast are equally as good,) but from the fact that they can be built at less cost owing in part to the chappears of many

from the fact that they can be built at less cost, owing in part to the cheapness of materials, but chiefly to the abundance of skilled workmen and the low rate of wages paid to them. True, there has been a large advance in labor, averaging about 15 per cent., but it has been no greater, proportionately, than in England, thus leaving the relative rates as before.

As some changes in the rates of wages, as well as in the price of iron ships, have since taken place, the figures then obtained are not presented The following statement, however, gives in detail the number of men in each branch or subdivision of labor in the ship-yard and in the engineering and boiler works respectively, and the rate of wages paid

The average rates are computed in United States gold and the gen-

eral average of skilled workmen given, which amounts to \$7.07½ in the engineering-works and \$7.13 in the ship-yard; or to \$7.96 and \$8.02, respectively, in lawful money of the United States.

Average weekly wages (per week of 51 hours) paid to persons employed in the engineering and boiler works, and in the ship-building yard of John Elder & Co., at Glasgow and Govan, in the year 1874.

ENGINEERING AND BOILER WORKS.		į	SHIP-BUILDING YARD.		
A vorage number.	Occupation.	Wages.	A verage number.	Occupation.	Wages.
_	Machinista:		119	Fitters	87.1
16	Best	\$7.50	226	Helpers	4 1
23	Ordinary		14	Angle-iron smiths	66
22	Inferior	5 3⊮	13	Helpers	4 1
26	Helpers	4 08	7.5	Ship-smiths	6.6
68	Pattern-makers and joiners		100	Helpers.	4 3
19	Turners	7 30	146	Riveters	66
20	Engine-fittors	6 88	!	(Holders-on	
3	Blacksmiths	7 26	152	Rivet-boys	1 8
ũ	Hammermen	4 56	63	Catkers	6 6
7	Millwrights	7 90	88	Drillers	4 7
io l	Apprentices	2 54	266	Joiners	7 9
7	Laborers	4 10	37	Apprentices	
7	Brass-founders	8 74	18	Cabinet-makers	8
5	Foundery dressers	5 40	7	Pattern-makers	
9	Foundery laborers	4 35	8	Blockmakers.	7
2	Brass-finishers	6 76	37	Machinists	6
5	Coppersmiths	8 23	256	Carpenters	
2	Crane-men	6 05	40	Apprentices	3
6	Riggers.	6 17	25	Boat-builders	
4	Boiler-makers	7 98 !	43	Iron-finishers	7
	Riveters and calkers	7 00	15	Brass-finishers	
6	Holders-on.	4 84	10	Mechanics	
4		7 74	25	Plumbors	3
9	FlangersBlacksmiths	6 52	13	Tin smiths.	
4			59	Painters	
	Hammermen	4 60 ± 3 50		Rod-leaders	1
8 8	Apprentices	1 56	45		
	Rivet-boys		45	RiggersLaborers	4
6	Laborers or helpers	3 87	227	Carters	3
0	Foremen, (engineer, &c).	14 64	13 9		4
6	Sundry	13 94	25	Furbace-men	10
	İ		ಜ	Foremen	10
	Average of 582 skilled work-			Average of 1,407 skilled work-	
- 1	men	7 071		men	7

DUNDEE, SCOTLAND.

Dundee has been celebrated for its manufactures of linen and hempen fabrics, chiefly of the coarser descriptions. The manufacture of linen appears to have been introduced from Germany in the beginning of the last century. Insignificant in extent at first, it gradually increased until the close of that century, when machinery having been applied to the spinning of flax, a great impulse was given to it. Hand-spinning has been entirely superseded by machine-spinning. The chief articles of manufacture are shirtings, sail-cloth, dowlas, sacking, and bagging.

Dundee is now best known as the seat of the jute manufacture, including all kinds of jute carpeting. Manufactures of jute are almost exclusively carried on here. The consumption in Dundee of this material, which is grown in India, amounts to nearly 40,000 tons annually.

As the raw material is inexpensive, costing in Dundee from 2 to 3 pence per pound, the cloth made from it, reckoned by weight, is the cheapest textile fabric made in Great Britain. Of jute many varieties of fabrics are made, from the coarsest mail-bagging to carpets of great beauty. This range includes pack sheets for every species of merchandise, sacks for wool, coffee, and guano, &c.

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The annual value of the flax, hemp, and jute manufactures in Dundee is upward of £3,000,000.

Dundee is also famous for its manufacture of confectionery, which is

exported to all parts of the world.

Ship-building and machine-making are carried on to some extent.

The author was unable to make a personal examination of the jute industry, although strongly urged by Mr. Consul McDougall in the following extract:

DUNDEE. June 10, 1872.

Permit me to press upon you the necessity (if at all possible) of your visiting this city. The jute manufactures here, to the extent of three-fourths of the whole quantity manufactured, go direct to the United States. The quantities made are something enormous. They are peculiar to Dundee alone, and the machinery in operation is so attractive and powerful that it is of the utmost importance that the bureau which you represent should be fully apprised of the Dundee jute and linen manufactures. Indeed, I am bound to say that in no other city will you receive such useful information, and of such paramount importance to the United States, as you will receive here.

Mr. McDougall forwarded the following statements of the rates of wages which obtained in Dundee at the periods indicated:

FACTORY-LABOR.

Wages paid per week at Dundee, Scotland, the seat of the jute and linen trades, October, 1872.

	;	Per week.		Per wee	
Occupation.	Hours of labor.	Wages in U. S. gold.	Occupation.	Hours of labor.	Wages in U. S. gold.
Jute-spinning, preparing flat: Foremen Women Boya, 12 to 15 years Jute, spinning flat: Spinnera, women Piercera, girla, (12 to 15 yra.) Shiftera, girla, (12 to 15 yra.) Half-timera, boyaand girla, (7 to 12 years) Bobbin-windera, women Cop-windera, women Warpera, women Pawer-loom tentera, men Power-loom weavera, women Machinista	58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58	*#6 53 #2 18 to 2 43 1 69 to 1 93 2 48 to 9 66 1 81 to 1 93 1 57 to 1 69 36 to 2 90 2 66 to 3 14 2 90 to 4 12 6 53 to 7 26 6 53 to 7 26 2 66 to 3 38 6 29 to 8 71	Plasterers Plumbers Brass-finishers Molders Bakers Paintere Shoemakers Tailors Domestic servants:	51 51 51 51 51 51 51 51 51 51 60 51	\$6 29 6 77 4 11 to 4 84 5 81 to 6 05 7 26 6 05 6 78 to 7 74 6 29 to 6 78 5 81 to 6 78 5 81 to 6 78 5 81 to 6 78 5 81 to 6 78 5 81 to 6 78 5 81 to 6 78 5 81 to 6 78 5 81 to 6 78 5 81 to 6 78

^{*} Per year, with board.

Average rates of wages per week paid to the different workers employed by a jute-weaving establishment at Dundee, February, 1875.

	Wag	es per	week.		Wages per		r week.	
Occupation.	Lowest.	Highest.	Average.	. Occupation.	Lowest.	Highest.	Атегаде.	
Jute-pickers Strikers-up Hand at softeners Preparers Spinners Coarse spinners Piccers Bifters, (half-timers) Reciers Cop-winders Warp-winders	\$2 48 2 18 2 66 2 66 2 18 2 42 2 78	\$3 51 \$ 90 \$ 90 76 3 15 3 39 3 39	\$4 72 3 15 3 02 2 48 2 46 1 87 72 2 78 3 02 3 15	Single-loom weavers Double-loom weavers Tenters Starohers Mill-overseers Calendermen: Lappers Calenderers Measurers, tiers, &c. Mechanics Joiners	5 81 6 05 4 84 4 84 4 36	\$7 02 6 53 7 74 5 69 5 81 5 57	\$2 54 3 51	

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Statement showing the rates of wages paid for mechanical and farm labor in the consular district of Dundee during the year 1874.

MECHANICAL LABOR.

Occupation.	Wages per week.	Occupation.	Wages per week.
Blacksmiths	8 40 to 9 60 6 00 to 7 20 7 20 to 7 68 6 48 to 7 20 10 00 to 12 00 6 00 to 7 00	Tauners Tin-smiths Wheelwrights	6 00 to 7 90

FARM AND OTHER LABOR.

	Wages per month.
Farm-hands { Experienced (Ordinary Common laborers at other than farm-work	\$12 40 to \$15 00, with board. 11 90 to 12 40, with board. 23 84 without board. 4 20 to \$10 00, with board.

Mr. P. Fleming, of Dundee, emigration agent, when in Washington, furnished the following rates of wages, per week of fifty-one hours, obtained in that town in 1872:

Occupation.	Wages.	. Occupation.	Wages.
Mechanics	2 90 to 3 38 per week. 2 18 to 2 42 per week.	Overseer. Joiners Plasterers Masons Painters	6 17 per week. 14 per hour.

LEITH, SCOTLAND.

Population in 1871, 44,280.

This is the sea-port of Edinburgh, from which it is only about a mile and a half distant. The water of Leith, at its confluence with the Frith of Forth, divides the town into two parts, called, respectively, North and South Leith. The principal buildings are the exchange, the custom-house, thetown-house, the church of South Leith, and the forts—a military station for a small body of artillery.

The chief manufactures of Leith are ropes, sail-cloth, locomotiveengines and machinery, glass, soap, ale, refined sugar, and oil-seed cakes. Iron and timber ship-building is also carried on to a considera-

ble extent.

RATES OF WAGES IN 1872.

The following statements, showing the rates of wages paid in 1872 for mechanical and agricultural labor in the Leith consular district, which includes the city of Edinburgh, were furnished by Mr. Consul Robeson:

MECHANICAL LABOR.

Sistement showing the rates of wages paid to mechanics in Leith, Scotland, in October, 1872.

Classes of operatives.	Working-hours per week.	Weekly waged.	Remarks.
I. Masons	51	\$6 95	Wages of masons are greatly reduced by what is called "broken time," arising from unfavorable weather, and the average weekly earnings of this class of tradesmen throughout the year may be stated at \$6.05. Average wages, 13 cents per hour. Working-time: 9 hours for 5 days and 6 hours on Saturdays. Overtime paid at the rate of 10d. (30 cents) per hour. Teams one week's warning. This class of mechanics is not so liable to loss from
III. Plumbers. IV. Hlacksmiths V. Plasterers VI. Tinsmiths	51 51 51 51	. 6 75 6 05 7 20 6 29	chanics is not so liable to loss from broken time as masons. No broken time. Do. Wages of plasterers, like those of masons, are greatly reduced during the year by broken time, arising from unfavorable weather, and the average weekly earnings of this class may be stated at \$6.29. No broken time.
VII. Bootmakers: Closers Makers of gentiemen's boots Makers of ladies' boots Jobbers VIII. Linen-manufacturing operatives:	•	7 26 6 78 6 05 5 32	These wages obtain all the year round. The hours during which these classes work throughout the year are as follows: Feb. 15 to Nov. 9, 9 hours for 5 days and Saturdays 6 hours; Nov. 9 to 27, 8 hours for 5 days and Saturdays 5 hours; Nov. 27 to Jsn. 11, 74 hours for 5 days and Saturdays 4 hours; Jan. 11 to Feb. 15, 8 hours for 5 days and Saturdays 5 hours.
Skilled workmen	51 51	\$0 84 to 1 21 per day. \$0 84 to \$1 21	According to ability. This class has no broken time. Do.
Young women and girls	51	per day. 2 42, \$3 39, and \$3 87.	Do
IX. Engineers and millwrights: Best hands Second-class hands Third-class hands X. Painters:	51 51 51	7 26 6 77 6 05	Extra time is paid for according to cir- cumstances: usually "time and a quar- ter" and 1d. (2 ceuts) per hour as an allowance over and above. These op- eratives are not liable to broken time.
Journeymen house-painters Grain-men and ornamental painters. Boys XI. Printers and binders in Edinburgh:		6 67 15 cts., 36 cts., and 48. cts. per hour. * \$0 73	73 cents extra per week allowed to each man working 14 miles or upward from the center of the town; also railway-fares to and from work when necessary. Boys get 3s. first year, and wageisraised, according to ability, to \$2.42 and \$2.90 per week during apprenticeship of 6 yrs.
Compositors Letter-press machine men. Letter-press girls Letter-press girls Litthographio-machine men Bookbinders Girls Sewers and folders Apprentices The following are the rates of wages paid in the office of the Daily Scotsmant:	54 54 54 54 54	\$6 89 to 7 26 6 78 to 7 96 1 21 to 1 45 1 45 to 2 90 6 90 to 7 74 7 26 to 8 47 1 94 to 2 90 1 45 to 3 15 60 to 1 21	These are the wages paid to the employes of one of the largest printing and publishing establishments in Scotland. Working-time, 9½ hours for 5 days and 6½ hours on Saturdays. These operatives have no broken time, and the working-hours specified obtain all the year round.
Compositors Regular right-hands	524 48 524	7 86 9 68 7 26 to 10 40	These day-hands work usually 8 hours extra time during the week, for which they are paid at the rate of is. per hour; hence their weekly wages amount to 40s. 6d. No broken time. According to ability.
Casual night-hands	48	8 47 to 13 31	According to ability; hours, 8 p. m. to 4 a. m.; † of an hour off.

^{*}According to ability. † The principal Edinburgh paper, if not the most influential paper in Scotland.

Statement showing the rates of wages paid to mechanics in Leith, &c.—Continued.

Classes of operatives.	Working-hours per week.	Weekly waged.	Remarks.
Rates of wages paid in the office of the Daily Scotaman.—Continued. Machinists. Machinists, feeders, (boys, 16 to 24 years.) In the establishment of the Edinburgh Courant. XII. Carters XIII. Laborers	521	\$9 68 \$3 87 to 4 36 4 4 84 4 88	Day-compositors are paid at the rate of 6d and 6åd., and night-compositors 7åd. and 8d., per 1,000 types, according to aise. This obtains all the year round. Masons' laborers average weekly wages throughout the year may be stated at \$3.84. Day-laborers in country and land-ward districts are paid at the rates of 73 cents and 84 cents per day, but taking into consideration the broken time to which they are exposed, the average weekly earnings of that class do not exceed the sums of \$3.84 or \$4.08. Some classes of laborers have little or no broken time, but it is estimated that the average weekly earnings of a laborer in Scotland may be stated at from \$3.36 to \$4.32 per week.

AGRICULTURAL LABOR IN SCOTLAND.

Table showing the earnings of agricultural laborers in Scotland.

	*Annual carnings.					
Class.	In money.	In gains.	Total.	Per wee the round		
Farm-stewards	\$101 64	3½ loads cotmeal, at 40s., £6 10s.; 13 bushels barley, at 4s., £2 8s.; 1,600 yards ground for planting potatoes, £4; cow kept, £7; house and garden, £3; coals, £2; hurvest mest, £1.	\$296 90			
Farm-hinds Farm-shepherds Foresters: Overseers	89 98 116 88	dodo	907 63 949 94	\$ 5 08		
Ordinary hands	•••••		••••••	3.63		

^{*}These are the wages, &c., actually paid to the farm-servants on a farm about 25 miles distant from the city of Edinburgh, and may be stated as a fair average of the annual earnings of farm-servants in the southeastern part of Scotland. Besides these wages, farm-servants ally keep one or two pigs, and are provided by their masters with the necessary straw for "bedding" free of charge. It is of importance to observe that the farm-servant has no broken time from sickness or inclemency of weather, &c.

There is a class of agricultural laborers known as "bendagers," a class of farm-servants almost peculiar to Scotland. These are females, young women who work at field labor. For the summer half-year their money-wages is from £8 to £10, according to experience and ability; and for the winter half-year £6 to £8; that is, in the former case, \$38.72 to \$48.40, and in the latter, \$29.04 to \$38.72. In addition to this wage they have bed, and board, and washing. On some farms it is imperative on the hind to provide a bendager for field-labor, and he hires one accordingly. The bendager lodges in the hind's house and shares the family living. For her services on the farm the farmer pays the hind at the rate of 30.2 cents a day for nine months of the year, and 24.2 cents per day for three months, with an allowance of \$4.84 for harvest-food,

and \$2.42 per week for four weeks during harvest operations, in lieu of the ordinary rate of 30 cents per day. This system of bendage is a fruitful source of complaint among the hinds, whose circumstances are, in these days of dear provisions, greatly stinted by being thus, as it were, each compelled to maintain a female worker for the farmer. In many districts the bendage system has been dispensed with altogether, and it is gradually becoming a thing of the past. It is evident that the condition of the bendager, so far as regards remuneration, is much better relatively than that of her master, the hind.

TRELAND.

Ireland has of late years been regarded as an agricultural country. and while it is possessed of cheap labor and other facilities for carrying on manufacturing with success, has not, for various reasons, kept pace with the countries across the Channel, especially since the introduction The manufacture of linens, which has its seat at Belfast, of machinery. and of Irish poplins, which are produced in Dublin, are industries widely known and highly celebrated. To a limited degree cotton, wool, and worsted fabrics are produced; as is also lacein Limerick. Great progress has been made within the last few years in the manufacture of embroidered muslin, which employs about 300,000 persons, principally females. The annual value of the manufactured goods amounts to £1,400,000. Indeed, at the present time the established branches of production and commerce are taking a wide sweep. A better system of agriculture has. within a brief period, been introduced, and with it a larger demand, and consequently a better remuneration for labor. The immense emigration, chiefly to the United States, as appears from a statement on page 241, has not only served to improve the material condition of the emigrants, and reacted on Ireland by the increased wealth and position of those who have sought fortune in other lands, but by reducing the excess of population, has largely advanced the rates of wages of those who remain at home.

WAGES OF IRISH FARM LABORERS.

The following information in regard to the wages of farm laborers in Ireland appears in the journal of the Statistical Society of London, March, 1870, and is computed in United States gold:

Counties.	Per day.				Perweek.			Per year.	
	With 1	ooard.	With		With b	oard.	Without board.	With bo	ærd.
Cork, Limerick, Waterford Antrim, Armagh, Down, Lon- donderry, Tyrone	10 24 to	\$ 0 61		\$ 0 97	\$0 73 to	\$ 1 46	\$1 70 to \$2 43	\$38 93 to 94 33 to	-
Dublin, Wicklow, Kildare Meath, Queens, Wexford Louth, Cavan, Down	17 t o	85* 33 24	80 24 to	49		97 1 46	1 70 2 43	24 35 10	••••
Kings, Longford, Roscommon Westmeath Donegal, Fermanagh	37 to		24 to	37		1 56	1 92	48 67 to	38 9:
Clare, Galway, Kerry, Limer- ick Cork		•••••	37 to	49		1 96	2 43	58 37 to	••••
Carlow, Cork, Tipperary Leitrim, Mayo, Roscommon .	37 to 37 to 99 to	50		35		122	1 83 1 46	38 93 to	50 10 48 6
Sligo Spring	95 to				l	2 93*		38 93 to	48 6

* Harvest-wages. Digitized by Google

Statement showing the rates of wages paid for mechanical and other labor in Ireland in the year 1873.

Occupation,	Waterford.	Cork.	Londonderry.
MECHANICS. Blacksmiths. Bricklayers, masons. Cabinet-makers. Carpenters. Coopers. Machinists. Painters. Plasterers. Stone-outters. Tailors. Tanners. Tinsmiths. Wheelwrights.	7 30 per week. 6 34 per week. 7 50 to \$9 60 per week. 6 00 per week. 6 73 per week. 6 73 per week. 6 74 to \$7 30 per week. 6 00 per week. 7 200 per week.	5 84 per week	98 to 1 04 per day. 72 to 1 32 per day. 73 to 1 08 per day. 1 30 to 1 80 per day. 1 08 to 1 55 per day. 96 to 1 44 per day. 5 76 to 6 24 per week. 96 to 1 44 per day.
PARM LABORERS.			
Experienced hands: In summer In winter Ordinary hands: In summer In winter Common laborers, at other than farm work.	• •	2 43 per week	36 to 40 per day. 36 to 40 per day. 32 to 36 per day. 32 to 36 per day. 36 to 72 per day.
Female servants	60 00 per annum		40 00 to 60 00 per annum.
Apprentices or boys, 1874 Foremen or overseers.	19 40 to \$15 per month	1 46 per week	

Mr. E. H. Derby, of Boston, who traveled in Ireland in 1872, gives the following memoranda in regard to wages at that time:

Londonderry—servant girls, 13s. per month; servant men, from £10 to £14 per year; masons, 4s. per day. Girls in shirt factories earned an average of 8s.; many at piecework earned from 6s. 4d. to £1 per week each.

Housemaids in Dublin get £10 per year. A washerwoman earns 1s. 6d. per day. Wages of farm laborers, with board, 10s. to 12s. per week. Extra help 2s. to 3s. each per day.

BELFAST.

Population in 1871, 174,413.

Belfast is the chief manufacturing and commercial town and the great depot of the linen trade of the north of Ireland. It is the center of the Irish linen manufacture,* to the cultivation of which it is mainly indebted for its prosperty. There are also flour-mills and saw-mills, founderies, tanneries, breweries, and distilleries, a felt manufactory and vitriol-works, and being a maritime town it has extensive ship and rope yards. It presents an appearance of bustling activity not to be found elsewhere in Ireland.

^{*}Linen was woven in Ireland as early as the eleventh century, but the first mention of Irish linen on record occurs in the thirteenth century, it being stated that in 1272 it was used in Winchester.

TRON-SHIP-BUILDING AND ENGINEERING WORKS.

Iron-ship-building is extensively carried on by Messrs. Harland & Wolff, the builders of the well-known steamships of the White Star Line. Facilities for this branch of industry, equal to those on the Clyde, are possessed at Belfast; indeed, the rates of wages are said to be somewhat lower. The following rates paid by the firm above mentioned and kindly furnished for this report, being given by the day, and not in such detail as the statements made by the firm of Messrs. J. Elder & Co., of Glasgow, are, therefore, not so valuable for purposes of comparison.

Average wages per day (computed in United States gold) paid by Messrs. Harland & Wolff to hands employed in their iron-ship-building and engineering works in Outober, 1874.

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Platers, riveters, and calkers Holders-on Shipwrights Joiners Painters Sawyers	68 1 29 1 10 1 17	Riggers. Smiths. Hammermen Fitters and pattern-makers. Laborers.	1 06 58 1 15

DUBLIN.

Population in 1871, 267,717.

Dublin City, the capital of Ireland, claims a high antiquity. In the early part of the ninth century it was taken by the Danes, and in 1169 by the English under Strongbon. The manufactures are limited to Irish poplins, stockings, cotton, and a few other fabrics. Iron casting, cabinet making, and manufactures of the minor articles of jewelry and apparel are thriving, but afford employment to but a small part of the population. The well-known Dublin porter is an important item in the trade of the city, the exports in 1871 reaching 281,301 hogsheads.

Mr. Wilson King, United States consul at Dublin, under date of November 24, 1873, writes as follows:

In all, or nearly all, branches of labor wages are greatly higher than they formerly were, and I do not think that the cost of living has advanced proportionately. Bread is slightly dearer, but meat, sugar, and tea, and even oatmeal, can be had for nearly the same as before the advance in wages.

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AGRICULTURAL WAGES IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

Rates of agricultural wages and amount of weekly earnings for men, women, and children, in each county of England and Wales, in the quarters ended Michaelmas and Christmas, 1869, and Lady Day and Midsummer, 1870.

[Compiled from parliamentary papers, No. 371, of session 1870, and No. 181, of session 1871.]

		Ме	en.	Women.	Children under 16.
Districts and counties.	Quarters ended—	Weekly wages without lodg- ing and food.	Weekly earn- ings by task- work.	Weekly wages without lodg- ing and food.	Weekly wages without lodging and food.
SOUTHBASTERN.					
Surrey	Michaelmas, 1869*	\$3 38 3 14 \$3 14 to 3 38	\$3 63 to \$4 64 3 63	\$1 21 to \$1 45 1 21 to 1 45 1 33 to 1 45	\$0 96 to \$1 03 62 to 1 08 1 08 to 1 21
Kent	Lady Day, 1870 Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870	3 38 to 3 63 3 14 to 3 63 3 14 to 3 63	4 35 to 6 05 3 63 to 4 35 3 38 to 4 11	1 45 to 2 17 1 45 1 45 to 1 61	72 to 1 49 72 to 1 93 72 to 1 21
Sussex	Midsummer, 1870 . Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869	3 38 2 66 to 3 26† 2 66 to 2 90† 2 66 to 3 14†	4 11 3 63 to 4 84 3 14 to 3 63 3 02 to 4 35	1 45 1 45 1 21 1 21 to 1 45	96 to 1 21 48 to 1 49 72 to 1 08 72 to 1 45
Southampton	Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870. Michaelmas, 1869* Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870	2 66 to 2 90 2 66 2 66 2 42 to 2 66	3 14 to 3 63 4 35 to 4 84 2 90 to 3 26 2 90 to 3 63	1 21 to 1 45 1 21 72 to 96 72 to 1 21	72 to 96 96 to 1 21 1 21 84 to 1 33
Berkshire	Midsummer, 1870 Michaelmaa, 1869*. Christmaa, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870	2 42 to 2 90 2 66 to 3 14 1 93 to 2 42 2 42 2 17 to 2 42	2 90 to 3 63 3 63 to 4 84 2 42 to 3 14 2 66 to 3 14 2 90 to 3 63	96 to 1 21 1 21 to 1 45 96 to 1 08 96 to 1 08 96 to 1 21	73 to 1 21 1 21 to 1 69 84 to 1 69 84 to 96 84 to 1 31
SOUTH MIDLAND.	,				
Herts	Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870	2 72 to 4 34 2 54 to 3 14 2 60 to 3 14	5 47 3 96 3 26	1 08 1 08 96	96 to 2 69 96 96 to 1 08
North'mptenshire	Midsummer, 1870 Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1879	2 78 to 3 14 2 90 to 3 14 2 42 to 3 26 2 66 to 2 90	3 63 3 63 to 6 05 3 38 to 4 11 3 38 to 3 63	96 to 1 45 72 to 1 45 96 to 1 45	96 84 to 1 45 48 to 1 08 84 to 1 08
Huntingdon	Midsummer, 1970 Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1969 Lady Day, 1870	2 66 to 2 90 3 87 2 66 2 66	3 14 to 5 08 4 35 3 38 2 90	96 to 1 45 1 45 1 91 1 21	60 to 84 1 45 72 to 96 72 to 1 21
Bodfordshire	Midsummer, 1870 Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870	2 42 2 66 to 3 63 2 42 to 3 38 2 42 to 3 38	2 90 3 63 to 5 32 2 66 to 2 90 2 66 to 2 90	1 21 to 1 45	96 60 to 1 45 60 to 1 21 60 to 1 21
Cambridge	Midsummer, 1870*. Michaelmas, 1869*.	2 42 to 3 38 2 42 to 2 90	3 03 to 3 87	1 21 to 1 45 72 to 1 21	60 to 1 45 48 to 84
Bastern.					
Essex	Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869* Lady Day, 1870	9 42 to 3 63† 2 42 to 3 02† 2 42 to 2 90†	2 90 to 7 26 2 42 to 3 87	84 to 1 21 84 to 72 84 to 1 45	48 to 1 45 48 to 1 45 48 to 1 45
Suffolk	Midsummer, 1870. Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869. Lady Day, 1870	2 42 to 2 90† 2 17 to 2 90 2 42 to 2 90 2 42 to 2 90 2 42 to 2 90	2 42 to 3 38 3 38 to 7 26 2 90 to 3 38	84 to 1 21 96 to 1 08 96 to 1 08 96 to 1 08	48 to 1 45 48 to 1 69 48 to 96 48 to 1 45
Norfolk	Midsummer, 1870 Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870*.	2 42 to 2 90 2 42 to 3 14 2 17 to 3 14 2 42 to 3 14 2 42 to 3 14	3 14 to 4 35 2 90 to 3 63 2 90 2 90 to 3 87	96 73 to 1 21 73 to 1 21 96 to 1 08 72 to 1 21	48 to 1 45 94 to 1 91 48 to 1 91 48 to 1 91 48 to 1 91
Southwrstern.					
Wilte	Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870	9 42 to 9 90 2 29 to 9 66 2 29 to 9 66	3 87 to 4 35 2 90 to 3 14 2 90 to 3 63	96 to 1 45 84 to 1 21 84 to 1 45	48 to 1 45 48 to 1 45 48 to 1 45
Dorset	Midsummer, 1870*. Michaelmas, 1876*. Christmas, 1869 Ladg Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870*.	2 42 to 2 90 2 17 to 2 42† 2 05 to 2 17† 2 05 to 2 90†	3 14 to 3 38 3 63 to 4 35 9 90 to 3 14 2 17 to 3 26 3 42 to 4 35	84 to 1 21 96 72 to 96 84 to 96 72 to 1 45	48 to 1 45 48 to 1 08 48 to 96 48 to 1 45 73 to 1 69

^{*} With beer at hay-time and harvest.

[†] Usually with beer at harvest-time. __ ; With food.

Rates of agricultural wages and amount of weekly carnings, &c .- Continued.

Districts and counties.			en.	Women.	Children under
	Quarters ended-	Weekly wages without lodg- ing and food.	Weekly earnings by task-work.	Weekly wages without lodg- ing and food.	Weekly wages without lodging and food.
Devonshire	Christmas, 1869; Lady Day, 1870;	\$1 93 to \$2 90† 2 17 to 2 66† 2 05 to 2 90†	\$2 17 to \$3 63 2 54 to 3 63 2 42 to 3 63	\$96 to \$1 08 96 to 1 08 96 to 1 08	\$36 to \$1 21 72 to 1 21 48 to 1 21
Cornwall	Midsummer, 1870: Michaelmas, 1869. Christmas, 1869. Lady Day, 1870.	2 17 to 2 90† 2 66 2 66 2 66	2 42 to 3 38 3 63 3 38 3 63	96 to 1 08 1 08 1 08 96	72 to 1 21 1 08 72 72
Somerset	Midsummer, 1870 Michaelmas, 1869; Christmas, 1869; Lady Day, 1870; Midsummer, 1870;	2 66 2 42 to 2 90 2 42 to 2 54 2 42 to 2 66 2 42	3 63 3 38 to 4 84 2 90 2 42 to 3 14 2 90	96 to 1 45 1 21 to 1 45 1 21 to 1 21 1 21	96 to 1 93 1 45 84 to 96 84 to 1 45
WEST MIDLAND.					
Gloucestershire	Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869; Lady Day, 1870;	2 42 to 3 141 2 42 to 2 90† 2 17 to 2 90†	3 38 to 5 08 2 90 to 3 63 2 90 to 3 63	1 21 to 1 57 96 to 1 21 96 to 1 21	96 to 1 21 72 to 1 21 84 to 1 21
Herefordshire	Midsummer, 1870† Michaelmas, 1869† Christmas, 1869† Lady Day, 1870‡	2 17 to 2 90† 2 42 to 2 54 2 17 to 2 42 2 17 to 2 66	2 90 to 4 84 3 14 to 4 84 2 66 2 90	96 to 1 21 96 to 1 08 96 to 1 21 96 to 1 08	84 to 1 21 48 to 1 45 60 to 1 21 72 to 1 45
Shropshire	Midsummer, 1870†. Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869* Lady Day, 1870*	2 17 to 2 90 2 42 to 2 90† 2 42 to 3 14† 2 42 to 3 14	2 66 to 3 63 3 63 to 3 87	96 to 1 21 1 08 84 to 1 08 84 to 1 08	79 to 1 45 1 91
Stafford	Midsummer, 1870*. Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869*. Lady Day, 1870*.	2 66 to 3 14 3 14 3 14 3 14	5 08 3 87	1 08 1 21 1 21 1 21	1 45 to 1 93 84 84 84
Weroestershire	Midsummer, 1870*. Michaelmas, 1869‡. Christmas, 1869‡ Lady Day, 1870‡	3 14 2 66 to 3 87 2 42 to 3 14 2 42 to 2 90	3 87 2 90 to 6 05 2 90 to 3 87 2 42 to 3 87	72 to 1 45 72 to 1 21 72 to 1 21 96 to 1 21	48 to 1 45 48 to 96 48 to 1 45
Warwickshire	Midsummer, 1870;. Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870 .	2 42 to 2 90 2 66 to 3 87 2 54 to 3 14 2 66 to 3 63	2 42 to 3 87 3 75 to 4 84 3 14 3 63	96 to 1 21 24 to 72 84 to 1 21 64 to 96 64 to 1 43	48 to 1 45 72 to 96 72 to 1 45 84 to 96
NORTH MIDLAND.					
Leicesterahire	Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870	3 14 to 3 63 2 90 to 3 14 2 90 to 3 38	3 14 3 63 to 3 75	96 to 1 45 84 to . 96	36 to 72 72 to 84 84 to 1 45
Rutland ,	Midsummer, 1870. Michaelmas, 1869. Christmas, 1869. Lady Day, 1870	3 14 3 02 2 90 2 90	3 63 to 4 84 4 84	96 to 1 21 1 45	79 to 96 84 to 1 45 72 72 to 1 45
Lincoln	Michaelmas, 1869*. Christmas, 1869	3 14 3 38 3 26 to 3 63	5 56	79 72	72 to 1 45 96 72 to 96
Nottinghamahire.	Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870. Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870	3 26 3 26 to 3 63 3 26 2 90 to 3 26	4 53 4 35 to 7 26 3 75 to 7 26 4 72	1 45 1 45 1 45	72 to 1 93 96 1 08
Derbyshire	Midsummer, 1870 . Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870	2 90 to 3 38 2 90 to 3 63 2 90 to 3 63 3 38 3 38	3 50 to 4 36 3 63 to 4 36 3 63 3 87	1 21 to 1 81 1 08 to 1 45 2 42 to 2 90 1 45 96 to 1 45	84 to 1 21 96 to 1 08 48 to 1 45
BORTHWESTERN.	İ				
Cheshire	Michaelmas, 1869t.	9 90 to 3 63	4 84	1 45 to 2 17	96
Lancashire	Christmas, 1869† Lady Day, 1870† Midsummer, 1870† Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870	2 90 to 3 63 2 90 to 3 63 2 90 to 3 63 3 63 2 90 to 3 63 3 63 3 63 to 4 35	3 63 4 35 to 5 80 3 87 to 4 84 3 63 to 4 84	1 45 to 2 17 1 45 to 2 17 1 45 to 2 17 1 81 to 2 17 1 45 to 2 42 1 81 to 2 17 1 81 to 2 17	1 08 to 1 45 1 21 to 1 81 1 45 to 2 18

Rates of agricultural wages and amount of weekly earnings, &c.—Continued.

		Men.	Women.	Children under 16.
Districts and counties.	Quarters ended—	Weekly wages without lodgings by to ing and food. Weekly weekly es ings by to work.	Weekly wages without lodg- ing and food.	Weekly wages without lodg- ing and food.
YORKSHIRE.				
West Riding	Michaelmas, 1869†. Christmas, 1869	\$3 38 to \$5 80	\$1 45 to \$3 38 1 35 1 45 to 1 69	\$1 21 to \$3 38 96 to 1 93
North Riding	Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870 Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas 1869 Lady Day 1870 Midsummer, 1870	3 26 to 4 11 3 63 to 4 35 3 63 to 4 78 3 90 to 3 87 2 90 to 3 63		72 to 1 45 96 to 1 45 72 to 1 45 78 to 1 45 60 to 96 84 to 96
NORTHERN.				
Durham	Michaelmas, 1869§. Christmas, 1869	3 63 to 3 87 i	35 1 21 to 1 81 96 to 1 45	84 to 96
•	Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870	3 63 to 4 111	1 08 to 1 45	84 to 1 21
Northumberland.	Christmas, 1869	3 63 to 5 80	96 to 4 35	96 to 2 17 60 to 1 45
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870	3 63 to 4 35	1 21 to 1 81	72 to 1 45 72 to 1 45 1 08 to 1 45
Cumberland	Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869	2 42 to 3 63	1 81 to 2 17 1 45 to 1 69 1 45 to 1 81	1 08 to 1 45 72 72 to 1 08
Westmoreland	Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870 . Michaelmas, 1869§.	3 63 to 4 35	1 45 to 1 81	72 to 1 45 30 to 1 29
W de milor ciana	Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870	3 63 to 3 87 3 38 to 4 11 3 99 to 4 35	1 45 2 17	1 21 54 to 1 21
WELSH.	·			
Monmouth	Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870 .	2 42 to 3 63 3 63 to 4 2 66 to 4 00 3 63 to 4		36 48
WALES.				
Unions.				
Merthyr Tydfil	Michaelmas, 1969 † Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870	2 90 to 4 11	3 87 1 91 to 1 45 96 to 1 91 96 to 1 91 96 to 1 45	72 48 to 72
Bridgend and	Midsummer, 1870 . Michaelmas, 1969 .	3 63		79 to 1 69
Cowbridge.	Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870 .	3 14 to 3 63	08 1 45 08 1 45	72 to 169
Gower	Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869	' %,90* 3	63* 1 45 63 1 45	73 to 1 69 1 69 1 45
	Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870	2 90 2 90	1 45 1 45	
Llanelly	Michaelmas, 1869†. Christmas, 1869	3 14 to 3 63	1 21 to 1 45	79 to 96 79 to 96
	Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870.	3 14 to 3 63	1 45 1 45	1 21 1 21
Llandils-fawr	Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869	2 42 to 2 90 4 84 to 5 2 42 to 2 90 2 90 to 3	80 1 21 to 1 45	79 to 96
	Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870	2 42 to 3 38	96 to 1 21 96 to 1 21	79 to 96 79 to 96
	Michaelmas, 1869 .	2 90 3	63 1 21	72
Carmarthen	Christmas, 1869			92
	Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870 .	9 17 9 9 17 9	90 92	92
Haverfordwist	Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870 . Michaelmas, 1869 .	2 17 2 17 2 17 2 42 to 2 90 1 21 to 1 451	99 99 1 45 96	
	Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870 Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870	2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17	99 92 1 45 96 98 98	92
Haverfordwist	Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870 Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869	2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17 2 17	1 90 92 1 45 96 96 972 to 1 45 1 42 96	92

With beer at hay-time and harvest.
† Usually with beer at harvest-time.
† With food.
† With food and cider at harvest-time, and a cottage, &c.
† Usually with food and beer at harvest-time.

Rates of agricultural wages and amount of weekly earnings, &c.—Continued.

		щ	М ел.		Children under 16.
Districts and counties.	Quarters ended—	Weekly wages without lodg- ing and food.	Weekly earn- ings by task- work.	Weekly wages without lodg- ing and food.	Weekly wages without lodg- ing and food.
Crickhowell	Michaelmas, 1869 ⁴ . Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870	\$2 90 2 90 2 90 2 90 \$2 90 to 3 14	\$3 63 3 63	\$1 45 1 21 1 21 1 21 \$1 21 to 1 45	\$1 45 96 96
Knighton	Michaelmas, 1869 Christmas, 1869 Lady Day, 1870 Midsummer, 1870 .	2 42* 2 17* 2 42* 2 42* 2 42*	2 42	1 21 (6) 1 45 1 21 96 1 21 1 21	96 50 1 91
Conway	Michaelmas, 1869	1 93† 3 38 1 93† 2 17†		1 45 1 45 1 45 1 45 1 45	1 91 1 45 79 1 45 †24

^{*} With food and cider at harvest-time, and a cottage, &c.

Cornwall ..

Gloucestershire, Shropshire. Worcestershire. Leicestershire.

Lincoln Nottinghamshire Lancashire

Weekly earnings of women and children at task-work.

WOMEN.

•		Quarter	ended—	
Counties.	Michaelmas.	Christmas.	Lady Day.	Midsummer.
Kent Sussex Sussex Southampton Berkshire Northampton Nortolk Wilts Dorset Devenshire Corawall Gloucestershire Herefordshire Stafford Worcestershire Warwickshire Leicestershire Leicestershire Leicestershire North Riding, (Yorkshire) Durham Mommouth Gower, (Wales) Criekhowell	1 45 to 1 60 73 to 1 21 1 93 to 2 42 96 to 1 45 2 05 to 2 17 1 45 to 2 17 1 45 to 2 17 1 45 72 to 2 90 1 39 2 17 2 17 1 45 1 45	96 to 1 25 1 21 to 1 93	96 to 1 93 1 21	96 to 1 45 1 08 to 2 90 96 to 1 21 1 45 1 81 1 45 1 21 to 1 93
CHI	LDREN UNDE	R 16 YEARS.		
Kent	\$1 45 to \$2 90 1 93 1 69 1 81 1 21 to 1 45 24 to 1 21		\$1 08	1 21

1 45 1 81 72 to 1 69

t With food.

A return, similar to the foregoing, was made to the House of Commons in July, 1873, giving the average rate of weekly earnings of agricultural laborers in England and Wales during the quarters ended Michaelmas and Christmas, 1872, so far as the same could be readily obtained.

¹The following information, condensed from this return, exhibits a gratifying improvement in the earnings and the condition of farm-laborers over those of 1869-770:

At Epsom the weekly wages to men were 14s. a week; and women, 6s.; children TAt Epsom the weekly wages to men were 14s. a week; and women, 6s.; children under sixteen years of age, 5s.; and the same stated as weekly earnings by task-work. In the eastern district the men earned 16s. by the week and 20s. by task-work. In Kent (at Faversham) the men earned 20s. as weekly wages and 26s. at task-work. Only those who sow and reap are engaged by task. Beer, ale, and cider are given in some places; in others no refreshment. In one place in Wales the weekly wages to men was from 15s. to 22s., and with "task money" stated at 18s. 6d.; and at the same place breakfast was given, as well as other meals, with about four pints of beer a day. It is mentioned that the supply is afforded during the hay and corn harvests, and it is added, "They are not stinted in food." At Northampton the weekly wages was 14s. Of course, the amount is different in the various counties. In Dorsetshire the wages to the men were from 9s. to 12s. per week. Shepherds 20s. in the lambing season. to the men were from 9s. to 12s. per week. Shepherds, 20s. in the lambing sesson.

On the (Queen's) Osborne farms laborers formerly received but 14s. per week, from which was deducted 2s. for the rent of the cottage with which each is provided. A garden is attached to each cottage. A quantity of thin beer is given to each man.

FARM-WAGES IN 1874.

There has been an advance in the price of farm-labor and a reduction of the hours of labor since 1870.

In an article on the condition of the working-classes of England, which appears on subsequent pages, Mr. Stanley James says:

The average rates of farm-wages throughout England have since risen, and the hours of labor have been reduced. In the northern counties, 18s. a week is now paid for farm-labor; in the midland districts, 16s.; and in the southern districts, from 12s. to 14s. There are still parts of England, however, in which men are paid less than the latter

From the London Times and other undoubted authorities the following information in regard to the prices of farm-labor in Great Britain is obtained:

In Aberdeenshire, a plowman receives from £28 (\$135.52) to £30 (\$145.20) per annum, with food and lodging.

num, with food and lodging.

In Mid Lothian, agricultural wages have doubled since 1840.

In Northumberland, 21s. (\$5.03) a week and 3s. (72 cents) extra in harvest, house and garden free, and 80 stone of potatoes within the year.

In North Lancashire, 20s. (\$4.84) and 21s. (\$5.08) weekly to plowmen.

Yorkshire, 20s. (\$4.84) to 23s., (\$5.56.)

Lincolnshire, 18s. (\$4.35) per week, winter and summer.

Norfolk, 2s. 6d. (60 cents) per day, ordinary laborers.

Agricultural laborers' wages have risen from 50 to 100 per cent. all over the country within the last quarter of a confury within the last quarter of a confury were described.

within the last quarter of a century.—Times, April 17, 1874.

*New Market, (April, 1874.)—Weekly wages paid by an employer under the Duke of Rutland, as follows: Laborer, 17s. 2d. to 18s. 9d., (\$4.15 to \$4.53;) horsekeeper, 18s. 6d. to 20s. 5d., (\$4.47 to \$4.94;) yardman, 21s. 4d., (\$5.16,) including harvest-work and piece-

Thetford.—Wages paid upon the Knettishall farm to a man sixty-eight years old, who is the lowest paid among the able-bodied laborers employed. Forty-seven weeks at 14s., (\$3.38) \$158.86; piecework over day wages, £2 15s., 8d., (\$13.47;) five weeks harvest wages, £8 19s., \$43.31; making a total of \$215.64.—Times June 8, 1874.

Mr. Walter Williams, under date of October 25, 1874, writes: "Farm laborers earn from 2s. 6d. to 3s. 6d. per day, according to capacity, with perquisites."

FARM WAGES IN 1875.

The following extracts, from the Chamber of Agriculture Journal. show the wages of farm laborers in different counties of England at the most recent dates, and indicate a marked advance on the rates of 1870:

Berkshire, (Maidenhead.) January 28.—Lowest price for day-men, 13s, or 14s, per week

Working hours per day, 54.

Hampstead Norreys, January 29.—Wages, 12s. and upwards; 7 o'clock to 5.30, next

month to 6 o'clock.

Essex, January 14.—Wages, from 13s. to 16s. per week by day. Hours. from 7 to 5.

Suffolk, January 19.—Wages, 13s. and 14s. a week; 81 hours a day.

Sommerstshire, (Martock,) January 21.—Wages 11s., and three gallons of cider per

Buckingkamskire, February 17.—Wages, 14s. per week for ordinary laborers: carters and stockmen, 16s. for 91 hours' work.

Cardiganshire, February 19.-Laborers abundant, on account of the strike in the iron

and coal works. Wages, where food is not given, average 10s. to 11s.

Herefordshire, February 19.—General wages, 12s. per week, with cider; wagoners and stockmen, from 2s. to 4s. per week more, with cider and harvest money extra.

North Essex and South Suffolk, February 18.—Wages, day-work, 2s. per day from 6 a. m. to 6 p. m., two hours for meals. Contract work up to 2s. 6d. per day.

Bucks, North, February 26.—Wages, 13s. to 16s. a week.

Essex, February 25.—Wages, 14s. weekly, from 6.30 to 5 o'clock.

Herefordshire, (near Madley,) February 25.—Wages vary from 12s. to 15s. per week;

except in the winter, they work from 6 a. m. to 6 p. m.

Kent, February 25.—Wages, 16s. a week and upward.

Leicestershire, (near Grantham,) February 24.—Ordinary wages, 2s. 6d. a day; no scarce-

ity of men. Hours, from 6.30 a. m. to 5.30 p. m.; in fact, the men leave home at 6 a. m.. and reach home again at 6 p. m.

Monmouthshire, (Llanarth.) February 25.—Wages, 12s. to 15s. per week, with perqui-

sites. Hours, 101.

Yorkshire, North Riding Dales, (Leatholme, Yarm.) February 23.—Wages of farm servants, laborers, and mechanics are high, much out of proportion as compared with the

Warwickshire.-Wages, 15s. per week. Hours, about from 7 till 5.

Cheshire, (Tarporley,) March 3.-Wages mostly vary, according to locality, from 13s. to 17s. per week, and laborers are scarce. Hours of labor from 7 in the morning until 6 in the evening, with 30 minutes for breakfast, and 1 hour for dinner.

Berkskire, March 11.—Wages, 12s. and 13s.; carters, &c., 1s. a week more. Hours of

habor, from 7 a. m. till 5 p. m., 1 hour for dinner; in many places from 6 a. m. till 6 p. m., with half an hour for breakfast, and 1 hour for dinner.

Dorsetskire, March 11.—Wages, nominally, about 12s. a week, with perquisites; 15s. without. Good men earn from 2s. to 5s. a week extra.

Gloucesterskire, March 11.-Wages from 11s. to 14s. per week. Hours of labor, from 7

a. m. to 5 p. m. Norfolk, (West,) March 10.—Wages are nominally 13s. per week, but good men have

Yorkshire, (West Riding,) March 20.-Wages from 18s. to 24s. per week. Ten hours

per day. Buckinghamekire, (South,) March 18.—Wages, 14s. per week; many men earn more by

piecework. Hours, from 6 to 5.

Decon, March 18.—Wages, 12s. per week, with cider.

Wiltshire, (Tiebury,) March 18.—General wages, 12s. per week; but in many parishes it is 11s. for 10 hours' work; women, 10d. per day.

SALARIES OF CLERKS IN BANKS, INSURANCE COMPANIES, ETC.

The following information, condensed from the London Economist of May 1, 1875, in regard to the salaries of clerks in banking and other institutions, although forming no part of the object of this report, will prove of interest to some readers:

As regards the initial pay, the usual age of entry in banks and insurance companies is from seventeen or eighteen to twenty, and the salary from £70 to £80. The usual pay of a junior clerk between eighteen and twenty may be roughly put at about £90. The Bank of England, with an establishment of eight hundred clerks, returns the

age of entry for ordinary clerks as eighteen to twenty-five, and the initial pay "about £70 per annum." The London and Westminster Bank, with 443 clerks, returns the age of entry at from eighteen to twenty-one, and the initial pay £80 per annum, except in the case of the juniors, who enter between sixteen and seventeen at £50 per annum. In Glyn's, with 200 clerks, the initial pay is £75 per annum, and the age of entry between seventeen and eighteen. Seventy-five pounds for a lad of eighteen is by no means a low salary. Upon that point I can speak with considerable confidence. Taking the general run of clerical employment in the city, there are not many places where a lad of eighteen would get £75 a year.

As regards maximum pay, about £350 to £400 a year in banks, and, at the most, £300 a year in other establishments, are the maximum amounts to which ordinary clerks, if they are possessed of merit—there being hardly any promotion except by merit—may look forward to. Thus, in the Bank of England, the secretary stated that every clerk would rise to a "maximum" of £300 about forty-one to forty-four years of age.

In the London and Westminster Bank, and in Glyn's, the maximum in both cases is

stated to be £400 for an average clerk.

RELATIVE AMOUNT OF WORK PERFORMED.

In estimating the actual cost of labor in the United Kingdom, from the figures presented on the preceding pages, regard has only been had to the number of hours of labor which the work-people have exchanged for the sums named. The computation is made upon the supposition that each man, at a given occupation, will perform a definite amount of work per hour, whether he labor eight, nine, or ten hours per day; in other words, that men who have been working ten hours per day will perform one tenth less if the time is reduced to nine hours, and one fifth less if reduced to eight hours per day; which supposition may or may not be correct.

If it be required to ascertain the advance in the cost occasioned by a reduction of the hours of labor, this pro rata mode of computation will furnish the result approximately correct. But when, in determining the results of this investigation, it becomes necessary to compare the cost of labor in Great Britain with that in the United States, other data will be required in addition to those which have already been under consid-The question is, What amount of labor is exchanged for a given quantity of coin, or of food, clothing, and shelter? This leads to the further inquiry, Does a workman in the United Kingdom accomplish as much work, in the same space of time, as one in a similar employment in the United States? This branch of the investigation engaged the attention of the author before and during his visit to the manufacturing towns of Great Britain, and he endeavored to gather such facts as would enable him to determine this question. observation and inquiry the conclusion was reached that, in most industrial pursuits, a workman in England does not perform so much work in, say, nine hours as another of equal knowledge and skill in the same branch in the United States. The reasons assigned for this were various, some of which are here presented.

Mr. Sellick, then United States consul at Bradford, is of opinion that work-people will not perform as much work in a week as similar workmen in the United States. The English work-people, he stated, lack intelligence, waste time, and by their intemperate habits injure their

health, and consequently lessen their ability to labor.

The same reply, substantially, was made by the consul at Sheffield, and by others elsewhere, each possessing such an acquaintance with the

subject as enabled him to express an intelligent opinion.

A Mr. Dodge, formerly of Cohoes, N. Y., a manufacturer of files near Manchester, having employed workmen at the same labor in both countries, and therefore fully qualified to form an intelligent opinion, stated, in reply to a question, that English workmen perform less work in a given time than Americans in similar employment. He gave as a reason, that it was owing to the want of "adaptability" of the former

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to different kinds of work: that it was difficult to get them out of "old ruts." or to train them to work more rapidly than they had been accustoméd to.

It is evident that the intemperate habits of the men, and the loss of time consequent thereon, prevent them from performing a full week's True, while at work, especially during the latter part of the week, the men work as rapidly as those in the United States; but in the earlier part of the week this is not the case with men who drink to ex-Even if men of such habits do not observe the festal day of their patron, Saint-Monday, they are unable to perform a fair day's work so soon after the dissipation of Saturday night and Sunday. especially true of the men in Sheffield, as will appear in subsequent pages under the caption, "Condition of the laboring classes."

The fact will not, perhaps, be disputed, that in most branches of manufacture, especially at machine or engineering work, and in the fabrication of hardware, cutlery, and other manufactures of iron and steel, the workmen perform less work per week, on an average, than an equal

number in the United States.

The next inquiry is, What percentage of reduction should be made in the computation? From observation and inquiry the author is led to the conclusion that it amounts to ten per cent.; in other words, that, on an average, nine hundred men in the United States, employed at the branches indicated, as well as at many others, will accomplish as much efficient work per week as one thousand in England. If, therefore, the hours of labor in England were as formerly, fifty-nine per week, and in the United States fifty-four, the amount of work accomplished by a given number of men in the respective countries would be about the same.

In cotton and in other textile factories, and in some other branches of industry, the difference between the amount of labor performed in the two countries is not so great. A fair average of the whole industrial population of the two countries would, it is believed, indicate, in favor of the work-people of the United States, a difference of but eight, possibly of but six, per cent. in the amount of work performed.

In this connection it may be stated that, after the rise of wages in England in the year 1872, it was ascertained that the men in many branches of industry performed less work than when the rates were lower. An illustration of this fact is given by a correspondent of the Leeds Mercury, who presents an interesting comparison of the work

done by colliers in 1864 and 1873:

In 1864 the average product of our coal-mines gave for each person employed 3274 tons, which for 313 working-days, is equal to 214 cwt. for each person per day.

In 1868 the average product gives for each person 317 tons, which, for 313 working days, is equal to 20 cwt. for each person per day; and in 1873 the average product gives for each person only 271 tons, which, for 313 days, is equal to 174 cwt. for each person per day. It will thus be seen that in the first period of five years (1864 to 1868) there was a diminished output per person of about 7 per cent.—21½ to 20 cwt. In the second period of five years (1869 to 1873) the output had declined by 12½ per cent.—20 to 17½ cwt. per day for each person. So in the ten years each person employed about a coal-mine has reduced his labor by nearly 19 per cent.—21½ to 17½ cwt. per day. It is a remarkable fact that, while there has been so great a reduction in the amount of work performed per man in 1873, the rates of wages have advanced from 30 per

A further illustration of this fact was given to the author by a mine owner or agent residing in Manchester. The average earnings of all the miners in a certain mine in 1871, was 4s.7d. per day; while in 1872, when the rates were from 100 to 150 per cent. higher, the weekly earnings of the same men were really 2d. per week less. They averaged less than 4 working-days per week, while many worked but from 3 to 3½ days.

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II.—PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, HOUSE-RENT, ETC.

Having in the foregoing pages given the earnings of work-people employed in the manufacturing and mining districts of the United Kingdom in 1871, before the advance in the cost and the reduction in the hours of labor, also the rate of wages paid in 1872 and in subsequent years, and the earnings of farm-laborers in 1870 and in recent years, the readers of these pages who may desire to institute a comparison between the prices of labor in Great Britain and those in Continental Europe or the United States of America, will find the necessary data so far as regards the United Kingdom. The figures, originally given in British money, have, in most cases, been computed in the coin, but not in the paper-currency equivalent, of the United States. If the purchesing-power of the British shilling were really, as well as nominally, identical in value with 24 cents (coin) in the United States, and with the mark of Germany, which are very nearly the equivalents,* then no future presentation of facts were necessary to enable the economist to make the comparison above indicated.

If, in the near future, a uniformity of weight and fineness of the gold-coin bearing different names and the impress of sovereignty of various countries be adopted, the traveler would find that his coin would pass current in the world's market, but he would be doomed to disappointment if he supposed that its ability to minister to his wants were the same

everywhere.

PURCHASING-POWER OF WAGES.

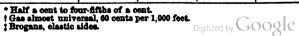
If a workman in Birmingham receive for fifty-four hours' labor 30s., or about \$8.33 in United States currency, and another of the same occupation in Philadelphia earn \$12.50, it would be inaccurate to say that the earnings of the latter were 50 per cent. more than those of the former. The question is not what is the United States equivalent of the thirty British shillings, but what is the purchasing-power of the wages of the one workman in England and of the other in the United States. In other words, how much of food, clothing, and shelter will the earnings of the one purchase as compared with the other? For the solution of this question other elements are necessary, and these must be considered under the next general head, viz:

^{*} The following table shows the relative weight and value of the gold coins of Europe, which most nearly approximate those of the United States:

			Weight i	n pure gold.
Denomination.	Country.	U. S. gold.	Grains troy.	Metric grammes.
Half-eagle Sovereign Twenty-five-franc piece Twenty-mark piece	United States. Great Britain. France. Germany	\$5 4. 9685 4. 823 4. 764	116. 1 113 119. 090 110. 696	7. 593 7. 399 7. 958 7. 168

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, also of house-rent and board, in the manufacturing towns of Great Britain.

	l	Eng	LAND.	
Articles.	18	72.	1874.	1879.
	Birmingham.	Bradford.	Bradford.	Huddersfield
PROVISIONS.				
Wheat, superfine per bbl. Wheat, extra familydo. Ryedo.	\$8 50	\$8 90 to \$8 50	\$ 7 35	\$7.9
Wheat, extra familydo	9 00	9 00	7 84	8 6
Dorn-mealdo			7 84	7 9
Reaf.			ł	•
Fresh, reasting-piecesper lb.	21 12	22 to 24 16 to 18	\$0 21 to 24 19 to 21	\$0 10 to
Fresh, soup-pieces do. Fresh, rump-steaks do. Corned do.	26	28	32	24 to
_ Corneddo	. 18		22	
Veal:	16	17 to 21	16 to 18	١ . ا
Fore-quartersdo. Hind-quartersdo. Cutletsdo.	18	21	17 to 21	' ;
Cutletsdo	26	28	24	90 to
Mutton:	16	18	18 to 90	,
Fore-quartersdo Legdo Chopsdo	21	21	. 18 10 24	
Chopsdo	24	24	24	3
Pork: fo Freah do Corned or saked do Bacon do Hams, smoked do Shoulders do Sausanges do Jodfah, dry do Jackerel, pickled do Satter do Jacess do Joseph do	16	13 to 19	18 to 20	
Corned or salteddo	15		16 to 30	
Bacondo	\$0 14 to 20	16 to 20	1 20	1
Hams, smokeddo	10 to 12	20 to 24	94 20	
Sensagesdo	18	14 to 20	16 to 20	16 to
dodo	14 to 18	14 to 20	20	12 to
odfish, drydo	•••••	•••••	08	08 to 1
Butterdo	94 to 28	24 to 32	34 to 48	24 to 2
heesedo	18	14 to 20	90 to 94	19 to 9
otatoesdo		01#	014	$\overline{\mathcal{O}}$
Potatoes do. Rice do. Beans per qt. Milk do.	06	05 to 10 08	05 to 08	04 to 1
Mikdo	06	őĕ	08	
Eggs per doz.	16 to 24	18	94 to 36	'18 to 9
GROCERIES, ETC.				·
rea. Oolong, or other good blackper lb.	60 to 79	60	36 to 80	64 to 8
Coffee : Rio, green	24	32 to 40	16 to 90	
	32	32 to 40	32 to 40	•
lugar : Good browndo	08	08 to 10	07 to 08	1 (
Good brown	07	08 to 10		. 09 to
Colores a	08	09 to 10	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	09 to 1
New Orleansdodo	06	05	05	(gallon,)
New Orleansdo Porto Ricodo	. 04	06 to 07	06	(gallon.)
	06	09	08	(gallon,) 06 to
tarchdo	10	19 to 16	19	000
esp, common do. tarch do. coal per ton. iii, coal per gail.	4 36	3 96 to 4 60 56	4 38	2 90 to 3
	Not used!	30		•••••
DOMESTIC DET GOODS, ETC.			1	ĺ
hirtings:	10	09 to 18	12 to 16	10 to
Brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yd Bleached, 4-4, standard qualitydo thestings:	. 13	08 to 18	16 to 20	19 to
Brown, 9-8, standard qualitydo	14	22 to 28	• 49	19 to
Bleached, 9-8, standard qualitydo	17	96 to 54 90 to 48	48	14 to
Cotton Hannel, good qualitydo	30	90 to 48 94 to 66	30 to 36	16 to 28 to
rinte	13	l 07 to 20	10 to 16	
Brown, 9-8, standard quality do. Bleached, 9-8, standard quality do oction finnel, good quality do cickings, good quality do rints do fousseline de laines do	21	99 to 48	16	19 to 1
atinets, medium qualitydo Note, men's heavyper pair.	19 50	94 to 54 9 90 to 3 87	36 to 42 2 88 to 3 84	97 to 1 2 90 to 3
	12 30	~ 50 60 3 61		
HOUSE-RENT.				١
Four-roomed tenementsper month.		4 84 to 6 05 6 65 to 7 66	5 76 to 7 90 9 60 to 14 40	3 93 to 4
BOARD.	••••••	0 00 00 1 00	2 00 10 14 40	30003
				٠
For menper week.	••••••	2 90 to 3 38 1 45 to 1 94	2 88 to 3 60 1 68 to 2 16	1 94 to 2 1



Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, &c.—Continued.

		ENG	LAND.	
Articles.	Leeds.	Manchester.	1874. Newcastle-	1872. Nottingham
			on-Tyne.	
lour: PROVISIONS.		1	l	
Wheat, superfineper bbl. Wheat, extra familydo	. \$7 57	\$7 74	\$6 17	\$7.5
Wheat, extra familydo		9 00	6 77	87
Ryedo orn-mealdo		85 98 to 6 14	4 96 5 08	4.0
eaf ·			1	
Track reacting pieces nor lh	90	22	253	S
Fresh, comp-pieces do. Fresh, rump-steaks do. Corned do.		. 10	14	1
Fresh, rump-steaksdo	30	16 to 18	94 16	80 19 to
aal .	I .	. 10 60 10	10	40 19 60
Tono-marters do		. 17	18	1
Hind-quartersdododo		. 90	90	1 3
Cutletedo		. 22	94	1
lutton: Fore-quartersdo	ł	. 18	16	1 1
Legdo	18	21	20	21 to 9
Legdodo	. 94	94	22	
			1	
Fresh do. Corned or salted do. Bacon do. Hams, smoked do. Shoulders do.		. 16 16	16 16	
Recon dodo		19 to 18	18	16 to
Hams, smokeddo	92	20 to 28	94	16 to
Shouldersdo		. 12	16	1
Sausagesdo		. 16 to 18	18 90	
Snouners	. 1	00.00 19	. 8	1
utterdo	39	90 to 98	80 94 to 39	24 to
heesedo	. 18	16 to 90	18	19 to
otatoesdo	.] 09			(bushel,)
		. 04160 05	04	(Haricot.)
filk do	· ·	. 06 to 08	.] 06	(H313006,)
eansper qt. [ilk do. ggsper dos.	. 94] 29	30 to
GEOCERIES, ETC.	1	1	ł	1
ea, Oolong and other good blackper lb	. 100 60 to 88	64 to 97	48 to 72	48 to
offee ·		V4100 31	1000	40 W
Rio, greendo	. 39		. 94	1
Rio, roasteddo	·	. 32	28	i
ugar: .	. 07	08	07	
Good browndo Yellow Cdo		. 07	08	1
Coffee Bdo	. 09		. 00	
Colasses:	}	1	/ \ oo	1
New Orleansdododododododo	-	. 04	. (gallon,) 36 (gallon,) 48	
lenn do		. 06	(gallon,) 60	
oap, commondo. tarchdo galper ton	. 06		08	
tarchdo.	· ······	10	19	
il, coalper ton	. (*) 5 14	3 14 to 4 44	4 84	3 38 to 5
	1 (T	-	1 "
Domestic dry goods, etc.		1	1	,
hirtings:	i			1
Brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yd Bleached, 4-4, standard qualitydo.		. 10 to 17	09	07 to
	1	. 1000 21		1 0000
heetings:	i i	. 19 to 49		19 to
beetings:		. 50 to 66		
beetings:	-		16	19 to
beetings:		. 39 to 48	en en	
beetings:		. 19 to 33	14	09 to
beetings:		19 to 33 09 to 17	14 24	09 to
beetings:		19 to 33 09 to 17	14 94 54	09 to
heetings: Brown, 9-8, standard quality do. Bleached, 9-8, standard quality do. otton fiannel, good quality do. ickings, good quality do. rints do. fousseline de laines do. stinets, medium quality do. loots, men's heavy per pair		33 to 48 19 to 33 09 to 17 29 1 09 2 90 to 3 63	14 94 54	00 to
heetings: Brown, 9-8, standard quality do. Bleached, 9-8, standard quality do. otton fiannel, good quality do. ickings, good quality do. irints do. fousseline de laines do. stone medium quality do. Boots, men's heavy per pair		1	14 94 54 3 34	9 49 to 3
heetings: Brown, 9-8, standard quality do. Bleached, 9-8, standard quality do. clockings, good quality do. clockings, good quality do. clockings, good quality do. clockings, good quality do. clockings, good quality do. clockings do. clockin	3 86	4 60 to 4 84	14 94 54 3 34 5 00	9 49 to 3
heetings: Brown, 9-8, standard quality do. Bleached, 9-8, standard quality do. otton fiannel, good quality do. ickings, good quality do. rints do. fousseline de laines do. stinets, medium quality do. loots, men's heavy per pair	3 86	l	14 94 54 3 34 5 00	9 49 to 3
heetings: Brown, 9-8, standard quality do. Bleached, 9-8, standard quality do. olochion flannel, good quality do. olochings, good quality do. rints do. fousseline de laines do. atinets, medium quality per pair HOUSE-RENT. four-roomed tenements per month	3 86	4 60 to 4 84	14 94 54 3 34 5 00	9 49 to 3
heetings: Brown, 9-8, standard quality do. Bleached, 9-8, standard quality do. otton fiannel, good quality do. ickings, good quality do. rints do. fousseline de laines do. atinets, medium quality per pair HOUSE-RENT. four-roomed tenements per month ix-roomed tenements do.	3 86	4 60 to 4 84 6 25 to 6 76	14 94 54 3 34 5 00	9 49 to 3

^{*}Gas, per 1,000 feet, 84 cents.

[†] Vories much.

[‡] Working-classes do not board.

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, &c.—Continued.

•			Enc	SLAND—Cont	inued.	
Articles.	1872				1874. ·	
	Sheffic	eld.	London.	Liverpool.	St. Helens.	Sunderland
PROVISIONS.						
Wheat, superfineper bbl.	87 71 to f	ks 29		\$7 02		\$6.4
Wheat, extra familydo	8 00 to	8 57		7 26		7 1
Ryedodododo	5 71 to					5 4
Beef:		4 57	••••			5 0
Fresh, rossting-pieces per lb.		20	\$ 0 23	20	\$0.92	9
Fresh, soup-piecesdo Fresh, rump-steaksdo		17	18	16	20]
Corned		28 20	28 22	22 17	22 22	
7eal: · i				-`		
Fore-quartersdo Hind-quartersdo		18	22	17	22	
Cutletsdo		18 24	22 30	19 24	22	
futton:			1			'
Fore-quartersdo	00.4-	16	19	17	20	' !
Legdo Chopedo	20 to 20 to	21 22	22 28	18	20	
'erk: "	~-	~~	- ~	. ~		i '
Freshdodododo		18	20	18	18	
Bacon do do do do do do do do do do do do do	16 to	16 20	19 18	16 18	90	
Hame smoked do l	20 to	24	24	24	24	
Shouldersdo		16	19	18		} :
Shoulders do Sansages do ard do		16 18	24 23	. 16	20	
odfish, drydo	05 to	06	23	20 06	16	
odfish, drydo Lackerel, pickleddo artierdo	•••••	08				1
ladesedodododo	24 to	28	30	34	34	İ
otatoesdo	14 to *16 to	20 ·	23	20 (bushel,) 96	90 01 1	
dodo	03 to	06	09	04	06	\$0 04 to
censper qt.		08	12			
lilkdo ggsper doz.		06 18	11 39	08 29	06	
GROCERIES, ETC.		10	35	20		
ea, Oolong or other good black.per lb.		60	60	72	76	79 to
offee :				·		
Rio, greendo		24		28		1
Rio, roasteddo	28 to	40	30	34	32	1
Good browndo		07	06	06,	08	[
Yellow Cdo		08	07		06	·
Coffee Bdo		06	10	•••••	04	ļ '
New Orleansdo		05	08	l		(gallon,)
Porto Ricodo		04	08	(gallon,) 72		(gallon,)
krupdodododo	. 04 00	06		07	·····	
tarchdo.	04 to 08 to	08 12	20 20	12 12	08 12	
cal per ton.	3 14 to	3 87		5 81	3 60	3
)il, coalper gall.		56	29			1
DOMESTIC DRY GOODS, ETC.				i	l	
Skirtings: Brown, 4-4, standard quality.per yd.	00 to	12				00.45
Bleached, 4-4, standard quality.do	08 to 10 to	16	· 08	08 15	14	09 to
Sheetings:					1	
Brown, 9-8, standard qualitydo	19 to	20	32.	25	- ,	94 to
Masshad 0.0 standard condition do	39 to 16 to	60 30	36 30	31 27	48	48 to
Bleeched, 9-8, standard quality.do		60	24	21	184	94 to
Heached, 9-8, standard quality.do	12 to	24	20	15	18	10 to
Hiseched, 9-8, standard quality.do ottou-faunel, medium qualitydo fiskings, good qualitydo rintsdo	12 to		32	17		1
Heached, 9-8, standard quality.docotton-fannel, medium qualitydoTickings, good qualitydoTrintsdoflousseline de lainesdododododododo	19 to 16 to	32	7K			
Bloached, 9-8, standard quality. do cotton-fiannel, medium quality do clekings, good quality	19 to 16 to	39 1 20	75 3 36	48 3 94		ية ا
Hissched, 9-8, standard quality. doottou-fiannel, medium qualitydo Tekings, good qualitydo Tintsdodo do do do do stinets, medium qualitydo leots, men's heavyper pair.	19 to 16 to	39 1 20	75 3 3 6	3 94		ĝ
Bleached, 9-8, standard quality. do cotton-fiannel, medium quality do rists	19 to 16 to 9 49 to	39 1 90 3 75		3 94	9 90	2
Bleached, 9-8, standard quality.do Oction-fannel, medium qualitydo Cickings, good qualitydo Cickings, good qualitydo Cickings, good qualitydo Cickings, good qualitydo Cickings, medium qualitydo Cickinets, medium quality	19 to 16 to 9 49 to 3 36 to	39 1 90 3 75		3 24 4 84	3 76	4:
Hosched, 9-8, standard quality.do obtion-fannel, medium qualitydo Tekings, good qualitydo do do do do do do do stinets, medium qualitydo leots, men's heavyper pair. HOUSE-RENT.	19 to 16 to 9 49 to 3 36 to	39 1 20 3 75 4 39		3 94	3 76	2
Bleached, 9-8, standard quality. do Catton-fannel, medium qualitydo Cickings, good qualitydo Cickings, good qualitydo Bloomed tenementsper mo Secur-roomed tenementsper mo Six-roomed tenements	19 to 16 to 9 49 to 3 36 to	39 1 20 3 75 4 39 6 05		3 24 4 84	3 76	

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, &c.—Continued.

•	WA	les.		8C	OTLAND.	
Articles.	18	72.	Glasgor	۲.	18	79.
	Cardiff.	Newport.	1873.	1874.	Dundee.	Leith.
PROVISIONS.						
lour:					l	
Wheat, superfineper bbl. Wheat, extra familydo	\$7 47 7 95	\$8 47 8 71	\$6 48 7 20	\$6 53 7 \$6		\$9 6
Fresh, reasting-pieces.pr lb.	20	20	94	24	\$0 20 to \$0 22	19 to 9
r resp, soup-pieces	16	16	16 to 18	17	18	19 to 9
Fresh, rump-steaksdo	21	92	94	94	30	
Corneddo	30		18	18	90	1
Fore-quarters do	18	18	14 to 16	15	16	
Hind-quartersdo	19	19	20 to 23	21	16	
Cutletsdo	24	90	32	32		
[utton:						
Fore-quartersdo	18	18	14 to 16	15	20	
Leg do Chopsdo	19 20	20 22	18 to 90 90 to 24	19 22	19	
	20	XC4	30 00 24	***	200	,
Fresh do. Corned or salted do. Bacon de. Hams, smoked do. Shoulders do. Sausages do. ard do.	. 18	17	16 to 90	18	16	14 to 1
Corned or salted do			14 to 18	16	14	
Bacondo	\$0 17 to 92	19	90	90 95	90 to 92	8
Hame, smokeddo	17		94 to 26	95	24 to 28	25 to 9
Spouldersdo	17	16	17	17		1
arddo	17 20	16	16 to 90	16 18	16	\$
odfish, drydo	20	10	10 00 20	06	04 to 06	
ntterdo	27	\$0 22 to 26	36	36	98 to 39	g g g g g g g g
heesedodododo		14 to 19	18	18	16	Ĩ
otatoesdo	02		001		(bush.) 1 93	
lcedo	03 to 06	04 to 06	04 08	04	04 to 07	
lilkper qt. ggsper dos.	07 to 08	. 04	08 34	08 34	19 to 16	. 1
	200	, au	34	37	24 (Ú 32	•
GBOCERIES, ETC.					1	
ea, Oolong or other good				1		
blackper lb.	44 to 97	48 to 92	60 to 79	65	48 to 84	48 to 8
offee :						
Rio, greendo Rio, reasteddo	••••••	40	30 to 32 26 to 40	31 38	32 to 40	
ngar ·	•••••	- T	20 CD 90		34 00 40	•
Good brown do Yellow C do Coffee B do	08	07	C5	05	07 to 08	
Yellow Cdo		08	07 to 08	06	10	
Coffee Bdo				071	08	
Colasses:	·				امد	
New Orleansdo Rorto Ricodo	•••••		04	04 05	06 06	
ran do		•••••	05	064	00	ĕ
rupdo xxp, commonper lb.	06 to 07	06	06 to 07	11	06 to 09	9 0 eat 549
archdo	10 to 12	10	10 to 19		10 to 14	12 to 1
oalper ton. il, coalper gall.	5 60		4 00	3 87	5 80 to 6 00	6 9
u, coalper gall.	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••	•••••	•
DOMESTIC DRY GOODS, ETC.	•				,	
hirtings:						
Brown, 4-4, standard . per yd.	09 to 13	09 to 13	07 to 12	091		1
Bleached, 4-4, standard, do	07 to 17	07 to 17	09 to 18	13	16	1
neetings:				1	1	
Brown, 9-8, standard do	24 to 30	26 to 30	94	94	19	3
Bleached, 9-8, standard do	39 to 49	26 to 36	34	17 18	32	9
ot on flannel, mediumdo ickings, good qualitydo	30	30	36	12	*94 to 98	10 to
rintsdo	15 to 19	15	12		11	1000
ousseline de lainesdo	18 to 21	īš			20	· • • • • • • • • •
tinets, medium quality.do	84	84			1 33 to 1 93	
oots, men's heavy per pair.	3 39 to 4 35	3 39			387 to 484	3 (
HOUSE-RENT.	1	1			!	
our-roomed tenement.pr mo.	4 84	2 90			605	3 (
x-roomed tenement.pr mo.	6 78 to 7 26	4 35	•••••		726	56
1		* 50			. ~	٠, ٠
BOARD.		i	,		1	
or mechanics, &cper week.	290 to 339	2 90	3 60	3 63	2 90 to 3 63	242 to 29
or women in factoriesdo	1 93		2 65	2 66	1 93 to 2 18	13

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, &c.—Continued.

		IRELAND.			E tr
Articles.	Belfast.	Londonderry.	Por	tlaw.	Average in the United Kingdom.
	1874.	1873.	1873.	1874.	A HR
PROVISIONS PROVISIONS Per bbl	\$5 81 to \$6 78	\$8 71	\$7 90 9 00	\$6 33 6 82	\$7 43 8 97
	•••••			4 14	8 m 5 54 5 41
Fresh, reasting pieces per lb. Fresh, soup-pieces do. Fresh, rump-steaks do. Corned do.	14 to 15 14 to 16 14 to 16 15	20 14 24 16	18 14 19	16 14 18 14	21 16 95 90
eal: Fore-quartersdo. Hind-quartersdo. Cutletado. (utton:	23 20 20				18 96 95
Fore-quartersdo Legdo Chopsdo	12 to 18 12 to 18 12 to 18	90 20 94	17 18 18	15 15 17	17 19 21
Fresh	12 to 13 14 to 16 16 12 to 18 12 to 18	\$0 18 to 93 94	13 19 94 26 94 16	16 13 19 24 18 15	91 16 19 94 17
ard do do do do do do do do do do do do do	19 24 16	90 041 94 20	19 06 94 20	19 07 28 20	19 94 17 18 17 07 08 29 19 86 06
otatoes do ice do ceans per qt tilk do ggs per dos	(bushel,) 36 04	(bushel,) 40 04 to 08	00f 05	00 <u>8</u> 04	86 06 06
ggsper doz.	16 to 24	24	18	24	95
ea. Oolong or other good blackpar lb. offee:	44 to 64	84	7,2	89	69
Rio, greendododo	94 34	38	40	37	95 35
ugar: Good brown do. Yellow C do. Coffee B do. Colsaes:	05 to 06	07	07	06 07 06	07 06 08
New Orleans per gall. Porto Rico do. krup do. oap, common per lb. kirch do.	07 09	06	07 06	97 1 46 08 08	55 60 76 08 11 4 78
Mi, coal per ton per gall.	4 35 to 6 05	5 90 to 7 20 32	6 26 36	5 84	4 46
DOMESTIC DET GOODS, ETC. Shirtings: Brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yd. Biseched, 4-4, standard qualitydo heetings:		1	11 12	08 10	11 14
Brown, 9-8, standard qualitydo Bleached, 9-8, standard qualitydo Cotton-fiannel, medium qualitydo Cotton-fiannel, medium qualitydo		36 to 60 23 to 24	11 14 94 94	19 16 20 16 11	25 3J 97 98 15
Trints do Mousseline de laines do Satinets, medium quality de Boots, men's heavy per pair		24 to 36 32 to 44 2 66 to 6 05	2 18	2 07	91 81 3 23
HOUSE-RENT. Four-roomed tenements	9 00 to 9 50 3 00 to 4 00		1 93 2 42	9 43 3 41	4 14 5 97
BOARD. For mechanics, &coper week. For women employed in factoriesdo		2 16 to 3 60 1 68 to 1 92		2 92 1 46	3 11 1 93

PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, ETC.

[From the author's notes.]

BIRMINGHAM.—Rent of kitchen and two rooms above, in rear of house, 4s, a week: in front, 5s. Bread, 8d. for 4-pound loaf. Meat, 1s. per pound. Cheese, good American, 7d. per pound. Rent of three rooms, about 3s. 6d. per week for back, and 4s. 6d. for front; average, about 4s. House-rent in suburbs, lower than in the city—4s. to 4s. 6d. for house of four rooms; 6s. for six rooms.

SHEFFIELD.—Rent of rooms, ordinary price, 4s. per week for four rooms or about 1s. per room. Good rooms rent for more. A respectable small be may be had, for 6s. a week.

week. Meat in Sheffield is good. Workingmen buy the best, and they can afford it. Excellent beef and mutton, 101d, per pound; good at 81d. American bacon, 7d, to 9d.

Butter, from 1s. to 1s. 2d.

MANCHESTER.—Leg of veal, 9d.; best fillet, 6d. Leg of mutton, 9d. Good beef, for stewing, 71d.; for roasting, 9d. to 91d. Tea, very good, 2s. 4d. to 2s. 8d.; best, 3s. Good white sugar, 4d.; best, 41d; brown, 3d. to 31d. Flour, 2s. to 2s. 1d. per stone. Bacon, 7d. to 9d. Cheese, 6d. to 8d. Dry goods, low. Rent of rooms, 4s. for four rooms. In another part of the city rents are 3s. 9d., 4s. 6d., and 4s. for four rooms. Good cheese, 8d., chiefly American, which is very good, and occasionally better than English, at the same price. Good tea, 2s. 8d.; best, 3s.

Hallfax.—Four rooms in upper part of house, from £8 to £9 per year. Better

honses, built by Crossleys, two rooms on a floor, larger frontage, at 10 guineas a year, and poorer at lower rates.

BRADFORD.—Rent of houses, five or six rooms, for clerks, £18 to £20 per year. NOTTINGHAM.—Rent of three to four rooms, average 4s. per week. Some nice houses in a good street rent for the same. Within the walls of the old town four to five rooms, including taxes, 4s. to 4s. 6d. Price of provisions much the same as in other western towns. About 10d. to 1s. for the best beef; 8d. to 10d. for very good; quite good at 9d. Veal 10d. by the leg; 13d. for cutlets, and much less for the poorer pieces.

HUDDERSFIELD. Price of board, for workmen, 10s.; for workwomen, 7s. per week. CORK. (From Mr. Derby's notes.) Prices in a provision store: Beef and mutton, 10d. to 1s. per pound; pork and bacon, 9d.; corned beef, 9d.; smoked hams, 10d. to 1s.; cabbages, 1d. each.

LONDON WHOLESALE PRICES IN 1872.

From the monthly statement of the wholesale prices of the following articles in the London markets during each month of the year 1872, the following average, expressed in United States coin, has been computed, and the average pro-rata price stated per pound:

	Per cwt.	Per lb.
Pork: Hams, smoked	\$26 59	\$0 23.7
Lard	17 03	15, 2
Butter	29 24	26. 1
Cheese	15 98	14. 3
Rice	3 29	2. 9
Coffee, Jamaica middling	25 84	23
Sugar, good brown	8 77	7.9
Molasses, West Indies	3 08	2.7

The following statement, forwarded by Mr. Consul Horan, gives the retail prices of cotton and other goods in Sunderland:

Statement showing the average retail prices of the following articles of dry goods in Sunderland, supplied by Mesers. Sheraton, drapers, in November, 1874.

Articles.	Price.	Articles.	Price.
Gmy shirtings:	Oents.	Gray sheetings—Continued.	Cents.
30-inch	6 to 9	80-inch	32 to 3
33-inch		Double warp, 80-inch	40 to 5
36-inch	8 to 14 10 to 16	white sheetings:	44 to 6
White shirtings:	10 50 10	72-inch	54 to 6
Fine make, 36-inch	10 to 20		60 to 8
Stout make, 36-inch	13 to 29	Ticks:	W W 8
White flannels:	13 00 23	Cotton, 27 to 32 inch	18 to 9
Lancashire	28 to 48		20 to 3
Saxony, finer	28 to 48		_ ~ ~ ~
Pancy fiannels:		White or brown, 32-inch	30 to 3
Unions	14 to 30	Prints:	
All wool	36 to 66	30 to 32 inch	9 to 1
Gray sheetings:	1	Satin cloths, French llamas, and various	
72-inch	24 to 40	other dress-materials	20 to 4

WHOLESALE PRICES OF GRAIN.

Table showing the average price of wheat per imperial quarter* in England and Wales for the last week of each month during ten years, from 1863 to 1872, inclusive, the pound sterling being computed at \$4.84.

Month.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.	1871.	1872.
January	\$11 59	\$9 84	\$ 9 31	\$ 11 01	\$15 04	\$17 50	\$12 44	\$10 32	\$19 70	\$13 5
Pobruary	11 27	9 80	9 23	10 99	14 49	17 74	11 99	9 82	13 00	13 4
March April	10 97	9 65	9 27	10 86	14 74	17 69	11 93	10 96	13 35	13 14
	11 05	9 47	9 53	10 99	15 22	17 88	10 99	10 30	14 41	13 1
May	11 23	9 53	10 10	11 45	15 79	17 48	10 93	10 97	14 49	13 9
Jame	11 23	9 68	9 98	12 34	8 42	16 31	11 69	12 20	14 49	14 3
July	11 11	10 64	10 36	12 58	8 63	15 18	19 59	19 78	14 03	14 9
August	11 07	10 26	10 97	12 30	16 11	13 77	13 10	19 40	13 87	14 3
September	10 58	9 90	9 88	12 44	15 50	12 96	19 23	10 97	13 85	14 8
October	9 63	9 37	10 24	12 70	17 04	12 80	11 17	11 73	13 69	[
November	9 74	9 35	11 33	13 91	16 55	19 34	11 01	12 90	13 51	
December	9 78	9 15	11 35	14 52	16 29	12 24	10 50	19 64	10 97	
Average for each	-									
year	10 77	9 79	10 13	12 17	14 48	15 39	11 65	11 38	13 53	13 8
Average for each year per busheld	1 34	1 21	1 27	1 52	1 81	1 91	1 46	1 42	1 69	1 7

The imperial quarter (= 8 imperial bushels of British standard) contains 17,7452 cubic inches, and is equivalent to 82 standard bushels of the United States.
1 The imperial bushel is about 3 per cent larger than the standard bushel of the United States—the former containing 2,318.19 cubic inches and the latter 3,150.43.

The average price of grain per quarter (imperial measure) in England and Wales for the three months ended Christmas, 1872, was as follows: Wheat, \$13.85; barley, \$10.20; oats, \$3.52.



WHOLESALE PRICES OF GRAIN.

Statement showing the average price of grain per imperial quarter in England and Wales during thirty-five years, from 1840 to 1874, inclusive.

Period.	Wheat. Barley. Ryc.		Period.	Wheat.	Barley.	Rye.	
1840-'44, (five years). 1845-'49, (five years). 1850-'54, (five years). 1850-'59, (five years). 1860. 1861. 1862. 1863. 1864. 1865.	\$13 88 12 96 8 70 13 84 12 78 13 98 13 30 10 74 9 64 10 04	\$7 66 8 26 6 96 8 86 8 78 8 66 8 49 8 14 7 18 7 14 8 96	\$8 99 8 10 7 60 9 30 8 70 8 58 8 79 7 78 7 30	1667. 1868. 1869. 1870. 1871. 1872. 1873. 1874. A verage for 35 yrs.	\$15 48 15 30 11 56 11 96 13 60 13 68 14 08 13 38	\$9 64 10 38 9 46 8 30 8 68 8 96 9 70 10 78	

The general average of the price of wheat, barley, and oats, in England and Wales for the years 1869, 1869, and 1870, were: Wheat, per quarter, \$12.70; barley, \$9.36; oats, \$6.15.

PRICES OF MEAT AND OTHER PROVISIONS.

Prices of beef and mutton in Great Britain in the following months of 1872.

Marketa.		January.			April.			July.				October.					TAGE.				
London: Beefper 8 pounds Muttondo				41 69					33 33					53 69					41 61		38 47
Newcastle: Beefper 14 pounds Muttonper pounds	3		to to	42 21			to to		29 94	2		to to		60 21	8		to		42 19	2	33 19
Edinburgh: Beefper 14 pounds Euttonper pounds		29 18		54 21	2		to to	2	22 22	2		to to		66 90	2		to to	8	48 19	2	48 19

Table showing the average price of wheat, meat, and potatoes in each quarter of the five years ending December 31, 1874.

Quarter ending—	Wheat in England and Walce.	Meat at ropolit Marke	Mat., South		
•	Wheat	Beef.	Mutton.	Potatoes side Mi wark.	
March of Ame	Per g'rter.	Per lb.	Por lb.	Per ton.	
March 31, 1870		\$0 11.5 11.95	\$0 19.5 19.75	\$21 4	
September 30, 1870		11. 35	13. 25	30 00 28 8	
December 31, 1870	12 02	12.75	13. 25	16 8	
March 31, 1871		12.75	13	20 8	
June 30, 1871		13	14	15 1	
September 30, 1871	13 86	13, 5	15	16 3	
December 31, 1871	13 50	13	13, 5	21.3	
March 31, 1879		12, 25	14. 25	24 0	
June 30, 1872	13 60	12,75	14. 75	39.8	
September 30, 1879	14 14	13. 25	15. 50	98 5	
Docember 31, 1879.	13 74	13. 50	14. 50	40 8	
March 31, 1873	13 40	13. 50	15. 25	49 6	
June 30, 1873.	13 54	14.75	16.95	50 8	
September 30, 1873	14 78	14.5	15.75	95 6	
December 31, 1873		13. 5	14.95	95 6	
March 31, 1874	14 99	13.5	13. 75	28 5	
June 30, 1874 September 30, 1874	14 66 13 30	13 13. 25	13. 25 13	36 0	
December 31, 1874	10 64	13. 25	12.50	21 0 20 1	
Average	13 15	13. 02	14.01	27 91	

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Wholesale prices of wheat, beef, and mutton, in London and Manchester, for each month in the year 1874.

	Wheat.	Beef.	Mut- ton.			Beef.	Mut- ton.
Date.	Gazette price, per imperial quarter.	Inferior mid- dling, per 8 pounds.	Middling, per 8 pounds.	Date.	Gasette price, per imperial quarter.	Inferior mid- dling, per 8 pounds.	Middling, per 8 pounds.
January 1 February 1 March 1 April 1 May 1 June 1 July 1	\$14 80 15 30 14 76 14 46 14 90 14 80 14 56	\$1.08 1.02 90 1.00 1.04 96 1.04	\$1 24 1 06 1 02 1 04 1 12 1 00	August 1 September 1 October 1 November 1 December 1 Average of year	\$14 32 11 94 11 06 10 50 10 72	\$1 10 1 04 1 18 1 06 1 00	\$1 10 1 02 1 10 1 00 1 08

PRICE OF BUTCHERS' MEAT.

Average yearly price of butchers' meat, (per stone of eight pounds, sinking offul,) distinguishing the various kinds as sold in the Metropolitan Cattle Market, in each of the years 1868, 1869, and 1870.

	Averag	e for the	уеага—	771-1-4	Averag	e for the	years—
Kind of meat.	1868.	1869.	1870.	Kind of meat.	1868.	1868. 1860.	
Beasts: Inferior. Second class Third class, large prime Fourth class, Scots. Sheep: Inferior. Second class Third class, long coarse woul	\$0 781 891 1 05 1 90 831 981 1 10	\$0 83 98½ 1 18 1 30 92 1 11½ 1 27½	\$0 86 1 05 1 19 1 28 84 1 01 1 21	Sheep—Continued. Fourth class, South-downs. Lambs. Culves: Coarse. Small prime. Pigs: Large hogs. Small neat porkers.	\$1 201 1 49 1 001 1 17 841 95	\$1 38 1 45 1 19 1 334 1 03 1 244	\$1 344 1 64 1 01 1 30 1 16 1 361

CONTRACT PRICE OF PROVISIONS FURNISHED THE ARMY AND NAVY.

The following tables show the contract price at which bread, meat, and the other principal articles of provisions were furnished to the troops in Great Britain and Ireland, and also for the use of the Royal Navy during the years 1868, 1869, and 1870, and indicate to some extent the prices of food in the Kingdom:

Contract price of bread, meat, and rations supplied to the troops in each district of Great
Britain for the first and second half-year of 1870.

Districts.		orice per d loaf.		rice per nd.	Cost of ration of 1 pound of bread and 2 pound of meat.		
	First half-year.	Second half-year.	First half-year.	Second half-year.	First half-year.	Second half-year.	
London Alderahot Channel Islands Northern Rastern Southeastern Woolwich Chatham Southwatern Western Southwatern Western South Wales North Britain	10. 7 10. 76 10. 6 11. 24 10. 1 11. 58 11. 62 10. 6	9 12.32 10.7 10.38 10.76 10.12 10.6 9.44 11.24 11.94 11.58 10.64 11.62 10.6 10.6 10.86	Oents. 11. 96 12. 48 12. 76 13. 02 11. 9 14. 16 11. 72 15. 18 13. 68 11. 86 12. 78	Cents. 12.02 12.6 13.64 12.4 11.94 13.06 12.2 13.10 12.32 12.32	Cents. 11. 68 11. 8 12. 92 12. 40 11. 46 13. 44 11. 34 13. 16 11. 52 11. 52 12. 32 11. 8	Cents. 13. 08 11. 96 12. 84 11. 83 11. 36 11. 44 12. 49 11. 96 11. 96 11. 96	
Average	10.02	10. 61	12.80	12.51	12.06	19.0	

Average prices paid for army purveyors' stores in England in the years 1868, 1869, and 1870.

Articles.	1968.	1869.	1870.	Average of 3 years.
Tea. per pound. Sugar, crushed wet lumps per cwt. Barley, beat Scotch. do. Rice, cleaned Patna do. Linseed meal. do. Porter, inperial pints, per dozen, 8 to gallon. Ale, imperial pints, 8 to gallon. Ale, imperial pints, 8 to gallon. Fowls per gallon. Potatoes per cwt. Potatoes per owt. Potatoes per owt. Potatoes per owt. Per gallon. Potatoes per owt. Per gallon. Potatoes per ound. Eggs. per dozen.	\$0 47 9 67½ 4 90 4 19 4 49 7 96 80½ 94½ 53 22½ 1 56 02 22	\$0 461 9 46 4 22 3 92 4 78 6 92 794 851 22 2-5 1 48 02 22 2-2	\$0 50, 8 10 21 4 38 4 31 5 47 7 80 79 78 531 23 1 54 02 23	\$0 46.1 9 76 4 97 4 12 4 91 7 33 77 86 53 53 53 53 53

Contract prices of bread (per 4-pound loaf) supplied to the troops in each county of Irrland in each half of the years of 1868, 1869, and 1870.

County on shotter		elf-year 	1969, h	aif-year —	1870, half-year to—	
County or station.	May 31.	Novem- ber 30.	May 31.	Novem- ber 30.	May 31.	Novem- ber 30.
	Cents.	Conts.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Conts.
Antrim	14	13.8	11.9	9.88	10. 2	9, 44
Armagh		15	19.5	10	10	9.5
Buttevant	14.5	13.38	11.36	10.9	10.78	9, 74
Carlow		14.8	13.5	11.8		
Cavan	19.98	15.5	14.48	13	12.48	10.75
Clare	18.5	17. 7	13.74	12.5	13	10
Cork, except Fermoy and Buttevant		12.98	10.96	9.5	10 -	8.9
Fermoy		14. 2	11.4	10.4	10.9	9
Down		15. 46	11	9.98	9.46	2.94
Formanagh	17.8	15.5	13.5	11.8	11.2	10 5
Galway	15.96	17	13.5	12	11.5	10.8
Kappy	18.4	16	13	11	11.6	10
Kildare, except Curragh and Newbridge	18	17. 7	15	13		15
Kilkenny	14	13.5	12	10	11	8.96
Kings County	17	16.8	13	19	13	10.46
Limerick	14.76	13.96	11.4	10. 2	10.66	9. 40
Londonderry		14.8	19	11.8	12.5	11.8
Longford	17	15.4	13.4	11.5	11.5	11
Louth	15.4	14.74	11.9	10. 2	10.4	9.8
Mayo	18	15.5	12	10.4	y	9
Monaghan		15	14	11	12	11
Sligo	17.5	17.5	13	10	10.5	11.5
Tipperary	17.5	15.4	13.4	11. 4	11.9	9.8
Waterford	15.8	15.5	12	10.4	11.4	9.5
Westmeath	17	15.4	12.8	10, 9	11.49	9.8
Wexford	19.5	19	17	11.4	19	10.4
Average	16.58	15.44	19.84	11.01	11. 18	10.99
Kildare, Curragh offlour per sack of 280 pounds. Dublin	\$12 34 12 08	\$19 06 11 94	90 49 9 39	\$8 96 7 98	\$8 70 8 28	\$7 86 7 36

Contract-prices of fresh meat supplied to the troops in each county of Ireland in each of the half-years of 1868, 1869, and 1870.

		alf-year —	1969, half-year to—		1870, h	ď	
Counties.	May 31.	Novem- ber 30.	May 31.	November 30.	May 31.	Novem- ber 30.	Aversge.
Antrim Armagh Buttevant Carlow Cavan Clare Cork, except Fermoy and Buttevant Doblin Fermanagh Fermoy Galway Kerry Kildare, except Curragh and Newbridge Kildare, Curragh of Kildare, Curragh of Kildare, Curragh Kildare, Curragh Kildare, Turragh Kildare, Turragh Kildare, Turragh Kildare, Curragh K	Cents. 9.5 10 11.86 11.5 13 9.92 12.5 9 11.48 9.5 10 13.5 16 12.2 7.48 8.98 10.4 11 9.92 8.5 14 13.5 10.84 8.8	Cents. 9 9 10. 74 12 6 16 10. 5 10. 92 9 11. 56 9. 94 8 9. 5 12. 36 9. 38 8. 4 7. 7 11 9. 5 8. 88 7. 7 11 10 8. 5 9. 5	Oentr. 10.36 9 9.92 11.5 15 9.5 10.4 11 11.38 10 9.5 9 10 11.8 11.8 12.5 13.96 9.5 13.96 9.5 11.5 13.96	Centr. 9. 2 8. 5 9. 5 9. 5 11. 94 14 10 11. 4 10 9. 46 8. 5 11. 94 11. 6 1. 92 7. 76 11 9. 5 9. 4 7. 94 10. 5 12. 4 11. 8 9	Cents. 11. 56 9. 58 8. 98 13 10. 5 8. 96 10. 46 11. 75 10 11. 38 9. 5 9. 5 11. 75 10. 5 11 0. 5 11 0. 5 11 0. 5 11 0. 5 11 0. 5 11 0. 5 12 0. 5 13 0. 5 10 9. 5 13 10 9. 5	Cents. 10.5 11 8.44 12 8 9.8 9.5 11.42 9.5 9.34 10 9 12.5 11.74 9.5 7.7 11 9.5 9.34 11.94 9.5 8.5 8	Cents. 10. 02 9. 5 9. 88 11. 77 14 9. 57 10. 47 9. 83 11. 5 9. 17 10 12. 82 11. 9 12. 9 18. 9 10. 92 10. 92 11. 49 12. 63 10. 93 8. 55 9. 16
Westmeath Wexford Average	10, 91	11.5	11 10.56	10 9, 95	10.38	9. 5	10. 66

Average prices at which the principal articles of provisions were purchased or manufactured at home for the use of the royal navy in the respective years ended March 31, 1868, 1869, and 1870.

Articles.	1868.	1869.	1870.	Aver- age.
readper 100 pounds .	\$4 00	\$ 3 80	83 06	\$3 69
Macuitdodo	4 59	4 14	3 98	3 96
Ogardodo.	5 60	5 84	5 96	5 80
dodo	38 88	40 04	34 38	37 77
Raisins	7 20	5 40	6 70	6 44
resh beefdo	11 59	10 83	11 18	11 17
regetablesdo	1 14	1 90	1 94	1 19
alt porkdo	13 48	14 40	14 94	14 97
Ricedodo		4 96	3 36	4 43
reserved boiled beefdodo	4 96			18 53
	21 00	21 60	12 98	
reserved potatoesdodo	8 49	8 96	7 66	8 35
Mourdodo	4 79	4 52	3 20	4 15
Wheat for conversiondodo	3 69	3 18	9 34	3 05
Pats for conversiondodo	2 58	2 64	2 24	2 49
Dat-mealdodo	4 52	4 54	4 14	4 40
000adodo	13 16	12 22	12 06	12 48
Popper, raw do	7 16	7 64	8 26	7 69
reek beef, for curing and preservingdo	19 58	13 76	12 76	13 03
SAIS Deef	14 84	16 78	15 06	15 56
Salt, white, for curing beef and suct do	46	46	50	47
Lime or lemon juicedodo	62 64	49 24	46 48	52 79
Vinegordodo	12 58	19 76	12 56	19 63
plit peasedodo	26 54	24 62	20 84	94 00
Milk per 100 quarts.	20 12	16 52		18 32
	~ 14	20 04		10 94

INCREASE IN THE COST OF LIVING.

In the following paper Mr. Jones. United States consul at Newcastleon-Tyne, presents his views in regard to the advance in the cost of provisions in 1872:

The cost of living has advanced between 30 and 40 per cent. this year. The price of coal is nearly double what it could be purchased for on the 1st of January last; flour has risen from 50 cents to 60 cents per 100 pounds; butchers' meat is 2 to 4 cents higher; and now that the potato-crop has failed, not alone in Ireland, but generally throughout the United Kingdom, we are certain to experience a serious advance in what we might term the great staple of the laboring classes.

The employers of labor in England reason about as follows:

"Let us obtain the necessaries of dife for our workmen as cheaply as possible, so as to enable them to render us their services at a low wage; this, together with our cheap money, and natural advantages in mineral resources, in the close proximity of coal and iron, as well as by our favorable geographical position for the international market.

will enable us to undersell all others and confine competition to our own land."

I believe it to be a well-established tenet in political economy, that in proportion to the increase of population the price of animal food will advance in this country. It is true that this principle may occasionally be overruled by shipments of live stock from the continent, yet I apprehend that this can bring about no serious exception to the rule, for upon the first appearance of the rinderpest, the cattle-plague, or kindred diseases, upon the plains of Yorkshire or among the hills of Carnarvon, the importation of cattle will be stopped by order of the privy council; therefore, it is fair to anticipate that a traffic attended by so many difficulties, risks, and uncertainties will never attain the magnitude necessary to nullify the principle laid down. The farmers of this country must be induced to abandon wheat-growing and turn their mind and attention to stock-raising, else matters will soon become serious.

Employers of labor are not unmindful of the situation. Herculean efforts have been and are still being made to induce the working-classes to adopt the Australian meat as a general article of diet. Capitalists have formed limited-liability companies for the

development of this trade.

It is permitted to go abroad that Australian beef and mutton are to be found upon

the tables of the aristocracy of the country.

At a public meeting held in the adjoining borough of Gateshead, a few months ago, for the agitation of the meat question, the mayor of Newcastle asserted by authority that one of the wealthiest men in this district used this class of food twice a week, and preferred it to the meat procured from his regular butcher.

This policy will certainly contribute to wipe away the natural prejudices of the masses against meat killed, cooked, and canned by unknown hands 15,000 miles away.

COST OF CLOTHING.

In the foregoing tables the cost of provisions and of house-rent per week has been given, also the price of various articles of dry goods and of boots, thus furnishing some data for a computation of the cost of living in the United Kingdom as compared with the United States. While the prices of the principal articles of subsistence are on the whole as high in the former as in the latter country, the rental of rooms and the price of clothing are only about one-half as much as in the United States. From a careful computation made in London, it is believed that clothing can be purchased there at 50 per cent. of the gold and 56 per cent. of the currency prices in New York. From a tailor in High Holborn, who makes more clothing for citizens of the United States than any other in London, the following prices were obtained:

Good business suits, made to order, of good and fashionable material, cost from 58s. to 60s.; the lowest price of similar quality in New York, ready made, being \$28 to \$30. Suits of fine blue cloth, 82s. 6d., (\$19.96,) which it is believed could not be obtained anywhere in the United States for \$40. Fine black cloth dress-vests, 10s.; dress-trousers of best black doeskin, 30s.; frock-coats of the best black cloth that could be purchased in London, silk lined, 80s., (\$19.36;) overcoats from 50s. to 60s., the lat-

ter of good beaver-cloth, with silk-velvet collar.

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Ready-made clothing is sold at lower rates. Good-looking trousers were seen at various clothing-stores with the prices of 11s. 6d and 12s. 6d. affixed. Laboring men are not only able to purchase their clothing at about one-half the rates paid in the United States, but are in the habit of wearing at their work fustian or corduroy suits, which are not only cheaper in price but of great durability; so that an English workman's clothing costs but about one-third the price paid by his brother workman in the United States. It is difficult to present the prices of the cheaper articles of clothing in such a manner as to enable an intelligent opinion to be formed of their cost as compared with similar articles in this country; but the prices paid for cloth and clothing for the army and for the hospitals, as shown in the following statement, indicate the lowest rate at which woolens can be obtained in England.

PRICES OF ARMY CLOTH AND CLOTHING.

The prices paid for cloth and for some of the articles of clothing purchased for the British army, also for one of the hospitals, as given in the following tables, afford some indication of the cost of clothing in England suitable for the working-classes:

Prices paid for army cloth and clothing for the British army in the years 1868, 1869, and 1870

4-41-1	P	er yar	d.		Per yard.			
Articles.	1968.	Articles.		1968.	1869.	1870.		
Cloth for infantry: Sergeants' scarlet. Privates' red. Staff-eargeants' gray Privates' gray. Cloth for riffe: Sergeants' tunic. Sergeants' trousers. Privates' trousers. Tunic and overall, No. 1. Tunic and overall, No. 2.	\$2 024 1 95 2 02 1 45 2 90 2 46 2 164 1 89 3 36 2 50	1 87 9 09 1 45 2 29 9 46	\$1 87 1 52 1 60 1 22 1 91 2 46 1 68 2 70 2 88 2 04	Rife—Continued. Tunic and overall, No. 3. Tunic and overall, No. 3. Tartan for kilt. Tartan for trousers Cavalry cloak cloth: Sergeants' blue tunic Sergeants' blue overall. Cavalry cloak cloth. Privates' blue tunic Infantry regulation boots, per	\$3 21 2 21 73 73 73 75 \$ 501 2 22 2 21 2 32 2 57	2 184 80 80 2 50	76 76 9 04	

Prices paid for army clothing in each of the years 1868, 1869, and 1870.

		1968.			1869.		1870.		
Articles.	Infantry.	Highland.	Riffe.	Infantry.	Highland.	Rifle.	Infantry.	Highland.	Riffe.
Clothing: Staff-orrgeants' tunio Staff-orrgeants' trowsers Sergeants' tunio. Sergeants' trowsers Missiciants' tranto. Privates' tunio. Privates' tunio. Privates' trowsers Drummers' or buglers' tunio	\$19 94 4 533 5 56 2 773 5 68 4 73 9 653 5 96	\$15 15 5 46 5 574 3 894 5 17 5 014 3 02 6 20	\$11 94 5 99 5 76 3 034 5 44 4 884 2 46 5 484	\$11 61 4 56 5 87 3 97 5 30 4 50 2 61 5 32	\$14 543 5 944 7 90 4 433 6 074 5 99 3 413 6 834	\$8 68 4 503 5 72 3 58 6 02 5 03 2 573 6 01	\$11 394 4 465 6 092 3 944 5 994 4 46 2 464 5 81	\$13 674 5 89 7 19 4 874 5 70 4 98 3 554 6 494	\$12 40½ 4 08 5 71 3 36 5 87½ 4 87 2 43

PRICES OF CLOTHING.

Prices paid for various articles of clothing, &c., at Bethlehem Hospital, in the year 1870.

Articles.	1870.
Cloth coats, (various colors)each	86 04
Cloth waistcoata, (various colors)dodo	100
Cloth trousers, (various colors)dodo	384
(<u>Coats</u> do	11 15
Cloth, servants' blue \ Waistcoatsdo	3 00
(Trousersdo	6 10
Jacketsdo	1 95 5
Canvas out of use except for coal-carrying \{\text{Waistcoats} \\ \text{Trousers} \\ \text{do} \	8
Servants' frocksdodo	3 84
. (Drawers and waistoness	يُوّ ا
Flannel { Drawers and waistcoats	1 3
lick feather-bedsdo	13 44
Fick feather-pillowsdodo	20
-4 Whitney blanketsper pair	9 04
-4 Whitney blanketsdo	2 56
4 Whitney blanketsdodo 14 coverlets, whiteper dozenper dozen	3 2
Ken's stockingsper dosen pairs	777
Women's stockingsdodo	3 3
Linen handkerchiefs per dozen.	106
Rine romals do	1.3
Dowlas, (30 inches)per yard	15
Check, (39 inches)dodo	
iboete	1 4
Cotton printsper yardper pair	1.
ist shoes	9.5
/ Posts	1.50
Women's home-made Shoes	1 2

CO-OPERATIVE ASSOCIATIONS.

Industrial co-operation having already been briefly alluded to, it may not be improper in this place to refer to those co-operative societies for the purchase and sale of the necessaries of life, which in England are in much favor. Associations somewhat similar are not unknown in this country, especially in New England, where, some twenty years ago, they were numerous, and apparently successful; but for some defect, either of organization or administration, they gradually declined in number and popularity. In England, however, they have, on the whole, met with decided success, there being at the present time 1,400 of such societies, with a total membership of nearly 500,000. Last year they sold domestic supplies to the amount of £15,000,000. The Rochdale plan of co-operation is considered to be the best. The Co-operative News, the organ of this movement in England, says:

By examining the leading features of this plan, it will be seen to be as simple as it is efficacious. Many of the societies, now the most flourishing, commenced their business operations with less than \$200. Everything is purchased and sold for cash. Those who have tried the credit system have all failed. The goods are sold at the ordinary price demanded by the regular dealers, no more, no less; but great care is taken to exclude all adulterated articles. To prevent fraud, chemists are employed by some of the associations, and should any of the committees of management suspect an article to be impure, a sample is immediately forwarded for analysis, and the goods are not sold until a report has been received. Thus, goods sold in co-operative stores have a just reputation for purity. It is cheaper to pay a fair price for a pure article than a lower price for an adulterated ene.

It is believed that co-operative industry will soon control the whole productive and distributive business of the country. There are tens of thousands of people in England, who, up to the time they joined the co-operative societies, had never saved a penny, who have now considerable sums accumulated by this means. The accumulation is effected by a sort of double-compound interest. The average interest is said to be as

high as 28 per cent. on the whole share and loan capital.

The following is taken from the price-list of the Bold street "House-bold stores" in Liverpool:

Statement of the prices of some of the articles of household use, from the price-list of the Bold street co-operative stores, Liverpool, 1873.

Australian meat, without bone: Beef, in packages, per pound Beef, corned, in packages, per pound	\$ 0	151	to		17
Beef, spiced, in packages, per pound		15 1 13			17 14
Kangaroo venison, in packages, per pound					20
Texas beef, roasts, per pound		13	to		15 20
Salmon, per tin Lobster, per tin					20
Anchovy paste, per tin					20 28
Ham and chicken pates, in tins, per dezen				4	
Veal and ham patés, in tins, per dozenLiebig's extracts of meats, per pound				3	72 26
Essence of beef, in jars					12
The society's mixture of finest teas, per pound					54 60
Coffiee:					
Ceylon, per pound					31 36
Essence of per dozen				2	28
Chocolate, per pound					32 20
Sugar:					
Domerara, raw		06	to		05 07
Crystals		•	w		07
Fruits:					06
Currants, Zante					09
Raisins, Sultanas					13
Raisins, Muscatels					14 09
Prunes, French					07
Almonds, ValentiaPreserved oranges				1	2 4 44
Lime-juice, per dozen quarts				2 !	
American tinned fruits— Peaches, one-pound tins				9	21
Pine-apples, one-pound tins				-	22
Tomatoes, two-pound tins					23 10
Olives, French, one-half pints, per dozenOlives, Spanish, one-half pints, per dozen				2	04
Olives, Spanish, one-half pints, per dozen				3	
Arrowroot, one-pound tins					16
Corn-starch, per pound					11 05
Mago and tapioca, pearl, per pound					08
Sago and tapioca, Rio, per pound					15 13
Rice:				•	10
Patna, two-pound packages					05. 07
Nosn ·				•	
Mottled					05 } 08
Pale waxFine white					14
Candles:					20
Stearine					24
Spermaceti, best					46
Soda, 14 pounds					24 10
				т	

Spices:	
Jamaica ginger, per pound	\$0 24
Cloves, per pound	· 24
Mace, per ounce	06
Nutmegs, per ounce	06
Pepper, black, per ounce	16
Pepper, white, per ounce	32
Pepper, Cayenne, per ounce	40
Pimento, per onuce	12
Vinegar, distilled, per quart	16

THE MANCHESTER AND SALFORD CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETY.

Having visited the shops and offices of the above society in Manchester, and made inquiries of the officers in regard to its operations and success, the author believes that a few items of information in regard to the objects and management of an association which has not only been productive of material but of moral benefit to its members, will prove interesting. The secretary said that the savings of the members encouraged them in habits of thrift, and that they were not so much given to spend money in drink as is usual with other workingmen.

This society was established to purchase food, firing, clothing, and other necessaries at wholesale prices, or to manufacture the same and retail them; also to purchase, erect, mortgage, sell, and convey, or to hold land and buildings, and to carry on the

labor, trade, or handicraft of builders.

The rules of the society declare that the capital of the same shall be raised in shares of one pound each, one of which shall be transferable, and the remainder withdrawable. Each member shall hold at least one share, and not more than two hundred. Any member may pay the whole or any part thereof in advance, but not less than tenpence per mouth, or two shillings and sixpence per quarter per share, and, on default, shall be fined threepence per quarter, unless the default is shown to have arisen from sickness, distress, or want of employment, or any other reason satisfactory to the committee of management; in which case a written statement of the cause of the default shall be sent to the secretary at the time at which such payments ought to be made, otherwise the fine shall be enforced.

It is further provided that each member shall receive quarterly out of the surplus receipts of the society, after providing for the expenses thereof, in each quarter, interest not exceeding 5 per cent. per annum upon every paid-up share standing to his account in the books of the society; but the committee shall at any time have power, with the sanction of an ordinary general meeting, to alter the rate of interest upon shares.

Also, that the net proceeds of all business carried on by the society, after paying for the expenses of management, interest on loans, the proper reduction in value of fixed stock, and the interest upon the subscribed capital, shall from time to time be applied by direction of the ordinary quarterly meetings, either to increase the capital or business of the society, to the formation of a reserve fund, or to any provident purpose authorized by the laws in force in respect to friendly societies, and the remainder (less £2 10s. of every £100 clear profit to be set apart for instruction and recreation) shall be divided among the members of the society in proportion to the amount of their purchases at the stores during the quarter.

The dividend for the last quarter was 1s. 6d. on the £1 to members and 10d. to non-members. There is a library with reading-room for members, and a public room for meetings of the society, and for the weekly meetings of the 14 directors, who receive 1s. per week for such service.

The sales are at the prices charged for the same qualities at other

shops. The following were noted:

Good American cheese, 8 cents per pound, (very much used, and said to be frequently better than English at the same price.) Very good tea, 2s. 8d.; the best at 3s.

HALIFAX.—The forty-eighth semi-annual report of the Co-operative Society at Halifax, which has just been received, gives its operations

up to December 31, 1874, from which the following information is obtained:

The society, which has twenty-three branches, does a business of nearly £280,000 per annum, making a net profit of nearly £30,000 per annum, allowing a dividend to its members aggregating nearly £500 per week. It has an extensive library, and issues to its readers about 500 books per week. The reading room is supplied with 12 daily papers, 22 weeklies, and 12 quarterly and monthly magazines. The total expenses amount to 1s. 1d. per £ of sales.

of a similar society at Edgeworth, near Bolton, the sixtieth quarterly balance-sheet for March 31, 1875, shows a business in grocery and drapery of £198 per week. Stocks are turned over in twenty-six days. They have a small savings-bank and reserve fund, which amounts to 8d. per £ of share capital.

DIET OF WORKMEN-FAMILY EXPENDITURES.

The following statements of weekly expenditures of the families of some laboring men in Great Britain indicate, to some extent, the kind of food most in use. It will be observed that meat of all kinds, which forms so large a proportion of the cost of food in the United States, constitutes, on an average, less than one-fifth, (19.6 per cent.,) while in Manchester and Huddersfield it is but little over 10 and 14 per cent.

In conversations with workingmen in various manufacturing towns. the author made inquiries in regard to their food and mode of living. and the following, selected from his note-book, are specimens of replies

from a number of workmen:

MANCHESTER.-Most workingmen have bread and bacon, or butter, with tea or coffee for breakfast. Fresh meat of some kind or bacon and bread or vegetables for dinner. Supper is light, consisting chiefly of bread. Many, though desiring meat,* cannot afford much of it when it costs 10d. or 1s. per pound for steaks.

HALIFAX.-For breakfast, tea, bread and butter, or bacon, (bacon supplies the place of butter.) For dinner, a chop, with bread or potatoes; sometimes a pudding. For supper, bread with tea.

BIRMINGHAM.—For breakfast, bread with bacon, and tea. For dinner, usually bacon with bread or vegetables, fresh meats being high. Vegetables are but little used by workingmen, being high in price. Cheese is much used, especially American.

EXPENDITURES OF WORKMEN'S FAMILIES.

A circular, requesting statements of the weekly expenditures by the families of laboring men for provisions, house rent, clothing, and other necessaries of life, was to but a limited extent responded to in Great Britain. While all wage-laborers know the amount of their weekly receipts, and are, unfortunately, aware of the fact that usually the whole is expended, yet they keep no account of how much goes for bread, or meat, or the other articles named in the following statements. The few which have been obtained are here presented:



In relation to this subject an English writer says: "We know, indeed, that animal food is productive of strength; just as the London beef-fed bricklayer lays 1,000 bricks a day, while his Dorsetshire fellow-workman, on half the wages, does only one-fourth as much work."

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of laborers' families in the manufacturing towns of Birmingham, Bradford, Huddersfield, Manchester, and Sheffeld, England, with their weekly earnings, in 1872.

	Birmingham.	Bradford.	Huddersfield	Manobester.	Sheffield.
Articles of expenditure.	2 adults and 5 children.	2 adults an 3 children		2 adults and 5 children.	2 adults and 2 children.
Flour and bread	\$1.69 1.30	\$1 0 1 2			\$0 84 1 93
Lard	14	1	60	10	
Butter	25	4) 34
Cheese	10	<u> </u>			10
Sugar and molasses	98 97	5			30
Milk	7	3		36	94
Теа	18	i			9
Fish, fresh and salt	10		° ***	18	1 13
Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vine-				1	
gar, &c	16	2	4 36	16	94
Eggs	. 19	1	3 6	19	1
Potatoes and other vegetables.	44)) X
Fruits, green and dried	6		16		1 9
Fuel	33 11	8			35
Oil or other light	0.0	9	8 9 8 19		2
Spirits, beer, and tobacco, if any	,10	1 7		36	6
House-rent	1 30	1 1 1			1 8
For educational, religious, and			~ ~		,
benevolent objects	- 54	9	4 36	36	i 3
•					
Total weekly expenses	7 37	7 9	7 15	6 88	7 41
Total for 52 weeks	380 64	375 4	4 371 80	357 76	385 35
Clothing per year	45 60	129 0	0 25 00	25 00	48 40
Taxes per year	3 15] 10 00		7 9
Total yearly expenses	428 79	495 4	4 406 80	392 76	440 90
Weekly earnings of laborers	8 37	*14 9	0 7 90	7 96	
Yearly earnings, estimating 52 weeks	435 94	530 4	0 274 46	418 92	

^{*} Earnings of family.

WEEKLY EXPENDITURES.

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of laborers' families in the manufacturing towns of Leith and Dundes, Scotland, and Cardiff and Cronebrar, Wales, with their weekly earnings, in 1872.

	Leith.	Dundee.	Cardiff.	Cronebrar.	General sver-
Articles of expenditure.	2 adults and 2 children.	2 adults and 5 children.	2 adults and 5 children.	2 adults and 6 children.	age in Great Britain.
Flour and bread	0 96 1 21	\$2 20 1 50 16	\$1 91 1 08 10	\$1 91 1 45 10	\$1 253 1 234 184
Lard		72 28	42 39	56 36	43 1 98
Sugar and molasses	36	50 16	36 14	40 14	408
Coffee Tea Fish, fresh and salt	18 94	8 30 24	16 79 94	59 40 6	93) 16) 99) 16)
Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vine- gar, &co	14	16	32	15	911
Eggs	12 48	36 64	94 36	19 48	144 40 91 38
Fruits, green and dried Fuel Oil or other light	36	12 36 8	48 19	8 36 19	96 38
Oil or other light	94	94 94	48	6 6	10 18

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of laborers' families, &c.—Continued.

,	Leith.	Dundee.		Cardiff.	Cronebrar.	General a	Var-
Articles of expenditure.	2 adults and 2 children.	9 adults an 5 children		2 adults and 5 children.	2 adults and 6 children.	age in G Britain.	
House-rent For educational, religious, and benevolent objects	\$0 79	\$0.6	30 24	\$1 45 94	\$1 21 94	\$1	031
Total weekly expenses	6 09	9 3	_	8 44	8 62	7	62
Total for 52 weeks	316 68 38 72 3 36	487 72 7 5	60	438 98	448 24 24 20		24 124 20
Total yearly expenses	358 76	567	60	438 88	472 44	433	56
Weekly earnings of laborers	7 96	*14 (00	8 64	8 47	9	21
Yearly earnings, estimating 52 weeks	377 52	728	00	449 28	440 44	478	92

^{*} Barnings of family.

III.—CONDITION OF THE WORKING-CLASSES OF GREAT

Having presented in the foregoing pages the earnings of farm-laborers and of work-people employed in the mines, mills, factories, and other industrial establishments of the United Kingdom; having stated the cost of house-rent, and of provisions, and other articles of prime necessity, it is now proposed to consider the condition of the working-classes of that country.

The classes whose condition is to form the subject of investigation are chiefly those engaged in factory, mechanical, and other skilled industries, and only to a limited extent the farm-laborers of England. Before entering upon a more extended discussion of the subject in its material and moral aspects, the condition of the latter class will be considered, and as the author was unable, when in England, to make such a personal investigation as would command full confidence, he submits data contributed by others who possessed favorable opportunities for acquiring accurate knowledge. It is proper to state, however, that the opinions expressed in the following paper, and in others inserted elsewhere, are those of their respective writers, which opinions are not necessarily concurred in by the author of this report.

From an article already referred to, "On the condition of the working-classes of England," by Mr. J. S. Stanley James, the following portion only is inserted in this place:

THE AGRICULTURAL LABORERS OF ENGLAND.

The social position of Gurth, who, with the badge of serfdom, a brass collar round his neck, tended the swine of Cedric the Saxon, was certainly strongly defined by law and custom. Still, Gurth had certain rights, and Cedric acknowledged obligations to his serf. In this age of "contract," it is certain that the emancipated farm-laborer of England has, during the last half century, in a material point of view, becu less prosperous than his Saxon forefathers. In writing this, let it be clearly understood that the general condition of the people is spoken of. In many places the lot of the farm-laborer has been palliated by charitable schemes of clergy, or landlord, or squire; but the cause of this charity is, that the laborers have yet been considered as sort of serfs, whom, however, their betters were not bound to protect, but treated them kindly or

barshly, as the case might be. England boasts of its wealth and prosperity. The riches of England have increased yearly, but during the present century the condition of the farm-laborers has vearly become more miserable. During the eighteenth century, judging from a material point of view, an agricultural laborer was not unprosperous. In that time the farmers of England made large profits, and great quantities of wheat were exported. Then came the great wars; afterward the passing of the corn-laws. Year by year, too, the accumulation of real estate increased. The small proprietors, men who owned and farmed their own land, became less and less. The number of land-owners became fewer, but the number of laborers for hire greatly multiplied. Three great causes may be assigned for the present miserable condition of the English farm-laborer: the English land-system; the system of poor-law relief; and the great local increase of population.

Until the land-laws and the tenure on which land is rented in England are altered, the condition of the farm-laborer can never be materially benefited. If they are not much better than serfs, their employers, the tenant-farmers, are but vassals of the owners of the soil. The majority of the farms in England are only let on yearly terms, renewable from year to year. The same family may have lived on one farm for generations, paying, out of the reward of their labor, and the labor they have wrung from their hinds, exorbitant rents to the owners of the land. During these years they have not been allowed to carry a gun, to throw a fish-line, or to snare a rabbit on their farms without the permission of their landlords. They have voted at elections for the nominee of their landlord; they have supplied recruits for the "yeomanry" troop raised on the estate. A day comes, perchance, when a descendant of such ancestors, more intelligent or self-willed refuses to be led by the nose by the steward or balliff. He has an opinion of his own, and at the county election votes against "my lord's" or "the squire's" candidate. Next rent-day comes, and he whose ancestors have, perhaps, erected every building on the farm, have converted barren wastes into fertile fields, and have paid their landlord a heavy rent for that privilege—why, this ridiculous fellow, who dured to have a will of his own, is turned out of the home of his fathers, to seek another as he may.

And here I wish it to be clearly understood that I keep aloof from the political aspect of the question. Whig or tory, liberal or conservative, the great land-owners have always had the temptation and the power to so govern their tenants, and, in cases where the landlord himself would be impartial, his subordinates, the agent, steward, or family lawyer, take care to use on their own behalf the power delegated to them. Kept in such a state of vassalage, it is no wonder that, in their turn, the farmers of England have screwed down and tyrannized over their laborers.

In the old time the value of the land itself was nothing; what it would produce was everything. Now the land itself is valued most, and its produce least. The rents paid by the farmers of England are stated to be only from one to three per cent. on the estimated value of the land, and many of them, after keeping their laborers on starvation wages, find it hard work to pay that rent. It is notorious that nowadays farming in England is far less remunerative than any branch of trade or commerce. young man fairly educated and a thorough farmer may invest a certain capital on his farm; he may devote time and careful attention to his work; he may pay the lowest rate of wages. In ten years' time he will find himself a far poorer man than his brother, who may have invested the same capital and attention in some business or trade. In too many cases an English farmer finds at the end of ten or twenty years that he has sunk all his capital, and has received no return for it except the maintenance of himself and family. Remember, too, that in such case the laborers have been ground down, as I shall hereafter show. What is the true and logical conclusion to draw? Humboldt says that agriculture is the only true source of wealth. A nation which cannot feed itself has, after all, however rich in other respects, a weak point. In England we are told that farmers, who only pay the landlord from two to three per cent. on the value of the land, pay their laborers wages which only keep them on the very margin of existence, and yet farming is an unprofitable occupation. The real truth is, that nearly every farm in England is greatly overrented; that the estimated value of land is fictitious, which fictitious value is kept up by several causes: first, the limited area of Great Britain; second, the great demand for land caused by the absorption of small holdings into large estates. There seems to be an unwritten compact among the land-owners of Eugland to maintain their landed estates and add thereto by every means in their power. Year by year the land-owners of England get fewer. Even as Ahab coveted Naboth's vineyard, so does a large proprietor eye a small holding which may be adjacent to his estate, and the accumulation of land into the hands of a few goes on yearly. It is true that, when any very large property comes into the market, it is occasionally purchased by some rich merchaut, contractor, or railroad man; but these, wise after their generation, withdraw their money from investments paying 7 to 10 per cent., to buy land which they can let at only 1 or 2 per cent., for the purpose of being admitted to the class of landed proprietors, who, directly or indirectly, both politically and socially, in senate, court, and camp, rule England.

So, in fact, low wages are, to a certain extent, the result of high rents. In proportion to what the soil produces, the land-owner takes far too large a share, and the laborer far too small a share. The farmer, the middleman, has great cause of complaint, but

he is at least well supplied with the necessaries and comforts of life.

The poor-laws of England are a model of incompetency. According to the system of parochial and non-parochial districts, and the complication of local authorities, the poor are only entitled to relief within the immediate district in which they are born. As the wage of a farm-laborer has always been kept down to the point of bare subsistence for himself and his family, the laying by of any fund for his support when out of work, or in old age, being impossible, he is then compelled to apply for relief. In consequence of these laws, laborers remain all their lives in a district where the labormarket is overstocked and wages low; hereditary paupers, they improvidently marry, and bequeath that heritage to their children. The poor-laws of England are, in fact, a puzzle to all, and no one can properly interpret them. Mr. Edward Jenkins, the author, who is also a lawyer of no mean repute, says, respecting one of the codes, that it is "unrivaled by the most malignant ingenuity of former or contemporary nations; a code wherein, by gradual accretion, has been framed a system of relief to poverty and distress so impolitic, so unprincipled, that none but the driest, mustiest, most petrified parish official could be expected to lift up his voice to defend it; so complicated, that no man under heaven knows its length, or breadth, or height, or depth; yet it stands to this hour a monument of English stolidity—a marvel of lazy or ignorant statemanship."

The third great cause of the miserable condition of the English farm-laborers arises in a great measure out of the second. The operation of the poor laws has prevented the migration of this class of labor to other parts of England, where it would be better paid. Labor in England is unequally distributed. The farm-labor class is renowned for its superfecundity; these, the very poor, are blessed (?) with more than their share of children. This excess of population over food, of labor over capital, is, in the absence of a check, such as war, pestilence, famine, or emigration, an evil impossible to be mitigated—an irrevocable law of nature. In England, the effects of this evil among the farm-labor class is plainly visible; yearly the population is increasing, each unit reducing by his competition the reward of his own labor and that of his fellows.

An English village is far more pleasing to the eye than a manufacturing town. An English cottage—the outside, at least—makes a better picture than a tenement-house. A great deal has been written about "Merry England," but the truth is that England is not merry, and her laborers have indeed little cause to be so. The cottages in which they live, which are such a pleasant adjunct to the landscape, are, in too many instances, hovels, in which the employers would not stable their horses; hovels, without ventilation, drainage, or the surroundings necessary for ordinary decency; hovels, which have bred a race of men who, from want of domestic comfort, spend every spare hour in the pot-house, and who have nothing to look forward to but to be buried in a panper's grave; hovels, which have bred a race of women whose maidenly modesty vanished unborn in consequence of the scenes they were obliged to witness through the want of proper sleeping-accommodation. No matter what wages the men may obtain, their cottage-accommodation will keep them depraved and miserable. This want of decent cottages throughout England arises in a great measure from the law of primogeniture and entail. The land-owner is only a tenant for life; he may, perchance, like to add to his estate and power by purchase, but in too many cases he will not spend one penny to build decent cottages or to improve those already on his estate, but will screw down his tenants, endeavoring by every means to save money for his younger children. Of course, in many parts of England, there are decent cottages, but this is the exception, not the rule, and even then their benevolence halts. I have in my mind's eye now a model village on the estate of a great nobleman, but he will allow no more cottages to be built, and those at present erected are hardly sufficient for half the laborers employed on his estate; they, in consequence, having to walk miles to and from their work. But then the pastoral and select character of the model village is maintained.

In 1871 the average wages of English farm-laborers were twelve shillings per week. In the southern parts of England the wages were only eight or nine shillings; in the north, about fifteen; but the average may be taken as above. On such pay it was impossible for a married man to provide proper food for himself and family; meat was a rarity, to be tasted once or twice a year; a little bacon might, perhaps, be indulged in once a week; for the rest of the time dry bread was the chief fare. Such food, and the miserable habitations I have described, have naturally impaired the efficiency, and another century of such conditions would cause a woful physical degeneracy of the laborer. But, in spite of all drawbacks, the English farm-laborer is the most efficient, in his line, in the world, and he is comparatively by far the worst paid. The English railroad "navvy," a class sprung into existence during the last twenty-five years, recruited principally from the hardiest of the farm-laborers, is a being who eats and drinks much and exacts high wages, but, according to the testimony of the late Mr.

Thomas Brassey, member of Parliament, who during his numerous railway contracts had tried laborers of all nationalities, he is the cheapest laborer in the world. The finest men in the British army are also recruited from the farm-laborers. Bent by toil and exposure and suffering from the want of proper nourishment, the farm-laborer plods through the fields of England, but he only wants proper conditions to become one of the finest physical types and best workers in the world. With such homes as they have, it is not to be wondered that laborers spend whatever little money they can in the village beer-house. Their lives are unlovely; there is no silver lining to the cloud hanging over them. What wonder that they seek their only pleasure in the sensual exaltation of strong drink! Yet the drunkenness among farm-laborers is very slight; the poor fellows cannot, if they would, afford that luxnry. Viewed in every relation of his life, the portion of the farm-laborer has been one of toil, poverty, and hard living in a degree to which the other working-classes of England have long been strangers.

But the agricultural laborer has at last taken the matter into his own hands. On a dark, rainy night in February, 1872, Joseph Arch first stood up under the chestnuttree at Wellesbourne, and laid the foundation of that great movement which has since spread over all England. That is not three years ago, yet Joseph Arch at the present moment has undoubtedly more personal power than any other man in England. His record is known wherever the English language is spoken. His work has already brought forth good fruit; the average rates of farm-wages throughout England have since risen, and the hours of labor have been reduced. In the northern counties of England 18s. a week is now paid for farm-labor; in the midland districts, 16s.; and in the southern, 14s. and 12s. There are still parts of England, however, in which men are paid less than the latter sum. But Mr. Arch has experienced the greatest opposition and abuse in consequence of his labors on behalf of the class from which he has risen.

John Walter, esq., a member of the British Parliament, and editor of the London Times, in an address which he delivered at a meeting in Berkshire, dwelt upon the condition of the agricultural laborer, and declared that, in spite of all reports to the contrary, it was better than it had been heretofore. He showed by statistics that while the price of food is only a very little higher than it was at the close of the last century, wages are two or three times as much as then. Nevertheless, the wages now paid are very small, and the average laborer earns only thirteen, or fifteen shillings a week, while the combined earnings of a man and his wife and family do not amount to more than twenty shillings a week.

And a judicious writer of our own country, commenting on the past and present condition of agricultural laborers in England, remarks that the results of the labors of Mr. Arch and his coadjutors are already manifest in a decided rise of the scale of remuneration of English farm-

^{*}Mr. Arch has directed his attention toward emigration, and recently visited Canada to ascertain the extent of the demand for labor there, and see what encouragement would be given him by the Canadian authorities. These have held out great pecuniary inducements, and now advance nearly all the passage-money of farm-laborers from England. New Zealand and Australia are also bidding for this valuable labor, and laborers are now taken to those colonies free. The New Zealand government lately voted two million pounds sterling for the purpose of encouraging emigration from England. It seems to me a pity that the United States Government or the State authorities do not make some attempt to obtain this valuable contingent of labor. The exodus has begun, and in ten years' time England will be drained of her most valuable laborers. Mr. Arch proposes returning to America and going through the States this year, and, as far as he is concerned, I am sure that he will be willing and will advise that every English laborer should go to America. But when the New Zealand, Queensland, and Canadian governments step in and offer to pay the passage of farm-laborers and their families to the respective colonies named, it is little wonder that the advocates of emigration to the States find themselves fighting an unequal bettle. However truly the American may point out the glories of his country, the present advantages, and brilliant future waiting for the laborer, still, when the agent of New Zealand or Canada points to the free passage, the latter inducement is sure to prevail. It is hoped that when Mr. Arch visits America some arrangements may be made, either by State authority or the co-operation of private individuals, by which the passage-money from England may be advanced to laborers of this class.

labor, and in the prospect of a permanent elevation in the condition of the laborer:

Five years ago the existence of a National Union of Farm-Laborers would have been thought a perfectly incredible thing. Yet, as the result of less than two years' agitation, that union possesses 33 districts, 900 branches, and 100,000 members.

A majority of the agricultural laborers of England had, for years, to find food and

clothing for themselves and their families on the average wages of nine shillings a week. To a man so situated, meat was an unheard-of luxury, and an occasional swinish debauch formed the solitary gleam of what he called the pleasures of existence. Education for his children was out of the question, because, even had schools been provided, he had neither the money to buy clothes in which his children could attend school, nor was he able to spare the pittance which they began to earn at an early age by working in the fields.

A few weeks ago 200 laborers in the eastern counties of England, whose wages had last year been advanced from twelve to thirteen shillings a week, demanded a fresh advance to fourteen shillings. The farmers, who, during the last few years, have combined too, becoming alarmed, locked out some 4,000 men on the simple issue of what

they called resistance to "union dictation."

The National Union is able to pay \$8,000 a week toward the support of the men who are locked out and who fail to get employment in other quarters. It will probably be able to do so as long as the farmers can afford to hold out. Statistics show, moreover, Eugland. This is partly due to their absorption into the working-classes of manufacturing towns, and in a less degree to emigration. Both influences are likely to be felt in increased force during the present decade, and thus, on the mere question of balance between supply and demand, the ultimate triumph must rest with the laborers.

The present movement will probably produce a more scientific system of culture in England, and a more judicious employment of labor than heretofore. In this way,

also, it will indirectly raise the industrial status of the laborer.

The New York Journal of Commerce states that-

The British agriculturists, unlike the mechanical and mining trades, which make the most agitation, have real grievances to complain of, and they, certainly as much as the workingmen of that description, need the representation in Parliament for which the latter are scheming and contriving, not, indeed, without claims that could not in a democratic country be denied.

Mr. William Morris, editor of the Swindon Advertiser, in addressing a meeting of agricultural laborers in the west of England, after his return from America, uses this language:

England wanted workers, not paupers. The wage paid the agricultural laborer made him a pauper. In Swindon they had one pauper to every forty-three of the population. In Bishopstone, ten miles off, but in the same Poor-Law Union, they had one pauper to every ten of the population. Bishopstone was a purely agricultural village, and the wage paid there made one-tenth of the inhabitants paupers, living upon the rates which the men of New Swindon paid. At Swindon, the better wage paid reduced pauperism down to one in forty-three of the population. But the Swindon ratepayer had not only to keep his own poor, but he had to help to keep the poor of Bishopstone also, and it was therefore his bounden duty to see that the pauperism of Bishopstone was not created by a vile and vicious system of paying labor. With the private relations between master and man they had no business whatever, but when a master paid a man an insufficient wage, and sent him on to the public rates for such additional assistance as was necessary to enable him to live, he made his system of paying wage a public question, and one which all who contributed to the rates were justified in discussing. Mr. Morris having made reference to Canada and America, said he did not intend at present calling any meeting specially to refer to these countries, but he would be at any time ready and willing to accept the invitation of men wishing to hear what he had to say about the great West, to address meetings called by them.

At a meeting of the Shrivenham branch of the National Union of Agricultural Laborers, Mr. Morris addressed the meeting:

His recent trip across the Atlantic had proved to him most clearly that if they had any repetition of starvation cases, it would be the laborers' own fault. The great West contained vast tracts of the most bountiful land, lying in sheer waste through want of hands to till it. This land, the richest in the world, might be had by farm-laborers of England on terms they might easily comply with, the chief one being that they would bring it into cultivation and make it productive. While the laborer in possession of

this land was raising himself into the position of a landed proprietor, the State would care for his children, and give them a thorough, good education free of cost, and thus fit them for any position in life. He, Mr. Morris, was more than ever satisfied that his course in connection with this movement had been the right one, and, let the consequences be what they might to him as an individual, he should go with the men to the end. In England the movement had benefitted the men without injuring the master, for what the employer spent in extra wage he would save in rates, and he would have the advantage of men working for him in the place of paupers. The men knew full well what the union had done for them. As a body they had accomplished more in a year than as individuals they could have done in a life-time, and, in addition to more and better wage, they had already won for themselves a spirit of independence and manly feeling; they were beginning to estimate themselves at more than a pauper's value, and it would not be long before their new position would be recognized throughout England as being infinitely better than that in which they had previously lingered.

Mr. Morris, after his return from a visit to the United States, wrote to the author as follows:

SWINDON, October 24, 1874.

You ask for some details as to how our poor live. I will give you a case that came under my notice the other day.

An apparently strong, robust man applied to the poor-law guardians for relief, consequent upon some temporary illness in his family. His own age was thirty-three

years and his wife's age thirty years.

He had five children, aged respectively eight, six, four, three years, and three months, in all seven souls. The man, when making full time, was receiving 12s. a week wages. Out of this sum he had to pay 1s. 6d. a week for rent of his cottage, leaving 10s. 6d. to find food and clothing for seven persons, two of them being adults in the very prime of life. As you wi'l see, allowing three meals a day at a cost of one penny a meal, the full wages, without the deduction for rent, would have been insufficient by 3d. a week; yet a penny would not buy more than 8 ounces of bread at the present cost, or more than about the third of an ounce of uncooked meat. I was holding a meeting in the village in which this man lives a few evenings afterward, and I referred publicly to his case. I asked if he had truly represented his case, and the answer was yes: I was also assured that, until the present movement among the laborers, more than 11s. a week had never been paid to such men, the general rate being 10s. Men in such a state as this cannot tell how they live. It is a mystery to them as well as to every one else. It is a well-ascertained fact that, in districts where these wretched wages are paid, the cost of tillage of the land per acre is much higher than in districts where better wages are paid; yet we English people are so wedded to old notions that men kick most vigorously against all change. In the same district where these prices obtain there is not an agricultural laborer to be found who, for an ordinary week's work, receives more than 12s. a week wages. Until very recently, 9s. and 10s. was the rate paid. Can it be wondered at, then, that in the year 1868 our pauperism cost us L10,439,000? Our agricultural poor have never been paid a living wage, and we have had to supplement wages out of poor's-rate. This is proved most clearly by the fact that the recent rise in wages from 9s. and 10s. to 11s. and 12s. per week has decreased our pauperism, between the years 1870 and 1873, no less than 184 per cent. We may well suppose that the minimum cost of feeding human beings has been arrived at in our union work-houses. In my paper for October 13 you will see a report of a case where a man is charged with leaving his wife and family chargeable to the Barton Union. The master of the house, in supporting the case, swears that the cost of five between the work-house is £1 5s. per week, or more than double what an ordinary laborer would have to maintain his family with from his wages, when out of the house and in full work. In another number of my paper, that for October 27, you will find the case reported of a man twenty-one years of age, who was a hired servant at 9s. a week. This man was to have £5 over at Michaelmas. You ought to understand what this means. It is a common practice in some districts, when hiring a servant by the year, to give so much per week, with so much over at the end of the term. payment of this bonus by the master cannot be enforced by the man, and for this reason—it is always promised conditionally that the master is perfectly satisfied with the man's work throughout the whole of the year, as well as covering all possible claim for over-time in the harvest and other busy seasons. This bonus, in fact, ties a man down to be used by his master in any and every way he may think fit; if a master calls upon such a man to work from 4 or 5 in the morning until 8 or 9 at night, he must comply under pain of forfeiting this over-money. Practically, therefore, his overmoney, instead of increasing the man's wage, does no more than meet the extra wear and tear of the man at the busy seasons and at harvest-time. There is oftentimes a It should never be standard. The man reat fuss made about the amount laborers earn at piece-work. forgotten that the piece-work price is based on the day-work standard. The man working piece-work could not live on the day-man's wages. To earn the larger sum,

he must spend a larger sum for more and better food; therefore I always contend that the ordinary weekly wages should be considered exclusively, when reference is made to the amount paid the laborer. In another paragraph in the same paper you will see how a poor, wretched laborer, out of his poor wages, had managed to save up a large sum of money. I suppose that, in all states and conditions of men, such characters will be met with. I much fear there is little or no difference in the class of food this man used, that he might save money, and that used in the ordinary laborer's family, that they may fill their belies as best they can and live. If you would like to have them, I will look up a number of statements made by the men themselves at meetings over which I have presided, where they have told of their struggles to live. I shall never forget one woman asking permission to speak, and publicly thanking God that her old man, by being put on as milker, and therefore working ou the Sunday, was enabled to earn a shilling a week extra; which enabled her to give her children that amount of extra bread to eat.

As to emigration: I believe thou ands of our best laborers would gladly leave the country; but how is it possible for them to do so? Now and again they have managed to save a few pounds; but where there is one who has done so there are ninety-nine who are over head and ears in debt to the village shopkeeper.

For twenty-five years past I have read the history of these people in our police-courts and small-debt courts, as well as at the board of guardians' meetings, and noth-ing would delight me more than to see some well-devised plan for shipping them off to countries where labor is estimated at a better value and wins a more generous reward.

Mr. Morris, on account of a statement published in his paper in relation to a particular case of destitution in his neighborhood, was subjected to a suit at law, for alleged libel affecting the character of an employer, a Mr. Barnes, who felt himself aggrieved by certain allegations therein concerning the low rate of wages paid by him to the different members of a laborer's family; the inference from which was that Mr. Barnes had acted oppressively toward the poor. This case had been brought under the notice of Mr. Morris, as a member of the board of guardians of the poor, and he could not justifiably close his eyes to the actual suffering which the case presented. For this publication, however, the jury awarded to the complainant the sum of £50.

"AGRICULTURAL LABORERS' NATIONAL UNION."

[From the London Examiner.]

The agents of the National have only been at work in a certain county since last Christmas, and the number in union already exceeds two thousand, while several parishes can be found where every adult and able-bodied laborer acts in combination with his fellows. The policy of wholesale discharge has been tried and found wanting. One Berkshire farmer discharged eight of his men at a week's notice for joining the union, and before the following week had expired they were one and all placed in situations where they earned 18s. a week instead of the 11 that had previously formed situations where they carned 12s. a week instead of the 11 that had previously formed the total of their wages. The policy of wholesale eviction has shown itself to be equally fatile and suicidal. It has been tried at one place, and over forty cottages still remain empty, vainly seeking for fresh tenants. The wages had already been raised a shilling per week; when was it going to stop? Clearly something must be done, and that without delay. It was obvious that the "seeds of mischief" were sown by the words of the agitators. Stop the meetings, and the movement would sustain a severe check. Of course, meetings in the village school-rooms and in the halls of the market-towns had never been permitted, and if only the waste-lands and open spaces could be saved from the demagogue's unhallowed tread, the kindly feeling between the farmers and the laborers might still be preserved.

Such, it would seem, has been the course of their reflections, and the village of Littleworth was first selected for the opening of this new campaign against liberty of speech. Seven laborers were summoned before the Farringdon bench of magistrates, one of the justices being Viscount Folkestone, of "baron of beef" notoriety,) and mulcted in a penalty and costs for obstructing a footpath, on the evidence of two policemen and a farmer. The ruling, according to the evidence then produced, appears to have been most extraordinary. The "footpath," independently of the roadway, was 26 feet in width, which is surely an unusual allowance for a village lane; but, notwithstanding this, and the evidence distinctly denying the existence of any obstruction, the justices thought fit to decline granting a case for the higher courts. Moreover, the identical spot on which the laborers' meeting was held is the very ground

that has been constantly and habitually used for the past forty years, without let or hinderance, for the holding of Methodist and temperance meetings. This, in itself, proves that the question of obstructing the highway was a mere frivolous subterfuge.

This decision naturally caused great indignation in the neighborhood, and a meeting

was summoned on the 20th instant, to be held in the market-place at Farringdon. The market-place was thronged with between three and four thousand laborers from the neighboring villages to listen to the speeches of Mr. Arch and others. The meeting was conducted in the most orderly way, and the laborers, at its conclusion, quietly dispersed to their homes, notwithstanding the great provocation that was offered by the throwing of rotten eggs and stones from the windows of an adjacent house. The police attempted no interference with the throwing of missiles, but doubtless, in accordance with their instructions, they were not idle on the occasion. Shortly after the commencement of the proceedings, they demanded the removal of the wagon that. served as a platform, but eventually contented themselves with taking the names of the speakers, with a view to the issue of summonses. In the interests of the Union, and for the preservation of invaluable public rights, it is earnestly to be hoped that the Farringdon bench will proceed with their prosecutions. The fining of Joseph Arch, and the strong probability that he would exercise his option of preferring prison to a fine, for the crime of speaking in a country market-place to our poor country serfs, in a district where their wages only just remove them from starvation, would be worth more to the Union than the cheque of a millionaire. Other meetings have been held in this market-place, and standing-room found for wild-beast shows and exhibitions of cattle. But even suppose that the Farringdon bench should be successful in punishing these speakers, how long will laws last which sanction such outrageous decisions? The country should be very grateful to the National Agricultural Laborers' Union for putting these questions to the test.

CONDITION OF FACTORY, MECHANICAL, AND OTHER SKILLED WORKMEN.

Having considered the condition of the agricultural laborer, attention is now directed to an inquiry into the condition of British workmen employed in mines, mills, factories, and at mechanical trades. The habits of the workmen in regard to industry, and if he is unable to perform a full week's work the cause of such inability, and whether it can be removed; the condition of his home, whether comfortable, and, if not, whether the discomfort arises from his improvidence or other fault, or whether it is the fault of his employer, or results from the system or state of society—all these form subjects worthy of careful and impartial investigation.

It is assumed in the outset that the evils above indicated do exist; that the average British workman is not in general industrious, but labors only four or five days per week; that his family lives in discomfort; that the education and training of his children are almost wholly neglected, and that this discomfort and neglect are not necessarily occa-

sioned by insufficient earnings.

If the above statement affords a fair indication of the condition of many of the skilled workmen in Great Britain, especially in the mannfacturing and mining districts, the question arises to what cause or causes are these results to be ascribed? A reply to this question involves a discussion of

THE DRINKING CUSTOMS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The chief cause of the evils which afflict the British workmen and their families, it is believed, is the excessive use of spirits and beer. Although this report comprises an inquiry in relation to the wages and condition of the laboring classes in the United Kingdom, yet, in regard to the drinking habits of society, the investigation may be profitably extended beyond this limit. These habits of the British people are unfortunately not confined to the working and lower nor even to the middle classes, but pervade all ranks, and extend to both sexes and to

nearly all ages.

The fact is not forgotten that this investigation is made by a citizen of a country which, next to Great Britain, is perhaps most noted for its large consumption of intoxicating beverages—a country which expends over \$600,000,000 annually in spirituous, vinous, and malt liquors. A citizen of the United States should, therefore, be conscientiously careful in his statements, when he remembers that in this respect the walls of his national house are composed of brittle material without strength to resist the return missiles which an attack on the glass house of England might provoke.

Although facts which constantly presented themselves to the author during his stay in Great Britain afford evidence to his mind of the extent of the drinking habits of its people, and would, if presented, be sufficiently convincing to candid minds, yet preference is given and greater weight should be attached to the testimony of residents of that country who have had favorable opportunities to ascertain the actual facts, and against whom no imputation of adverse prejudice can be

alleged.

The first authority cited is the London Times, which in 1872 published the following statement:

Drinking customs of England.—The figures published by the Statistical Society showing the amount of intoxicating fluids annually consumed in this country are certainly large. We drank, it appears, last year, in spirits, malt liquors, wine, cider, &c., more than seventy-two million gallons of pure alcohol, at a cost, in round numbers, of £120,000,000. It is calculated that at least half of this money is spent by the working-classes; and as they desire principally strength or quantity in their drink, we shall probably not be wrong in assigning to them very much more than half our entire yearly consumption. There is no more alcohol in a bottle of wine than in half a pint of ardent spirits, and the cost of the one may be a guinea, and of the other ninepence or a shilling. It is clear that if the working-classes have spent their £60,000,000 in a cheaper form of intoxicating drink, they have got much more for their money, and may probably be debited with fifty million gallons out of the entire seventy-two millions of the year. It will be seen, if the figures are compared with those of 1871, that the total amount of the past year is not only very large in itself, but shows a considerable increase on the year before it. We spent in 1871 only £108,000,000 on the same objects, and received for our money, in various forms, somewhat less than sixty-five million gallons of alcohol. The rise is certainly considerable. It has been due, probably, to the increased wages of labor, which have allowed the workingman to indulge himself in more luxuries.

The following, in relation to the same subject, appears in the Times of November 6, 1874:

Drunkenness in England.—The number of persons charged before magistrates in England and Wales in 1873 with being drunk, or drunk and disorderly, namely, 182,941, is very nearly double the number so charged in 1863, in which year it was but 94,745. The increase has been chiefly in the last six of the intervening ten years. In 1867 the number was but 100,357; in 1868 it was but 111,465; in 1869, 122,310; in 1870, 131,870; in 1871, 142,343; in 1872, 151,084. In 1873, the first year under the new intoxicating liquors act, instead of the continuance of an increase of 10,000 or 11,000 in a year, the number leaped up to 182,941, an increase of 32,000 over the preceding year. There are no means of distributing the increase among its causes, whether high wages, stricter police supervision, or other causes; but the number is remarkable. It is worth notice also that the increase is more among men than among women. In 1867 the number proceeded against comprised 74,860 men and 25,497 women—three men to one woman, the women being a little above a fourth of the whole number; but in 1873 the numbers were 141,232 men and 41,709 women, the women in 1867 being 400 more than a fourth of the whole number, but in 1873 4,000 less than a fourth of the whole number.

The following extract from Fraser's Magazine, February, 1872, illustrates the evils resulting from the drinking habits of the laborer:

DRINK TRAFFIC IN GREAT BRITAIN.—The drink-seller in manifold cases knows certainly that the customer is transferring to him money which is not morally his own to

spend. Every married workingman employs his wife as his cook and housemaid. In these characters she has a right to wages from him, which must be paid before he has any right to mere indulgence of the palate. When he has children, they too have a prior right; and the mother, during her times of weakness, ought not to be worked. A laborer who neglects wife and children to gratify his appetite for liquor is morally guilty as though spending the money of another.

In proof of the statement heretofore made, that the habit of drinking to excess extends to the middle and upper classes, the testimony of Dr. Anstie is presented. The following appeared in the Practitioner for 1879.

We must notice the fact that many girls of the wealthy middle and of the upper classes, especially the former, are of late years taking to consume all kinds of wine, and particularly champagne, to an extent which used never to be permitted. At many modern ball suppers champagne flows like water; and the attentive observer will soon perceive that it is not the men, by any means, who do the larger part of the consumption. These same young ladies who have so freely partaken of champagne over-night will next day at lunch take plenty of bottled beer, or a couple of glasses of sherry. Dinner comes round, and again either champagne or hock or port or sherry is drunk, not less than a couple of glasses being taken. And then the evening very often brings a party of some kind with the inevitable champagne or sherry. We are speaking of things which we have seen when we say that many girls who live among rich (especially nouvers riche) and gay society are in the habit, during six months out of the twelve, of taking (in the shape of wine, &c.) a daily average of two, two and a half, or three onnees of absolute alcohol, a quantity which, if expressed in cheap beer, would be equal to six or seven pints.

The general moral is that light wine gives the taste for strong wine, beer for gin. This is fatally experienced in France, in the United States, in Germany, and in England. Our Saturday Reviewer remarkably comments: "Education and intelligence are rather against a woman than otherwise, for they make her believe that she at least

is safe while gradually and unawares imbibing the fatal propensity."

In further illustration of the general use of liquors in England, it may be stated, as the result of personal observation, that ladies of the middle classes, when visiting any exhibition, are accustomed to par-

take of wine with their necessary refreshments.

In the visits of the author to large industrial establishments in England and Scotland wine was frequently offered—a custom which was in vogue in the United States some forty years ago, the retention of which in Great Britain is probably due to the intense conservatism of that country. In one instance, where the works were extensive and several hours occupied in their examination, wine was at several times offered, and surprise was expressed that such fatiguing exertion could be undergone without some stimulus.

In various parts of Europe Americans were met at dinner who declined taking wine, but such a refusal on the part of Englishmen.

or other Europeans was in no instance observed.

In subsequent pages extended articles "On the condition of the working-classes of Great Britain," prepared especially for this report by United States consuls and others, are given in full. Brief extracts from some of these papers, referring to the drinking habits of the people, are presented here.

The United States consul at Manchester says:

The working-classes consume an enormous quantity of intoxicating liquors, principally beer, though very many partake largely of spirits and of the cheaper wines. Intemperance seems to be on the increase, especially among the women, not only of the working-classes, but also of the middle and upper middle classes.

General Fairchild, United States consul at Liverpool, under date of November, 1873, writes:

The increase of drunkenness, and all dissipations which follow idle hours, is alarming.

^{*} The author may be pardoned for making a personal reference. An English lady, because one of her guests drank no wine at dinner, also declined to taste the beverage; a marked exception to the general custom above indicated, and a rare exhibition of true politicuess.

The Westminster Review of January, 1874, says:

Liverpool has the unenviable notoriety of being the most drunken town in the United Kingdom.

Dr. Trench, the able and well-informed medical officer of the health department of Liverpool, remarks:

The working-classes of Liverpool are extremely intemperate, even when compared with similar sections of the community in other large towns of Great Britain.

His able official report for a previous year contains the following on the same subject:

The amount which is spent in drink is astonishing. One or two instances of the

worst kind, occurring in the same street, may be cited.

A man earns 27s. regularly, and spends as regularly 21s. in drink; his four children are in rags. In another instance the wages are 30s. a week regularly; the father and mother are both drunken, and three children are half starved, and in rags. In another house is a copper-ore worker, earning 27s. a week, all of which is spent in drink by himself and his wife. The children are in rags and filth, and look idiotic. In the same street there are sober men, earning only 20s. and 23s. a week, who are living in comfort.

The landlord of a small public-house, who had lived for years in the district, and knew intimately the habits of the people, said, "For one man who did not drink, there were fifty who would take their share; they starve their wives and children, and must beg if they want a bit."

Mr. Jenkinson, the consul of the United States at Glasgow, in reference to the increase of intemperance, wrote as follows:

That drunkenness prevails to an alarming extent among the working-class cannot be denied; that it has increased as their wages have been increased is also true. Many have, no doubt, been benefited by such increase of wages; but most, it seems, outspend their extra earnings in extra quantities of whisky.

Dr. Webster, United States consul at Sheffield, thus writes, January 22, 1874:

From inquiry and my own observation, I believe that far the larger part of the loss of time and the reckless waste of money is the result of the drinking habits which prevail so generally. It is painful to see how the weekly wages are squandered by the thousands who throng the drinking places on Saturday, Suuday, (at certain hours,) Monday, and Tuesday, and, indeed, on all the days of the week.

There are in Sheffield 1,400 public houses, licensed places for the sale of beer and spirits. At each of these, at a low estimate, an average amount of £10 is spent weekly, making an aggregate of £14,000 of weekly expenditure for a population of 240,000.

Mr. Consul Jones, of New Castle upon-Tyne, in his report on the moral

and social condition of the working classes, says:

Many of them are very improvident and fond of drink; a feast of food and stimulants in the early part of the week, at the expense of an insufficient supply at the end, is very frequently the case among the sons of toil on the Tyne. Excessive drinking has undoubtedly increased in this district since the short hours and advanced wages have prevailed.

It was said boastingly by English statesmen that the nation had drunk itself out of the Alabama claims by the increased income from the tax on

intoxicating drinks during the past year.

The following extract from a letter addressed to the author by the right honorable the Earl of Shaftesbury, a nobleman universally regarded as a Christian philanthropist of the highest type, further illustrates this part of the subject: London, February 12, 1875.

There are speeches, pamphlets, and treatises in SIR: " immense abundance on the evils of intemperance. Even our newspapers are begining to denounce the sin and call for a remedy. I should weary you by repeating—and, indeed, you must well know them-the numerous and various facts which may be read every day and everywhere. There is very little of all that is said that I should not indorse.

That the filthy, close, depressing, pestilential state of the dwellings in several large

towns, and certainly in the metropolis, is a strong provocation to drink, and specially to drink ardent spirits, is to my mind simply beyond question.

The loss to a country, morally, socially, and financially, by such habits among the

people, defies all calculation.

With many thanks for your letter, I am, sir, your obedient servant, SHAFTESBURY.

EDWARD YOUNG, Esq., Chief of United States Bureau of Statistics, Washington, D. C.

THE NATIONAL BEVERAGE.

In an editorial, discussing the agitation for the repeal of the tax on malt, a tax which its opponents denounce as one that "robs the poor man of his beer," the London Daily Telegraph of March 6, 1874, makes the following remarks:

We know all that can be said about the "national beverage." There are those who believe that it is the "wine of the country;" that, if we made it cheap and its use universal, the consumption of ardent spirits would decrease, and comparative temperance be really promoted; and that—to quote Sir Robert Peel slightly altered—"the laboringman would recruit his exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed beer, no longer leavened by a sense of injustice." It is quite possible that some of these brilliant results might be achieved. This belief in the beneficent blessings of the drink is, however, not new. It at one time dictated a legislative measure, that was received with hearty and almost universal applause. The beer-act of 1830 was passed in order to encourage everywhere the erection of beer-houses, as distinct from gin-palaces. It was designed, as its friends said, to "supply a wholesome beverage," or what Lord Brougham, oddly enough, called a "moral species of beverage," distinguished from rum, brandy, whisky, and gin, which, by implication, he accused of immorality. Men of all parties supported the measure, as conducive to the health, the morality, and the sobriety of the laboring-classes, through bringing to their doors a cheap and wholesome drink. But the results bitterly disappointed the expectations of its friends. Sidney Smith wrote: "The new beer bill has begun its operations. Everybody is drunk. Those who are not singing are sprawling. The sovereign people are in a beastly state." We have now given up the policy of multiplying beer-houses, in order to bring back the age of gold. The farmers tell us we did not go far enough, and that the true "Paradise Regained" is to be found in a home-brewing people.

BREWERIES IN BURTON-ON-TRENT.

Manchester is not more celebrated for its manufacture of cotton, Leeds for its woolens, Birmingham for its hardware, and Sheffield for its steel and cutlery, than is Burton for its ale. Although, in proportion to the vast product, but few men are employed in its manufacture, and therefore a knowledge of the rates of wages is comparatively unimportant, yet in consequence of the vast influence which emanates from this uninteresting town, the author took occasion to visit it, and was shown through the extensive brewery of Messrs. Allsopp & Sons. This is the largest single brewery, and makes 2,000 barrels of ale per day. Bass produces a larger quantity, but has three breweries in operation. The vast extent of the beer-interest in Great Britain may be gathered from the following account of only one establishment in one of the towns devoted to this manufacture:

The town of Burton-on-Trent is almost wholly given up to the manufacture of beer. In fact, the breweries are the town, and the interstices between the breweries simply contain some dwelling-houses. The immense breweries of Bass, Allsopp, Inde, Coope, Worthington, Salt, Nunneley, Evershed, and Robinson are all there, besides others of lesser note. Bass alone has three breweries there, covering altogether a little over 100 acres of ground. Bass used last year 267,000 quarters of malt for brewing purposes. If it be reckoned that an acre grows four quarters of barley, 66,750 acres were occupied in growing the malt which Bass used. Of hops his consumption was 29,000 cwt., which engrossed about 2,000 acres of hop-growing country. In malt-tax and license duty he paid last year £200,000. The total brew of Bass during the year

amounted to 720,000 barrels, each barrel containing 36 gallons; so that Bsss could have served more than half the estimated number of the human race with a glass of beer per head from his brewing of one year. Throughout his Burton premises Bsss owns over five miles of private railway, runs five private locomotives, and uses twenty-six steam-engines, with a collective horse-power of 436. He employs in Burton over 2,000 persons, and pays more than £2,000 in weekly wages. He used last year 33,300 tons of coal. He has in use 30,000 butts, 144,000 hogsheads, 113,000 barrels, and 249,000 kilderkins; a stock of casks, in all, in store and scattered over the country, exceeding half a million.

Mr. Bass is now, and was at the time of the visit, a member of Parliament, as are also Mr. Allsopp and some other brewers; but in the House of Commons his name is rarely mentioned. On great financial or educational questions, or on measures for the improvement of the condition of the poor, or for the correction of abuses, he rarely, if ever, speaks; in the efforts now making to improve the condition of dwellings of the working-classes, his voice has not been heard supporting the measures so ably urged by Mr. Cross and others. But if, in the House of Commons, his voice is not heard and his influence not felt in behalf of measures for the amelioration of the condition of the lower classes, the influence of Mr. Bass outside of Parliament is potential. Westminster may be the seat of political and financial influence. but the vast power which molds the character, affects the material and moral condition, and sways the destinies of the great masses of the English people, has its chief seat at Burton-on-Trent. Nor is this influence confined to the British Islands. Throughout Europe and America, and in countries which the traveler rarely visits, the name of Bass is well known. In places where the immortal works of Shakespeare are unread, the products of Bass are familiar; ears which have never heard the classic name of Stratford-upon-Avon, are not unused to Burton-on Trent.

It was hoped by an inexperienced American, when leaving London—whose placarded houses and walls proclaimed the virtues of the ale or porter of different and rival brewers—that by crossing the Channel he would escape from the ubiquitous Burton brewer, but the first English words that met his eyes as he sat at breakfast at Dieppe were "Bass' ale." At the far East this ale was seen not only in the modern but in the renowned ancient capital of Russia,* and at the great fair at Nijni Novgorod on the far off Volga, as well as in the usual routes of travel in Central Europe; at the West, in the floating palaces which traverse the Atlantic, and in New York, Washington, and throughout the United States, even to the shores of the Pacific, Bass' ale can be procured.

And it may be doubted whether there is any spot upon the globe, where civilized people dwell which is unsupplied with the mait liquors

of Bass, † Allsopp, or other English brewer.

Although the evils resulting from the continued use of strong beer are painfully apparent in Great Britain, yet it does not easily intoxicate. Taken at meals or with bread, forming as it does a chief article of consumption, it is apparently harmless; but its excessive and long-continued use, especially at night and when taken by itself, produces most injurious effects. The beer of Germany, especially of Bavaria, which forms a staple article of consumption, must be much lighter, for in that

In 1789 a consignment of twenty half hogsheads of ale, containing 789 gallons, was made by a Burton brewer to Saint Petersburg, and in exchange requested the shipment of pine and horshead stayes.

ment of pipe and hogshead staves.

†Mr. Bass, like Mr. Guinness, in Dublin, and the late Mr. Vassar of this country, has distributed large sums in benevolence. A church was pointed out to the writer in Burton, costing some £25,000, and another situated elsewhere, which were built at his sole expense. Possibly there is some connection, other than alliteration, between beer and benevolence.

country intoxication is infrequent. Indeed, the consul of the United States at Chemnitz remarked, "Judging from the quantity a native can consume, I apprehend that one will stagger quicker from the weight than the strength of the potion." In England, small or light beer has been in general use for many centuries, and was a common beverage long before the introduction of tea. *

Indeed it is a little remarkable that while the use of beer does not diminish, that of "the cup which cheers but not inebriates" has greatly increased, until the average consumption, in that country has reached

four pounds per capita. †

To those who need or think they need some stimulus, the use of malt liquors is far less injurious than spirits. The intemperance which so generally prevails in Liverpool, Glasgow, London, and Antwerp, where West India rum and other spirits are largely consumed, attests this fact.

HOMES OF THE WORKING PEOPLE.

It has been incontestably shown that the chief cause of the evils that afflict working men and their families arises from the excessive use of spirituous and malt liquors. In making a full analysis of this subject it becomes necessary to extend the investigation beyond the secondary and search for the primary cause, of which the cause just stated is merely an effect. If the workman indulges in the excessive use of spirits and beer, which results in decided injury to his family, is he alone responsible? The question is pertinent and demands a candid reply. From a careful consideration of the subject it is evident that the intemperate habits of a great mass of British workmen are due to the drinking customs of the classes above them in the social scale, which the facts already presented, and others which are patent in regard to the almost universal use of intoxicants in the upper ranks of society, sufficiently prove. Until those to whom the working classes look for example feel their responsibility in the premises, so long will the majority expend a portion of their earnings in drink, and suffer their families to remain in poverty, ignorance, and discomfort. The responsibility for this misery should, it is affirmed, be shared by others.

In addition to the drinking customs of society which should justly be charged with a part of the wrong inflicted on the workmen's families, there is another cause for which others are chiefly responsible, viz, the wretched tenements occupied by the working classes. From the initial step in this investigation the author's attention was arrested by observing the miserable apartments in which most of the factory operatives dwell. In Birmingham and Wolverhampton, and in most parts of the "black country," in parts of nearly all the chief manufacturing cities of England and Scotland, the tenements to which the tired laborers return at night, and where they should have comfort and repose, are in many cases unfit for human habitation. In some instances these belong to the corporations owning the mills, mines, or works, and were erected in low grounds destitute of drainage and of proper sanitary regulations. In other places they occupied rooms in poor buildings in the outskirts of town or in the most crowded thoroughfares, redolent of filth and Confined to two or three rooms, or as in Glasgow to one, or at most

In the United States the consumption of tea, which was formerly but one pound per capita, has gradually increased until now it is nearly 11 pounds; still it is but little over one-third of the average consumption in Great Britain.



^{*}Tea was introduced into England before 1657. Beer was used in Germany and Britain in the time of Tacitus.

to two rooms for a family, comfort, cleanliness, and even decency are

impossible.

What wonder, then, when the husband and father, fatigued with his day's toil, returns home, to partake of his frugal evening meal, finding his wife irritable in consequence of hard work, the care of wayward children, and the deprivation of ordinary comforts, that he visits the alehouse where he and his fellow-toilers, similarly circumstanced, drown their cares in the beer-mug and squander their hard earnings which should have been devoted to the comfort of their families!

In the papers already referred to, on the condition of the working classes, which appear on subsequent pages, ample testimony is afforded of the character of the tenements occupied by the poor. The follow-

ing facts in regard to that subject are first presented.

Mr. Consul Jenkinson, in his report on the condition of the laboring classes of Glasgow, thus writes in regard to the wretched tenements which most of them occupy:

HOMES OF THE LABORING CLASSES OF GLASGOW.

The condition of the laboring men of this city cannot be fully understood without a glance at their homes. In this respect, perhaps, more than in any other, is the greatest contrast presented between the British and American mechanic. Home comforts, in the American sense, are but little known to the laboring man in Glasgow, living for the most part in great tenement buildings, where ten or a dozen, sometimes twenty or thirty, families occupy a single tenement; each family possessed of but one, or at most two, ill-ventilated, dreary, dirty rooms. The official statistics upon this subject are startling. The city chamberlain, in his report for 1869, says. "It is quite aside from the subject to complain of single apartments being each occupied by a family, for such has always been the case, and apparently will continue to be the case, much as it is to be regretted. The chief evil arises when a dwelling-house becomes subdivided into single apartments, each entering through its neighbor, in place of each opening only upon a well-ventilated staircase or corridor. Some readers may not be prepared to learn that at the census of 1861 more than 28,000 houses in Glasgow were found to consist of but a single apartment, and above 32,000 to consist of two; so that of the whole 82,000 families comprising the city, upwards of 60,000 were housed in dwellings of one and two apartments each."

For 1870 the estimated numbers were: Families each occupying a single room, 29,884; those occupying only two rooms, 43,403—showing that more than 73,000 of the 97,000 families comprising the city of Glasgow in 1870 were living in one or two rooms each. The mere statement of these facts is sufficient to show that few home comforts fall to the lot of the laboring classes of this city, and if I should add a description of the dirt and desolation prevailing in most all of these homes, making them mere nests of disease and suffering, I would even then have only partially detailed their discomforts. And imagine 8,000 of these families congregated on the space of four blocks, as is the case in this city, and can anything more be done to darken the picture? Such miserable dwellings cannot of course command very high rents, and it is not surprising, therefore, to find, from an official report, that during the year just closed (1872) there were in this city more than 74,000 dwelling houses renting at less than \$50 each. And, as I find on inquiry that dwellings of two rooms rent for from \$40 to \$50 each, it is presumable that all of these 74,000 dwellings, each occupied by a family, were of

one or two rooms each.

In a report prepared for these pages by Mr. Consul Webster, "on the condition of the working people of Sheffield," he says:

The mother in many cases being away from home at work, consequently neglects

The mother in many cases being away from home at work, consequently neglects the family. The husband, knowing that there is no comfort for him at home, resorts to the nearest dram-shop for refreshment; the wife, in many cases, doing the same. Hence the sad neglect of the children.

In the matter of their dwellings and furniture, their dress, their sleeping accommodations, and almost everything that goes to make the home, the comfort of the family is seriously abridged. And yet wast numbers who earn good wages, say thirty, forty, and figure a week seem to be satisfied with the sentiest supply of the most and fifty shillings a week, seem to be satisfied with the scantiest supply of the most common absolute necessaries of life. In very many cases large families do live in one and two rooms. This would not be true of a majority, but it is too common.

Mr. Consul Branscomb, in his "report on the condition and habits of the working classes of the Manchester consular district," which appears in full on a subsequent page, thus alludes to the homes of some of the working people:

The houses of those persons who squander so much in driuk * are squalid, wretched, and desolate. In many cases families who can unitedly earn, when they all care to work full time, three, four, five, and even six pounds per week, live in filthy and dilapidated old tenements in the back slums, and sometimes huddle together in one or two rooms, without a bit of devent furniture.

Mr. Consul Gould, in his report upon the condition of the working-people, which appears on a subsequent page, says:

In a large proportion of their homes family comfort is totally unknown. The tenements of the laboring-class are but poor apologies for homes, in multitudes of cases their whole furniture not being worth more than a few shillings. Pawnbrokers do a thriving business, and the only part of the week when comforts are introduced is on Saturday evening and Sunday, after the wages of the week come in. Monday usually begins with the poverty and pawning of the previous week, and thus the perpetual round continues. The tenements are generally small and dirty.

The following extract from the Cambrian News shows the uncomfortable lodgings of working-people in Wales:

The newly-sppointed inspector of nuisances for the rural district of Aberystwith has mode two reports, which reveal an almost inconceivable state of degradation among the people. A large number of the houses are altogether unfit for habitation, and those hovels are terribly over-crowded, adults of both sexes being herded promiscuously together. In one case, sixteen men sleep in eight beds in two small rooms; and in another instance four men occupy the beds during the night and four during the day, the day-occupants frequently having to wait until the night-men get up. In one place a family lives in a hut, which is also used as a slanghter-house, skin-room, and butcher's shop; and in another, a woman, her grown-up daughter, a cow, a heifer, and nine fowls occupied one room, which has no fire-place, no window, and no light or ventilation beyond that provided by the door.

Dr. Griffiths, the medical officer of health for the borough of Sheffield, in his annual report issued in 1874, thus refers to the sanitary condition of the dwellings of the poor:

Many of the dwellings of the poor are unfit for them. One room frequently serves the threefold purpose of bed-room, dwelling-room, and work-room, and the cubic space for air is totally inadequate for the health of the tenants. When to this is added that the windows are generally what are termed Yorkshire lights, or casements, many of which cannot be opened; and that when panes are broken the deficiency is supplied by wood or paper, excluding the light; and that whole families, without regard to sex or age, the single and married, are promiscously mingled—there need be no surprise at the existence of disease nor at the spread of infection.

The following extracts are from a report on the sanitary condition of Liverpool, made in 1871, by Dr. Parkes and Dr. Sanderson:

Within the courts each house usually consists of a room on the ground-floor, a room above this, and a third room in the attic. Most of them have cellars. It very frequently happens that there is a family in each room except the cellar. In many cases the staircase forms part of the rooms, and is without any window, so that in fact there is an inevitable mixture of the air contained in all the rooms. Few constructions could be better adapted for the spread of contagious diseases.

Many of them at once attributed their condition to drink; others owned it on being

Many of them at once attributed their condition to drink; others owned it on being pressed on the matter. Several women gave an exact statement of what their husbands earned and what they brought home. Two examples are selected of workmen in whose cases there was no irregularity of employment. A tin-plate worker in constant work earns 22s. a week. He has a wife, evidently a careful, respectable woman, and four children. In reply to questions, she said he drank a little, then owned "he drank very heavy." Sometimes he brought home 18s., sometimes 16s., sometimes 12s.; last week he drank it all. If he would bring 22s. a week, she should be "happy as the day is long." This family of six persons were living in one back room, for which they paid 1s. 6d. a week; it was 10½ feet long, 9 feet broad, and 8½ feet high; the furniture was a bed, table, and two rickety chairs. Two of the four children were sick. In the front room of the same house, the rent of which was 2s. a week, a man and wife, a daughter aged 17, and a son aged 15, lived; the man earned 24s. a week, and passed his

time in drinking hard, repenting and saving, and then drinking again; the wife "drank all she could get." The son and daughter earned next to nothing. "

The unhappy people seem to know none of the comforts and few of the decencies of life, and widespread habits of drunkenness, and consequent want of food, aid their

wretched homes in destroying their health.

It is no doubt partly from the smallness and precariousness of the earnings of unskilled industry, that so many families live in the single rooms of sub-let houses, and thus perpetuate their miserable condition in the training and bringing up of their children. It may be a question whether this condition of their homes promotes the vice of drunkeness, or whether drunkenness itself be the primary and originating cause of that thriftless improvidence which leads to poverty and want. But there is another phase of the habits engendered by the single-room tenements of our sub-let houses, which is not without interest in all future measures for the education and improvement of the people.

In sixty-two instances adult sons and daughters slept in the same room with their parents, and in three instances in the same bed. In one hundred and fifty-two instances adult danghters slept in the same room, and in fifty-six instances in the same bed, with their parents. In two hundred and fourteen instances adult sons slept in the same room, and in one hundred and fifty-eight instances in the same bed, with their mothers. In thirty-seven instances adult daughters slept in the same room, and in twenty-seven instances in the same bed, with their fathers. In fifty-nine instances the mother with her adult sons and daughters slept in the same room, and in twenty-one instances in the same bed, together. In twelve instances the father, with his adult sons and daughters, slept in the same room, and in six instances in the same bed, together. In seven instances a mother, adult son, and a female lodger slept in the same room, and in two instances in the same bed, together. In sixty-four instances a man, his wife, and a female lodger slept in the same room, and in three instances in the same bed. In twelve instances a man, wife, and male lodger, slept in the same room. In thirty-nine instances adult brothers and sisters slept in the same room, and in twenty instances in the same bed. The overcrowding which we find in sub-let houses is generally connected with or caused by these bad arrangements of a family. Thus, for example, in one room of the cubical dimensions of 900 feet, a mother and her two sons, aged eighteen and twenty, were in one bed, and a man, his wife, and his daughter, aged eighteen, in another bed. In another room of the cubical dimensions of 800 feet, there were found alceping, a father, two sons of eighteen and twenty, a daughter of twenty-two, and a female lodger of thirty years of age. In another room of the cubical dimensions of 800 feet, there were found sleeping in one bed on the floor, two brothers of twenty-four and twenty-six, and four sisters of twenty-eight, twenty, eighteen, and sixteen years of age, respectively.

The following table, from official sources, shows the crowded condition of some parts of Edinburgh, and the consequent increase of mortality.

Over-crowded tenements and their vital statistics.

				Population in 1864.			Mortality in 1863.		
Name.	Area in square y	Коотв.	Families.	Above 5 years.	Under 5 years.	Total.	Above 5 years.	Under 5 years.	Total.
Gowanloch's Land 8 Cowgalehead Middle Meal-market Stair Old Meal-market Stair 56 Blackfriars' Wynd 23 Carrnbber's Close Scot's Land, Cowgate Hope's Land, Canongate Purves' Land, Canongate Burns' Land, Canongate Birtley Buildings, Canongate Grambie's Land, Westport 3 East Richmond street 31 St. James street	300 250 353 250 230 352 176 254 167	60 60 59 31 49 45 53 36 32 25 35 27 56 70	39 38 56 92 28 35 42 29 29 13 33 20 43 56	109 155 197 96 103 107 128 80 92 54 101 54 148 168	25 24 51 14 27 28 42 23 27 14 24 16 29 52	134 179 248 110 130 135 170 103 119 68 125 70 177 220	24 34 13 6 2 11 13	22531231416223	4 6 8 7 2 5 9 3 4 1 7 3 6

It is gratifying to know that the improvement in dwellings for the working-classes has engaged the attention of philanthropists in Eng-

land, and that the subject has received the careful consideration of Parliament, as will be shown on a subsequent page.

The London Times, in an article showing the small number of the comfortable, regards those families which pay a rental of less that £20 a year as not among the "comfortable." The writer says:

Seven in eight of our population live in "houses of less than £20 a year—that is, are not, in the ordinary sense of that word, comfortable at all, but are, with more or less of content, always struggling to make ends meet, always compelled to think of money, always affected in the most direct and serious way by a tax, a rise in prices, or a stoppage in the course of trade. It is only to one in eight of our population that a sovereign is not a very serious sum, only to four in a thousand that a five pound note is not an important, most important amount of money."

The number of the really comfortable in Britain cannot by possibility exceed 70,000, while it may be very little more than half that amount.

As the working-class pays a rental of less than £20 a year, it will be observed that this vast array of work-people are living outside the pale of "comfortable."

DEGRADED CONDITION OF THE WORKING-CLASSES.

[From the London Daily Telegraph, July 13, 1874.]

But there are people who are worse off than the mill-hands, whose abiding-places are the slums of Manchester. I should not have thought it possible, but so it is. There are toilers and sweaters for daily bread whose condition in life is worse even than that of the miner who delves in the bowels of the earth or the smelter of iron who works naked to the waist, and with a leather mask before his face to keep his eyes from being melted in his head, as is the red ore in the melting pot it is his business to feed and keep at a molten simmer. I thought and said so a fortnight since; but at that time I had not visited the potteries, nor passed half a day in Longton, which is the center of the murky region where half the crockery that is used in the world is produced; and I am afraid to say how many times dirtier, smokier, and, to the unaccustomed, more stifling than any other pottery parish round about.

The following extract from the report of the Inspector of British factories indicates the degraded condition of the work-people in the fens and at brick-making:

I have just received a report from Mr. Lakeman of some work he has done in the fens of Cambridgeshire: "I have gone through the center of the fen district, and of all the journeys undertaken by me it was the most tedious and uninteresting, excepting that I have taken note of a type of people seemingly peculiar to the fens, vacant in expression of countenance, ignorant of everything but work. They do not know the names of the localities around them, and never see any one better than themselves, save their employers. I wonder how these poor creatures are to be reached, what is their hope, where their happiness or comfort in life."

where their happiness or comfort in ine."

From another part of the country I have had much the same picture: "A most barbarous, semi-civilized, ignorant set. Men and boys look like red Indians; the sand used in brick-making being burnt red, and with which their bodies are covered, working bareheaded, barefooted, with exposed breasts, and with wild looks, drinking all day Sunday; Monday and Tuesday dog-fighting and man-fighting. They resume work on Wednesdays, when the poor little unfortunates are made to toil away, stamping and carrying, and pressing a good fortnight's work into three or four days. One man, who last week earned in four days 23s., took his wife home a loaf of bread and 6d."

Not only among the fens and in the brick-fields of England is this degradation manifest, but in those towns which exhibit the highest type of civilization. In some of the manufacturing towns of England there is a downcast look which indicates hopelessness, if not despair, on the part of the working-classes. They seem to have sunk into a condition of despondency from which nothing can rouse them. No ray of hope glimmers in their pathway, beckoning them to higher position. They seem to regard their social condition as fixed. They have no hope, and apparently little desire, to rise superior to their present state. What

their fathers were they are, and their sons will be. Many of them seem destitute alike of hope for increased happiness here or hereafter.

These traits were noticed by the author more at Wolverhampton, and elsewhere in the Black Country, and at Bradford and other portions of Yorkshire, and in some localities of Lancashire. The working-classes of England are not possessed of the elasticity of the Irish, and seem more despondent than the people of any class in other countries, except the recently emancipated serfs of Russia.

The following extract from a letter written by Professor Shepard, of Chicago, to the New York Examiner, although perhaps too highly colored for an accurate description of the working-classes in the whole of England, is yet a true as well as graphic presentation of the condi-

tion of a portion of them.

THE WORKING-CLASSES OF BRADFORD.

Bradford is a thoroughly English manufacturing town. You do not know what faces

I saw, if you never saw the faces of the English working-classes.

O, the wretched faces of weary children, the faces lit up with a forced mirth! The faces that have been feeling the grinding and grinding for generations—the inherited faces of the English working-people, men and women and children, father and son, mother and babe. I don't believe there is such a looking lot of people on the face of this earth as the working-classes of England. Just over the Tweed there is relief. Bad enough there, but not to be compared with what you see in the great manufactur-

ing towns of England.

I recall Switzerland. But there, with all the appearance of dull uniformity, you see no grinding of the faces of a lower class by the heels of an upper class. The "common people" of that uncommon country have nobody above them and nobody below them. Besides, some education is compulsory, and some military training. They are picturesque in dress, and free-looking in the face, however addicted to unlovely labor and unaspiring industry—a dead-level people in the most mountainous of countries. Above them only the mountains, below them only the valleys. Perhaps they crouch to the mountains instead of to a class. Perhaps the mountains have oppressed some of the aspiratains instead of to a class. Perhaps the mountains have oppressed some of the aspiration out of them, as the ravages of adamantine caste have crushed all the imagination out of the British workman. In the north of Europe, whatever you see of haggardness and weariness, you see a certain something like contentment, and elasticity, and thrifty independence of behavior. Then, as for the south of Europe, the lowest are the happiest. Laborer, beggar, and papper are jolliest of them all. The destitute are never destitute of sunshine in sky or soul. You do not sympathize, you envy; you do the sighing, not the ragged beggar. So in Ireland. With all his barking and biting at the heels of the "oppressive" old lion, Pat never shows any of the grind in his face. The Irish peasantry are as pleasant a sight as any sight of the sort in the world. In the land of the Celt or the Southron you will always find the veriest squalor touched with nature's brush of the picturesque. nature's brush of the picturesque.

But there is nothing to relieve the eye or cheer the imagination in this vast sea of down-turned faces in England. The lower classes there are utterly destitute of anything calculated to break the monotony of their toilsome look. They have no manners, or customs, or costumes; no games or frolics with which to animate the spectacle they present to the eye of the foreigner. They work and work and work; they drink and

drink and drink; they smoke and smoke and smoke.

They do as their fathers did; their children do as they do. Father and mother and child go forth to their labor until the evening, and go forth to the beer-shop when the evening comes. That shop, with its blaze of gas, its sparkling brass hoops on the gin-casks, its burnished ornaments on the beer-fountains, its row of tidy tumblers, its clatter of coppers on the counter, its jingle of glasses, its turgid apology for humor, and its ceaseless sound of boozy discontent—that grog-shop contrasts fatally with that workingman's home. That is his only home, indeed—his home and theater, recreation and education, social life, mental life, and animal life, all in one. Is it any wonder that the one candle-lit, dingy room up the court is unable to hold its own against it!

So it is a dead-lift—this effort in behalf of the lower millions of England. They are not attractive; they are horribly unattractive. They repel the imagination. You avert your face; you never smile, because they never smile. The wickedpour face; you hever same, occased they have same.

The whole same had time to be on your guard; the goodnesses of the low Briton are repulsive. There is no spontaneity or enthusiasm, or quickness of humor or brightness, or zeal or snap here. It is all so dogged, and sluggish, and logy. There is an ever and forever coze, in the way of the British workman, that sets you almost distracted. It is pulling teeth to pull him through.

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REPORTS ON THE CONDITION OF THE WORKING-CLASSES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

Having directed attention to the drinking habits of the laboringclasses and the condition of the rooms they occupy, it is now proposed to present, in extenso, the several reports made by consuls of the United States, and others, on the subject under consideration.

SHEFFIELD.

Letter from U. B. Webster, esq., United States consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE. Sheffield, August 4, 1872.

In the great teel-manufactories of Sheffield, employing, each, several thousands of men, scarcely any work is done on Monday, and very little on Tuesday. I am informed that this is true of a large portion of the laboring population of this town. On those days the streets and drinking-places literally swarm with workingmen. Work stops on Saturday at 1 o'clock. The loss of time on Monday is due principally to the drinking habits of the operatives, but in part to the necessity of taking time for re-

It has been stated to me as a fact, that, although the rates of wages are advancing.

the men are earning less money, because they work fewer hours.

In estimating the average weekly expenditures of a family of two adults and three children, the fact is to be taken into account that, in a large proportion of families, the children, the fact is to be taken into account that, in a large proportion of families, the wife and some of the children, the latter often as young as twelve years of age, earn considerable amounts of money. This makes it very difficult to estimate the actual earnings and expenditure of the families of the working-people. They expend all they earn, and they earn more than would appear in the report of the amount paid to the man who is supposed to support the family. And here we see the superior condition of the American workman of the same grade, he, by his own earnings, being able to support his family far more comfortably than the English laborer, with the immense added advantages of freedom to the wife to care for the interests of the home, and to the hildren the privilege of constant attendance at acheal children the privilege of constant attendance at school.

The fact of the mother, in many cases, being away from home at work, and consequently neglecting the family, enters as an important element in estimating the moral condition of this class of people. For the husband, knowing there is no comfort for him at home, resorts to the nearest dram-shop for refreshment, the wife in many cases doing the same. And these shops abound in every neighborhood; hence the sad neglect of the children. Whether the practice of drugging mentioned by the Hon. Mr. Mundella, M. P. for this district, exists to any extent in Sheffleld, I am not able to say. That it does prevail to a sad degree in some parts of England you will see from the address of Mr. Mundella to his constituents, which is inclosed. But this neglect of the children in their tender years, and the close confinement of the very young of both sexes, will account for the fact that so many dwarfed, crooked-legged, and otherwise

deformed persons are seen in our streets.

The fact that young men and young women are employed side by side in the same kind of labor will explain, in part, the low state of morals that prevails. The work is very largely dirty work; and when one sees the untidy condition of the vast numbers of females that swarm from these great "works," the conviction will force itself upon the mind that virtue must be in great peril while in constant association with such want of cleanliness. This condition of the operatives is somewhat excusable, since there are no free public baths in Sheffleld, a town that needs them as much as any in the kingdom. Indeed, there are no baths of any kind at all sufficient to meet the wants of the people. If any of the gentlemen who have made large fortunes by the aid of the working-people should desire to do some good thing in acknowledgment of their prosperity, they could hardly do better than to establish free baths of ample accommodation in every ward of this great town.

In regard to the health, comfort, morals, and education of the people, the facts in regard to Sheffleld will not probably differ essentially from what is true of other large

manufacturing towns of England.

In the year 1870 there came before the courts 209 cases of bastardy. It is probable that as many more occurred that were not made public, although I have no means of obtaining definite information.

During the week ending July 27, 1872, there were 654 inmates in the Sheffield Work-cuse. There were, also, 5,465 persons receiving "out-relief," making an aggregate of 6,119 persons more or less dependent upon public charity for support at the best season of the year.

Letter from Mr. Consul Webster dated-

Sheffield, January 22, 1874.

DEAR SIR: In reply to your inquiries in regard to the condition of the workingmen of Sheffield, especially as to their habits, I have the honor to submit the following, which will be found, I think, to contain definite replies to all your questions. I have endeavored to state the facts as they are, without exaggeration. In order to do so, I have made many inquiries, not merely of employers and employed, but of intelligent, candid, and disinterested persons in all walks of life, especially of those who have the

candid, and disinterested persons in all walks of life, especially or those who have the best means of knowing the class in respect to whom you inquire.

You ask first, are they (the workmen) industrious? If a stranger should visit this great town, with its hundreds of tall chimneys, and should go through the extensive works that annually supply the world with such immense quantities of their products, he would be very likely to come to the conclusion that this is a very bays and industrious people. There is no denying the immense results wrought out by the Sheffield workmen. They are a hard-working people—while they do work. But it is true that a very large proportion of them are idle a great many days in the year, when they might and ought to be at work, and when their employers are needing their labor. Every Monday is so generally a holiday, that it has come to be called Saint Monday. The streets are full on that day of men at leisure, and this fact cannot fail to strike a stranger, especially an American, who was not acquainted with the customs of the town. This Monday idleness is, in some cases, enforced by the fact that Monday is the day that is taken for repairs to the machinery in the great steel-works, during which the masses of the men employed in such establishments must necessarily be out of work. But this will account for but a small portion of the idleness on that day. It is, to a great extent, voluntary, and has become a settled habit and custom. And this holiday is, in thousands of instances, protracted through the next day, so that large numbers of the workmen, stopping work on Saturday noon, do not commence again until the following Wednesday. Such men can hardly be called industrious.

From inquiry and my own observation, I believe that far the larger part of this loss

From inquiry and my own observation, I believe that far the larger part of this loss of time, both for employer and employed, and the reckless waste of money consequent upon it, is the result of the drinking habits that prevail so generally. It is painful to see how the weekly wages are squandered by the thousands who throng the drinking places on Saturdays, Sunday at certain hours, Monday, and Tuesday, and, indeed, on all the days of the week. I would not say that Sheffield will compare unfavorably with other large manufacturing towns of England; I presume it would not, although the nature of the labor required here is such as perhaps to lead to geater temptations to drink, and to a fancied greater necessity for it, than in districts where the work is of a much lighter kind. I say fancied necessity, because there does exist here a body of men employed in the most exhausting kind of labor in our great steel-manufactorics, who are total abstainers, and who, to say the least, have proved themselves the equals

of any in efficiency and endurance.

Another great cause of waste of time and money ought to be mentioned. It is the prevalence of gambling, in the form of rabbit-coursing, handicapping, pigeon-shooting, and the like. This evil has become so great, that a public meeting was called not long

since to consider means for suppressing it.

I am quite sure that the amount of money spent in the above-mentioned ways has increased with the advance in wages, and that the larger amounts earned by the workingmen have not been used, except in comparatively few cases, to increase the comforts of their families. They have always lived well, so far as their food is concerned. They spend their money freely for meats of the best quality, and the general appearance of the workingmen is that of a well-nourished and vigorous people. There are, of course, many exceptions to this belonging to a class far below, such as can be found in every great town.

Respectfully yours,

C. B. WEBSTER, United States Consul.

Hon. EDWARD YOUNG, Chief of Bureau of Statistics, Washington.

BIRMINGHAM.

Letter from Mr. Consul Gould on the condition of the working-classes.

BIRMINGHAM, November 12, 1873.

SIR: In response to your inquiries, I beg to say that there is no improvement apparent in the condition of the working-people in consequence of the advance of wages. It was said boastingly by statesmen a few months since that the nation had drunk itself out of the Alabama claims by the increased income from the tax on intoxicating drinks during the past year.

The general testimony is that no more comforts go to the family now than formerly. Increased pay means, with the mass of miners and forgemen, an increase of no other luxury than that of drink. In a large proportion of such homes family comfort is totally unknown. The increased wages also lead to idleness, as they do not care to work more than enough to secure a certain amount, and thus have more time to spend in the public house. Of course there are honorable exceptions, but the papers and general testimony of those familiar with the workingmen of the district go to prove a sad increase of idleness and drunkenness.

The tenements of this class are but poor apologies for homes, in multitudes of cases their whole furniture not being worth more than a few shillings, and remaining the same as when wages were low. Pawnbrokers do a thriving business, and the only part of the week when comforts are introduced is on Saturday evening and Sunday, after the wages of the week come in. Monday usually begins with the poverty and pawn-

ing of the previous week, and thus the perpetual round continues.

The tenements are generally small and dirty, though they might be made much more comfortable and convenient if the women were trained to habits of neatness and

understood housekeeping.

The families are almost universally large, requiring the manual labor of the mother, and also of the children at an early age. The house is thus left to the smaller children, and but little attention is devoted to it. All this might be easily remedied, if the mea devoted what they earn for the support of the family, and the women were trained to housekeeping. In a large number of cases the women drink as badly as the men, and have no ambition to better their condition.

Yours, truly,

J. B. GOULD, United States Consul.

To Hon. EDWARD YOUNG, Chief of United States Bureau of Statistics.

MANCHESTER.

Report of Mr. Consul Branscomb on the condition and habits of the working-classes of the Munchester consular district.

SIR: The working-classes of this consular district are naturally an energetic and industrious people; but they cannot, I regret to add, be said to be very temperate. They consume an enormous quantity of intoxicating liquors, principally beer, though very many partake largely of spirits and of the cheaper wines. Intemperance seems to be on the increase, especially among the women, not only of the working-classes, but also of the middle and upper middle classes.* This is the testimony not only of temperance advocates and missionaries, but also of medical men, Christian ministers, police officers, and magistrates. Much working time is lost, and many employers are often sadly harassed, by their work-people going off to fuddle. The president of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, Hugh Mason, esq., J. P., himself a very large employer of labor, in his address to the chamber, delivered this morning, on the state of the labor-market in connection with the cotton trade, made the following remarks:

"They had had to pay a higher price for labor than at any period in the history of the cotton trade. There had been in all departments of the cotton trade a general scarcity of labor; and in addition to that, and perhaps as a consequence of that, there had not been that industry and that fair return of labor for wages on the part of a great many of those engaged as cotton operatives which ought to have been the case. They had taken advantage of their dominant condition, and had disregarded those necessary rules of discipline and subordination, without which no great concern, indeed no small concern, could be carried on with any degree of pleasure, or even of profit. Time, which affected all things, would undoubtedly change the present state of things."

From the foregoing testimony, which could be corroborated to almost any extent, it is obvious that much time is wasted by the work-people Much of their earnings is recklessly squandered by and through their drinking habits, and, as a natural and inevitable sequence, the home-comforts of the families of these people are very seriously abridged by the large amount spent by the men, and, in sadly too many instances, by women, and even by youths of both sexes, in drink. And, as a further sequence, the

^{*}LANCASHIRE DRINK-FACTS.—Lancashire spent £13,299,750 directly upon intoxicating liquors in 1862. What did Lancashire get in return? The following statistics will show: £1,113,244 to pay in poor and police rates; 102,694 paupers; 30,000 vagrants, idling as vagabonds about the streets; 4,706 lunatics; 3,749 inquests on deaths; 90,257 persons brought before the magistrates and convicted of crime; 5,913 depredators, offenders, and suspected persons, not convicted; 2,749 houses of bad character, brothels, receivers of stolen goods, &c.; 17,733 public houses and beer-shops; 3,316 policemen employed to protect society from the dangers arising from the drink-shops; 70,392 drunkards, filling multitudes of homes with misery; 7,000,000 or more bushels of grain destroyed in manufacturing the drink, or equal to 105,000,000 4-pound loaves; 5,000 or 6,000 persons employed in the manufacture of the drink.

houses of these persons who squander so much on drink, tobacco, and all their brood of other social vices and bad habits, are squalid, wretched, and desolate. In many cases families that can unitedly earn, when they all care to work full time, three, four, five, and even six pounds per week, live in filthy and dilapidated tenements in the back slums, and sometimes huddle together in one or two rooms, without a bit of decent furniture.

Toward the end of the week and before the pay-day, they are in debt to the honest shop-keeper, the bulk of what they had earned the previous week having been spent at the beer-shop and the gin-shop. Many poor, hard-working, and sober women often complain sadly that the increased wages and the curtailed hours of labor, instead of being a boon have been a curse to the family. The men have had more to spend on "fuddle;" while the women have got less for food, clothing, and the house-rent. The evil seems to be growing and spreading in many districts, notwithstanding the earnest efforts of temperance and social reformers, the operations of the newly-formed school-boards, the increased activity and zeal of many of the clergy and dissenting ministers, and the recent amendment of the licensing laws, whereby places where intoxicating liquors are sold have had their hours of sale curtailed. The drinking habits of the people have become so very bad that any slight restriction does not seem to produce an appreciable result, except that the downward tendency is not now so rapid as it was, and as it most probably would have been had there not been some little legislative check applied. This report, however, would be incomplete, and would not do justice to the people of this district, if it were not also stated that, side by side with these pernicious and wide-spread drinking habits, and the consequent social vice, misery, and disorder, there is, at the same time, an increasing band of active, zealous, and enthusiastic temperance and social reformers. Total-abstinence societies, Bands of Hope, Good Templar Lodges, and workmen's clubs, on temperance principles, are being established and carried on as never before. There are also many co-operative societies, in which the working classes, the more sober and industrious portions, are investing their savings, and by means of which they are not only providing more home comforts, but are making provision for times of sickness, and when death shall come, securing some substantial aid

This district is the headquarters of most of these social movements for the promotion of sobriety, thrift, and social progress. The United Kingdom Alliance, which aims at the total legislative suppression of the liquor-traffic, has its central offices in Man-

chester.

There are no figures showing the education of the whole city, but of 8,868 persons committed to the Manchester city-jail in 1870, the following is a return of the degree of their instruction:

Neither write nor read	3, 459
Read and write imperfectly	5, 313
Read and write well	86
Superior instruction	10

8,868

I remain, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

C. H. BRANSCOMB, United States Consul.

Hon. EDWARD YOUNG, Chief of Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.

In Manchester the free libraries have proved highly successful. The number of times that persons have availed themselves of the libraries during the year 1871-72 was 2,264,688, against 2,112,900 the previous year. The accessions amount to 14,387 volumes.

LIVERPOOL.

Letter from Dr. Trench on the condition and habits of the laboring classes.

MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH DEPARTMENT,
MUNICIPAL OFFICE, DALE STREET,
Liverpool, November 20, 1873.

Sir: Your questions are so general that I fear my answers will appear to rest, a good deal more than I like, upon my individual opinion; but such must always be the case where the questions are not sufficiently definite to admit of statistical replies. With this explanation I will proceed to consider your questions seriatim.*

^{*} These questions were prepared by the author of this report and forwarded to the consuls of the United States at Liverpool and elsewhere in Europe.

I. Are the laboring classes industrious?

I consider that the laboring classes of Liverpool are as a rule wishful for emremarks the laboring classes of therpool are as a rule wishin for employment, and that laziness or a desire for unoccupied idleness is not one of their vices. All labor which is not in the form of piece-work and not paid for according to results, will be perfunctorily and negligently performed, and hence opinions as to the industry of the people will always vary according to the stand-point of the master and the servant, the employer and the employed. It is necessary also to remember that the condition of the laboring classes of Liverpool is somewhat There is little or no continuous occupation for skilled laborers, either in workshops or factories, as is the case in such towns as Birmingham, Manchester, and Sheffield, and hence, in Liverpool, we have very few classes of workmen receiving high wages with whom it is an object of trades-unionship to prevent the labor-market being overstocked or the supply being in excess of the demand. We have not in Liverpool any extent of that arranged and planned idleness on special days, (termed in Sheffield saints' days,) when the highly-paid artisans and workmen, in order to keep up the demand, systematically refuse to work, however urgent may be the requirements of trade. There is, however, in Liverpool a great deal of enforced and unavoidable, though comparatively little of voluntary idleness. The chief demand in the labor-market of Liverpool is for unskilled or mere manual work; and as, even in the most prosperous years, when trade is brisk and the shipping fully occupied, the supply of workmen is always larger than the demand, it follows as a consequence that large sections of the laboring classes of Liverpool are obliged to rely upon, and to be content with, casual and uncertain occupation

Therefore, so far from using a combined and voluntary idleness to keep up the price of labor and to regulate its supply and demand in their favor, they are, as a rule, obliged to be content with uncertain and irregular work, given at the option of their employers. The nominal wages of the unskilled day-laborer in Liverpool, such as the dock or cotton porters, is 4s. a day or 24s. per week; but as a result of the competition occasioned by the excess of supply over demand, the average wages of such workmen, even in years of prosperity, do not exceed 18s., or four days and a half work per week. This average will greatly vary, according to the state of trade. This is markedly seen when a continuance of easterly winds prevents the arrival of sailingvessels, by which hundreds of the laboring classes are at once either totally thrown out of employment or are only able to obtain one or two days' occupation in the week. Indeed, so varying are the changes of the labor-market, and with it the wage and income of the laborer, that the list of the numbers receiving out-door relief and the list of sick and dead of typhus caused by want and overcrowding, can be used as barometers of the state of the trade of the port. One of the great drawbacks of Liverpool, socially, morally, and sanitarily, is this excess of unskilled labor, which originally owed its origin chiefly to the Irish famine-fever of 1847, when thousands of the poor

people fled to Liverpool and were supported by the rates

Another peculiar feature of the labor-market of Liverpool is that there is no established industrial occupation for young women or for boys and girls, as exists not only in the manufacturing districts of Lancashire and Yorkshire, but everywhere where the textile fabrics are manufactured, and where weaving, spinning, and knitting are carried on as manufactures. The consequence of this is that while in Birmingham a person is struck with the absence from the streets of young people during the working-hours of the day, he is equally astonished at the great numbers of the young and active who prowl and lurk about the courts and alleys of Liverpool at all hours. This idlewho prowl and lurk about the courts and alleys of Liverpool at all hours. ness among the young, in large sections, of the people is very evident in Liverpool. It is at first compulsory idleness, occasioned by the absence of occupation or work; it soon demoralizes the child and then degenerates into a habit of vicious idleness. It is among such poor children that industrial schools are wanted; for unless children are tanght some kind of industry or trade, we cannot hope to see them make any effort to rise above the wretchedness of their parents.

II. Are the laboring classes intemperate !

III. If so, do they loss much time from labor in consequence?

IV. Are the comforts of their families seriously abridged by the amount spent for drink?

I consider that it has been incontestably proved that the working classes of Liverpool are extremely intemperate, even when compared with similar sections of the community in other large towns of Great Britain. I know no stronger or sadder proof of this than the returns made by the police force, which show that during last year. 1672, 18,810 persons were brought before the justices on the charge of drunkenness, and that of this number no less than 7,786 were females.

This number, though so large, will only include persons who were obstreperously drunk. It will follow as a corollary from this fact that much time is lost either directly by incapacity for work on account of drink, or indirectly by sickness consequent on the effects of drink, and also that the comforts of the families of the laborer

are seriously abridged by the amount spent in drink.

The causes which lead to the great intemperance of the laboring classes in Liverpool

1. The number of sailors constantly arriving at the port, who, when on shore, freely spend their money in a reckless and dissipated manner.

2. The uncertain occupation and wages of laborers, among whom want and distress

excite the desire and feeling for the stimulus of drinks.

3. The squalor of the homes of the unskilled laborers in contrast with the warmth and glare of the public houses, and the existence of 1,884 public houses and 282 beerhouses as temptations to the wretched people.

We all acknowledge the vice of drunkenness to be the great moral evil of Liverpool; but, however we may deplore its existence, no statesman or philanthropist has been

able to suggest a practical remedy.

The extent of poor-law relief is a very fair test of the physical condition of the people, and as want, to the extent of requiring poor-law relief, is largely due to intemperance, so the number of paupers will be to a certain extent an index of the extent of that vice. The population of the parish of Liverpool at the last census was 238,411, and we find that during the last seven years, being years of ordinary prosperity, the average number of persons at one time within the parish receiving poor-law relief was 15,910; or, in other words, the number of persons receiving parochial relief included every sixteenth person within the parish.

It is not thereby meant that all paupers are drunkards, but it is implied that drunkenness may be considered to a large extent a motor or cause of such extended pau-

perism.

V. What is the condition of the rooms they occupy?

VI. Do many families live in one or two rooms only?

The extent of room-occupations by the families of the laboring class may be judged

of by the following facts:

The total assessments for the year 1873 in the borough of Liverpool are 101,042; of these, 11,572 are for warehouses, shops, sheds, &c., leaving the number of inhabited houses 89,470. We find that 64,903 of these houses are assessed at a rental below houses 89,470. We find that 64,593 of these houses are assessed at a rental below £13 per annum, and 9,528 are assessed at between £14 and £20 pounds per annum, leaving 15,039 houses at an assessment above £20 per annum. It is further known that the houses below £13 consist merely of three apartments, of an average size of between 800 to 900 cubic feet for each apartment. All such houses with singularly few exceptions are sublet in single-room occupation. The usual practice is for the landlord's tenant to sublet the middle room to another family; but occasionally, in the Irish quarters of the town, both bedrooms are sublet, and three separate families live and sleep in the same house.

Besides the 64,903 houses at a rental below £13, there are 9,528 houses at a rental between £14 and £20 per annum. These houses contain, on an average, five, or six apartments, namely, a front and back kitchen and four bed-rooms. The average cubical dimensions of the front bed-rooms are from 1,000 to 1,100 feet, and of the back bed-rooms from 800 to 900 feet. Such houses are also, as a rule, sublet by the landlord's tenant in single, double, and treble room-occupation. It will be thus seen that 80 per cent. of all the habitable houses of Liverpool are, as a rule, sublet in room-occupation for longer or shorter periods; in fact, sublet is their normal condition. The extent of subletting of houses, and consequently of room-occupation, is such a grievous evil in Liverpool, both as respects filth and overcrowding, that Mr. Graves, our late member, introduced into the public-health act of 1866 a clause enabling local authorities to make regulations

1st. For fixing the number of persons who may occupy a house, or part of a house, which is let in lodgings or occupied by members of more than one family.

2d. For the registration of houses thus let or occapied in lodgings.

3d. For the inspection of such houses and the keeping the same in a cleanly and wholesome state.

4th. For enforcing therein the provision of privy accommodation and other appliances and means of cleanliness, &c.

5th. For the cleansing and lime-washing at stated times of such premises.

The power thus given by the law was specially meant for Liverpool, and for the remedy of an evil which is greater here, among our unskilled and ill-paid workmen, than it is among the skilled mechanics and factory-operatives of Manchester, Sheffield, and Birmingham.

The health committee have enforced the law both as to registration, cubical space in rooms, and periodical inspection, by day and night, among 10,162 of the worst of sub-let houses in Liverpool. It need only be stated that, by our by-laws as to sublet houses, and by the general provisions of the nusiances-removal act, carried into force by thirty inspectors, we are enabled to insure to a tolerable extent the general cleanliness of the rooms of the working-classes as far as regards ceiling, walls, and floor; but no words descriptive of wretchedness would be too strong to picture the squalor of houses altogether destitute of furniture, as seen in large districts of the town occupied by the Irish, and occasionally seen even in the districts inhabited by English and Scotch.

VII.—Have the recent advances in wages resulted to the advantage of the families of the

workmen, or have they tended to produce greater irregularities?

I do not know what may be the case in manufacturing districts, where the custom of strikes for increased wages prevails, where workmen are banded together by unions to maintain high wages and to prevent the supply of labor being equal to the demand, and where the custom of holidays or saint-days has become part of a system of organized arrangement. In such manufacturing towns the charge against the workmen of demoralization consequent on high wages may be true; but of one thing I am perfectly convinced—that the rant about high wages demoralizing the people in Liverpool, and thereby increasing the extent of drunkenness and crime, is utterly false.

I can state, from personal observation, that the condition of the people in these last

few years has vastly improved.

I remain, dear sir, yours, very truly,

W. S. TRENCH.

To GENERAL FAIRCHILD, United States Consul.

Extract from a letter to the author from the Hon. Lucius Fairchild, United States consul at Liverpool.

The almost universal testimony here is to the effect that the recent rise in wages has not contributed, as a general thing, to the greater comfort of the families of the laboring-men. I am told, by every one with whom I have conversed on the subject, that the increase of drunkenness and all dissipations which follow idle hours is alarming. I believe that it is the opinion of the best informed that the families of the laboring-men are even worse provided for, as a rule, than when wages were less.

Under date of November 22, 1873, General Fairchild writes as follows:

In my last I gave it as the general opinion here that the laboring-classes had not been substantially benefited by the recent rise in wages, which I meant to more especially apply to those engaged in the coal-mines and factories. You will note that Dr. Trench gives other testimony respecting the influence of such rise on the laboring-classes of this town.

ST. HELEN'S, NEAR LIVERPOOL.

Letter from John Hammill, esq., consular agent of the United States.

United States Consulate, St. Helen's, November 12, 1873.

Dear Sir: In reply to your inquiries in regard to the habits and condition of the working-classes in this district, I may say that they are very various, as, I suppose, must be the case where there is a population of 50,000 composed almost solely of them; but I will describe their condition as well as I am able. I will deal with the collicre first, as they are a numerous body, and are at the present time attracting the most attention, on account of the enormous price of coal, for which they are in a great measure to blame, as they will not work more than, say, three weeks per month; in consequence of which they get considerably less coal, making it scarce, and therefore dear. They are enabled to afford this waste of time through the extravagant wages they are now getting, (I believe fully 100 per cent. more than they got two years ago,) but which I am afraid are doing them no good, as when they are not working they are following such objectionable pursuits as drinking, gambling, &c., which, of course, do not improve their condition, nor the condition of their families, as they must spend, or rather waste, a good deal of their money in this way. Their mode of living now is very different from what it was some year or two ago, as then butcher's meat was considered a great luxury, and seldom indulged in, but now, although it is considerably dearer, they not only buy it regularly, but will have nothing but the best joints. I think this remark applies equally to all working-men, but to the colliers in particular. Their morals have improved since the discontinuance of sending women down the pit, but they are not remarkably good yet. They are, as a body, very reckless with their money, squandering it about, a great many of them not even paying their cottage-rents, which only average 3s. per week. They marry early, the men from eighteen to twenty-two, and the women from seventeen to twenty. Of course, there are steady, industrious men among them, and what few of these there are must be living very comfortably and savin

The men employed in the various glass-works are, as far as I am able to judge, a great contrast to the colliers; at any rate, you do not see them hanging about the streets, drinking and idling all day long, as you do the colliers, but this may be accounted for by their having to work during the day and not having the same opportunity. Be that as it may, they always appear respectable, and work regularly.

Women are largely employed in the plate-glass works, and earn from 15s. to 20s. per week. The men's wages depend upon the kind of work they do. Some of the glass-plant are not contracted to the contracted of the contracted to the contracted of the con

Women are largely employed in the plate-glass works, and earn from 15s. to 20s. per week. The men's wages depend upon the kind of work they do. Some of the glass-blowers can earn from £4 to £5 per week. On the whole, I think the glass-makers are the most respectable large body of men we have. I now come to the laborers in the chemical yards or works, and I think I should be justified in saying that they were even a worse lot than the colliers, but I conclude it arises in this way, viz: that the work required is, for the most part, dirty and disagreeable, and many men object to it; consequently it falls to the least respectable in the community, who in this district are largely composed of Irish, who, in addition to their other vices, are very dirty in their habits and habitations. They live in the lowest part of the town, and, for the most part, half starve their wives and families. I have seen their children running about with bare feet, clothed in rags, and using the most profane language—children whose ages ranged from eight to fourteen years. There is no doubt that a large percentage of the prisoners at our police courts are supplied from these people. Any epidemic which breaks out in the town is sure either to originate there or to fly there at once. Other workmen, such as joiners and bricklayers, are very ordinary, and I have no remarks to make upon them.

I may add that all the workmen live in cottages, the rental of which ranges from 2s. to 5s. per week, and that each family have a cottage to themselves, except in a few cases, where they take single men in as lodgers. Every able-bodied man, if he will work, can make a good living, and the scarcity of poor people or beggars is very noticeable. I have said nothing about wages, as it would be almost impossible to give you any exact idea, they are paid so differently by different people. Some men work per hour, some per day, and some do piece-work. For instance, take a chemical works. Say they make (as most of them do) salt-cake, black-ash, caustic soda, bleaching-powder, chlorate of potash, soda-crystals, &c. Now, each of the men employed in these different manufactures gets differently paid, and the manufacture of glass the same.

Yours, obediently,

JOHN HAMMILL, United States Consular Agent, St. Helen's.

Hon. EDWARD YOUNG, Chief of United States Bureau of Statistics, Washington, U. S. A.

GLASGOW.

HABITS OF THE LABORING-CLASSES.

[From a report of Mr. Consul Jenkinson.]

If the efforts of laboring-men in this country to increase the wages paid them were for the purpose of procuring more comfortable homes, better food, better clothing, better education, an increase in all the comforts of life, one could heartily wish them success in their efforts. But there are grave reasons to fear an opposite result. That an increase of wages would only bring greater misery and greater vice by the opportunity it would give for greater self-indulgence, especially in drink, is feared by many of the best friends of the working-men of the country. That drunkenness prevails to an alarming extent among this class of the people cannot be denied. That it has increased as their wages have been increased is also true. Many have, no doubt, been benefitted by such increase of wages, but most, it seems, only spend their extra earnings in extra quantities of whisky. The British board of trade and excise report, just issued, gives some important statistics bearing upon this point, extending, however, to the whole of the United Kingdom. This shows that in this country the consumption of sugar, tea, and coffee has upon the whole decreased during the year, while in nine months reported of 1872 the increase of spirits consumed has been over 12 per cent. over the corresponding period of 1871. Commenting on this statement, a leading Scotch paper says: "For several years past the rate of increase in intoxicants has been growing, while that on the other commodities has been diminishing; and at this moment, while the consumption of intoxicants is increasing more rapidly than ever, that of the other and better commodities has come to a stand." It seems, therefore, that the laboring-classes of this country have little wish to better their condition; that comfortable homes, good and plentiful food and clothing, are all so far above their reach, they will not attempt to secure them, but any wages they receive above the mere pittance to which they have been accustomed is spent in rendering their condition still more wretc

MONEY SPENT AT THE PAWN-SHOPS.

A fact of terrible significance was stated recently by a magistrate of Glasgow, Scotland: "I have tried," he said, "to come at some sort of estimate of the money spent yearly by the working-classes in pawning, and the result has been that from £150,000 to £200,000 a year is spent in interest!" In reply to a question, Is not that more than is spent in all the religious observances and education of the city? the reply was, "I think it is a great deal more."- English paper.

NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE.

Report of Mr. Consul Jones on the moral and social condition of the working-classes.

Newcastle-upon-Tyne is unfortunately a very unhealthy town. This condition of things is produced by a variety of causes: First, it is situated upon the cast coast and where the island is most narrow; hence we are more susceptible to all atmospheric changes than where there is a greater distance from shore to shore; from our easterly position we suffer severely from the bleak, biting east winds, especially in the spring of the year; and pulmonary diseases, bronchial and throat affections, are very prevaent. Second, the many chemical works in the neighborhood fil the air at times with gases injurious to health. And, lastly, by the direct steam-communication with European ports, and the great number of ships arriving from all parts of the world, we are liable to import epidemics such as the small-pox, which wrought great mischief here in 1871, and it is with great difficulty that the small-pox and other contagious diseases can be eradicated from the narrow, dirty streets to be found along the docks both at New-castle and Shields. The rate of mortality in the large towns of England, which is castle and shields. The rate of mortality in the large towns of England, which is published every two weeks, generally places Newcastle in anything but an enviable position, and, as in all crowded cities, the heaviest levies fall upon the poorer classes. Notwithstanding all this, I question if larger, stronger men can be found in England than those to be seen at the various workshops on the Tyne. It is a fact that the champions of nearly all the athletic exercises of England hail from this district.

The mode of living among the working-classes is not what could be desired; their breakfasts consist of bread and butter with coffee; dinners of cold meat or meat-pies and bread and water; tea, of bread and butter with tea; and supper, of bread and butter, or bread and cheese, with coffee.

Many of them are very improvident and fond of drink; a feast of food and stimulants in the early part of the week, at the expense of an insufficient supply at the end, is very frequently the case among the sons of toil on the Tyne.

Excessive drinking has undoubtedly increased in this district since the short hours and advanced wages have prevailed; and in this opinion I am corroborated by the evidence of several intelligent, discerning workingmen, who would have gladly given a different account of their own class had truth not stood in their way.

The new licensing act, I doubt not, will have a most beneficial effect upon people addicted to the excessive use of strong drink. This law provides that all public-houses shall be closed "on Sunday, Christmas Day, and Good Friday, during the whole day before the hour of half past 12 in the afternoon, and between the hours of half past 2 and 6 in the afternoon, and after the hour of 10 at night, and on all other days before the hour of six in the morning and after the hour of 11 at night."

"Any person who sells or exposes for sale, or opens or keeps open any premises for the sale of intoxicating liquors during the time that such premises are directed to be closed by or in pursuance of this section, or during such time as aforesaid allows any intoxicating liquors to be consumed on such premises, shall for the first offense be liable to a penalty not exceeding £10, and for any subsequent offense not exceeding £20."

The benefit that will accrue to the British workman from these prohibitory clauses

cannot be overestimated; many of the quarters formerly lost by the engineer through tarrying at the public-house on his way to the shop in the morning will now be saved.

After 11 he must turn his face homeward; the penalty of violating the law is too heavy to be trifled with by the keepers of drinking-saloons. More sleep will thus be afforded toward recuperating the strength of both mind and body. The time for indulging is shortened; may we not hope that the resolution of those prone to the immoderate use of the intoxicating beverage be strengthened, their ambition rekindled, and their new hopes, their higher aims, bring sunshine to many a hearth now all but lost in the gloom of despair.

The laboring-classes in this district, especially pitmen, are great fanciers of dogs; while others of more refined taste breed birds of various kinds in large numbers; grow flowers of rare beauty, and under great difficulties, on such a scale as to put the owners of magnificent conservatories to shame. A collier named Thomas Buckham first went

down a coal-pit at the age of fourteen; he worked six years as a boy, and has been a hewer for forty years, during which time he has not averaged 20s. (\$4.84) of a weekly wage; yet this man has competed for prizes at flower-shows for thirty-six years, and has never contested without winning a prize. Last year, fifty prizes, out of fifty-four, were awarded to him at a flower-show held near Newcastle, and this year he carried

away forty-nine out of the fifty-four.

A large proportion of the laboring-classes of this district are passionately fond of sports, particularly boat-racing. When a contest takes place, between celebrities, on the Tyne, especially if after working-hours, or on Saturday afternoon, numerous steamers, crowded with anxious spectators, follow the race; while the banks of the river are crowded by thousands of people who have assembled to witness the aquatic strife. Numerous matches for foot-racing, quoit-pitching, bowling, dog-running, shooting, and even singing, come off nearly every week, where the competitors are from the ranks of labor.

The masses on the Type have a dialect peculiar to this district alone; its most characteristic feature consists of an inability to pronounce the "r" aright. The sound which they give to this consonant is a kind of combination of the "r" and the "ch" of the Welsh or German. A Scotch girl, engaged as a servant in Newcastle, on being asked how she got along with the language, said that she was enabled to pronounce like the natives by "swallowing the 'r's' and giving them a bit chow i' the middle." This peculiarity is but rarely met among the more educated portion of the inhabitants.

A moderate proportion of the workmen and their families attend places of worship

on Sunday, a great majority of whom are Wesleyans.

The people of Tyneside are gruff, outspoken, and impress the stranger as being uncivil; a long residence in their midst proves them to be equitable, generous, and warm-hearted.

> EVAN R. JONES. United States Consul.

MINERS WITH SCIENTIFIC TASTES.

The following notices of some miners in the Northumberland and Durham coal fields, which have been furnished to the author, will be read with interest:

John Simms, West Cranleyton, son of an ingenious miner who died several years ago; his son John works in West Cranleyton colliery, and has worked there from boybood; he is about forty years of age; works as a beaver of coal. He has made great progress in the study of the fossil and reptile remains of the north coal-districts, and has a very large and good collection. He also works with the microscope and prepares microscopical objects; his preparations of fish-remains are very good. He is interested in butterflies and moths, and his knowledge of local natural history is very creditable.

Joseph Taylor, a workingman, residing at West Cranleyton, is a relative of Mr. Simms by marriage, and his tastes and capacities very similar to those possessed by his brother-in-law. He has a good collection of lower coal-measure fossils; he also mounts objects for the microscope, and he and Mr. Simms both supplied Mr. West the slides for his work on coal-measure paleontology. Mr. Taylor is about forty years of age, and for several years has devoted his leisure hours to paleontology.

John Salt, Newsham colliery, about thirty-three years of age, has made a large collision.

lection of coal-measure fishes and labyrinthodont, and has found the largest and best specimens of labyrinthodont that have been found in any part of the world. His collectien, gathered by his own hands, was unique. He also made microscopical sections, and he, and the other miners, Simms and Taylor, first possessed very excellent microscopes. They all had good libraries. Mr. Salt has removed to Staffordshire.

David Knight, who was killed by an accident in Dudley colliery, Northumberland, about five years ago, was a very ingenious working miner; he collected fossils, butterflies, &c., and constructed a microscope; ground his own lenses, and fitted up the instrument himself. He also invented a machine for grinding lenses for telescopes and microscopes. He contributed several articles on mathematics to local journals, and was an ingenious and industrious man.

THE CONDITION OF THE WORKING-CLASSES OF ENGLAND.

By J. S. STANLEY JAMES.

In the Old World it is not so very long since, indeed it is still true of many parts, "all were born to a fixed social position, and were mostly kept in it by law or interdicted from any means by which they could emerge from it." Sir Henry Maine says

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"The movement of the progressive societies has hitherto been a movement from status to contract; that is, from a condition of life in which relations between individuals are determined by membership of families or tribes, or conquering or conquered races, toward a condition of things in which they are dependent upon contracts entered into by individuals." But although society has thus progressed in England, the condition of employer and employed cannot in all cases be fairly called a contract, for the latter is often entirely at the mercy of the former; and in this I must draw the distinction between skilled and unskilled labor, between the farm-laborers of the country and the artisans and mechanics of the town. The condition of the first is dependent upon the laws relating to population and food, and is also considerably affected by the present laws of England; the latter are mostly influenced by the laws of commercial and monetary economy of supply and demand. It will be best, perhaps, to divide the workers of England under several heads.*

I .- THE ENGLISH OPERATIVE.

Not unskilled laborers, yet hardly to be called mechanics, the operatives are a class who have sprung into existence during the present century. The agricultural laborer can perform all the ordinary operations about a farm by using the skill which, without any effort on his part, has gradually accumulated upon him from his boyhood. It has cost him nothing, and all his village companions have about as much of it as he has himself. It is so with laborers in towns; they partake of the stock of common knowledge as they do of light, air, or anything else which is acquired without labor or the equivalent of labor. The population of a mining district grows as it were into the knowledge of mining; in sea-ports into dock-porterage; and in textile-fabric districts into a knowledge of ordinary mill-work; these are the operatives. It is but one hundred and five years since Watt's first patent for the steam-engine was granted, and the application of steam to manufactures is of far more recent date, yet already it has spread all over the world. Many trades are now so subdivided by the use of machinery that the utmost degree of simplicity in manipulation is reached. In large manufactories men are but the feeders of the machine. To a certain extent the operative may, in comparison with the farm-laborer, be called a skilled workman, but by the subdivisions of trade and the use of machinery many mechanics are but masters of one branch of a trade, and being dependent upon the steam-engine are reduced to the status of the operative.

The most numerous body in England, next to the farm-laborers, the operatives are the most miserable. Crowded together in huge workshops, their labor is more unhealthy than that of an agriculturist. Their homes in the large cities are often a disgrace to civilization. If they obtain higher wages than the laborer, the increased cost of living in cities often counterbalances that apparent advantage, and they can save little from their wages. In any case of slackness of trade they suffer miserably. The moral condition of factory-operatives is not good; the employment of young girls and women—ignorant and uneducated as they are in England—unfits them for the duties of domestic life when they marry. In America a girl works in a factory and her employment is considered more respectable than that of a domestic servant. In England it is the reverse; a "factory-girl" is a name of contempt, and domestic servants

consider themselves far superior to such.

But operatives suffer from no evil which may not arise in the United States or in any large center in the world. Whatever discontent they may truly feel arises not from political but purely economic grounds. It is a question of supply and demand, and in every branch of labor in England the supply exceeds the demand. Every trade is relatively overstocked; like the trees of a too thickly planted forest, the workers suck the life from each other. The farm-laborers suffer, as I have shown, from a condition of things the result in a great measure of the laws in respect to the land; the other workers of England only from the evils inseparable from the laws regulating capital and labor. Pages might be written showing the miserable social condition of the operatives of England, but cut bono? During the last ten years, however, that condition has become greatly improved, and mainly by the exertions of the workers themselves. In many of the large towns, in Lancashire and Yorkshire, the men are joining together and building and working co-operative factories. The "Star" mill at Oldham, which with the machinery cost over half a million dollars, is owned and worked by the operatives.

II.—THE MINERS AND IRON-WORKERS OF ENGLAND.

It has been often said, and with much truth, that England's greatness has been built up by the wealth of her mineral resources; that without her coal and iron she would never have gained her proud position among nations. The natural advantages of Great Britain as a maritime country are great; her harbors and great rivers placed her in olden time far ahead of any other nation in that respect. But in later days, and especially since the introduction of steam-power into every branch of industry, the possession of

^{*} The remarks of Mr. Stanley James on agricultural laborers appear on preceding pages.

coal and iron has been the cause of England's commercial prosperity. The coal-fields of England are the centers of the most dense populations. The greatest manufactures

are fostered in the immediate neighborhood of her mineral wealth.

In the year 1872 nearly 400,000 males were employed in about 3,000 coal-mines, supporting, it is calculated, one-eighteenth of the total population of Great Britain by coal-mining, and raising 123,386,758 tons of coal—more than half the coal mined in the world. The miner passes his time far away from the light of day and the pure air of heaven. He endures many perils; is in danger from fallings of earth; from waters, which at any moment may flood the mine and drown the workers; from choke-damp and fire-damp. The latter is a foe insidious and deadly, striking without a moment's warning. In some of the old workings in the Black country (the coal-district of Staffordshire) and South Wales, even the most careful precautions known to science and most copious ventilation are useless against this dread foe.

The carelessness of the men themselves conduces a great deal to such accidents. Although naked lights are never carried, the lamp in use being the safety one invented by Sir Humphrey Davy, although their lamps are handed to them locked before they go down the mine, yet, after au explosion, an open lamp lying by the body of some miner often tells the tale of folly. The light given by the lamp, screened as they are by wire-gauze, is very dim, and the men, reckless of their lives and those of their comrades, often pick the locks and work with the naked candles. In 1869, 1,116 lives were lost in coal-mines, being an average of one for every 309 miners and for every 96,777 tons of coal raised. It must be a strong inducement, indeed, to tempt men to a service not only dangerous, but wearisome and disgusting. They work among eternal damp and gloom. In many mines the men work in a regular temperature of eighty degrees; in such the hours of labor are necessarily short. In the deepest coal-mine in England, at Rosebridge, in Lancashire, where the shaft has been sunk over 2,400 feet, the temperature of the earth is ninety-four degrees Fahrenheit.

English miners have always obtained good wages, and they are now earning upwards

of £3 a week.

be found large iron-works. Coal and iron are often found in the same district, but when they are not it is more profitable to transport the iron-ore to the vicinity of the coal-fields than to take the coal to the iron-fields. In the making of iron there is not so much mechanical skill required as strength and power of endurance; machinery does the rest. Iron-workers, like miners, labor hard, ever exposed to great dangers, but win a good reward in the shape of wages. In their social habits I will treat the two as one class. They are rough, ignorant, much given to the British vice of indulgence in strong drink, and often brutal when in their cups. One cause of intemperance is the heavy burden of care and toil. To earn subsistence for themselves and their families they undergo a degree of labor exhausting to the body and injurious to health; in consequence, relief is sought in stimulants, and these men who have the blood of their Anglo-Saxon forefathers in them, renowned in history and song as heavy revelers, have not as yet learned to draw the line at moderation. Another cause of intemperance is the want of self-respect which the present state of society in England induces among the poor and laborious. Society has offered no inducements to the laboring classes to higher or more refined tastes; it has, in fact, said to these men, "You are beneath us; in our eyes but little better than brutes." So, still more degraded and robbed of a powerful protection against low tastes, namely, self-respect, what wonder that these men become brutes in their pleasures. The state of their homes, too, is not enticing, although they are much better lodged than agricultural laborers; still, considering the wages they earn, the houses they inhabit are most wretched ones, deficient in accommodations for comfort and decency. These men, therefore, find in the public house attractions superior to those offered by their homes: ignorant as they are, their pleasures are all sensual ones, and the larger part of their income is spent in meat a

Sufficient of strong drink is the miners' or iron-workers' desideratum; when that passion is satisfied the love of sport comes uppermost, and in this, physical action and competition are most desired. The miner takes great delight in his own prowess. Too often it may be that he turns his strength upon his helpmate; but in many mining-districts the females, from working on the "pit-bank" at an early age, are a match for their lords. It may be imagined that the miners become a brutal, depraved set of men. Not altogether so. Hard-drinking, hard-fighting lot as they are, debarred from higher aims or testes, they have yet in them the blood of heroes, and many noble deeds are done by them. Whenever there is an explosion of "fire-damp" there is seldom need to call for volunteers to descend the mine. The men are always ready and willing to go to the rescue of their fellows, although they well know that in fifty cases out of a hundred, the first succeeding party will share the same fate. I have myself seen many cases in which the men have sacrificed their own lives to help others.

a hundred, the first succeeding party will share the same fate. I have myself seen many cases in which the men have sucrificed their own lives to help others. * * * The miners of Cornwall and of North Wales work under a different system and form a distinct class. They are employed on piecework, or, as they express it, "bargains." Although they do not now obtain the high wages given to the coal-miners, still, on the

whole, they are perhaps more prosperous. Situated, too, as the copper-mines and slatequarries are, in the open country, they obtain purer air and cheaper living; still with these, as with the majority of English workers, drunkenness is a great curse. I do not mean to stigmatize the whole working population as drunkards, but statistics show that far too large a proportion of their income is spent on strong drink. While on this subject I may quote the following from Professor Leone Levi's report on "Taxation and the Working-Classes of Eugland:"

"Of the taxes affecting wealth and industry, the working-classes pay but a small amount. Of the taxes on luxuries, however, the working-classes pay a much larger proportion. Two-thirds of the duties on spirits, malt, and tobacco, as well as of the licenseduties for the sale of the same, amount in all to £21,000,000, out of a total, including the revenue for wine, of £33,700,000; and when we come to the taxes upon necessaries, two-thirds of the revenue on tea, the half of that on sugar, and a fair proportion of the taxes on fruit and other custom and excise duties, give a total of £4,250,000 out of a total of £7,950,000. Altogether, about £29,200,000 seem to be the proportion of the imperial taxation falling upon the working-classes, and £38,500,000 the proportion of the middle and higher classes. And it is important to notice, that while the latter pay 42 per cent, of their taxes out of duties on articles of consumption, the working-classes pay as much as 96 per cent, of theirs in this form. In addition to the imperial taxation, however, there are the local taxes, which amount in all to about £25,000,000, a fifth of which may fall on the working-classes, but which, deducting the amount excused, may leave only £4,250,000 as really paid by them. In the aggregate we may take it, that out of £90,000,000 of taxes, imperial and local, £30,000,000 are paid by the working-classes, and £60,000,000 by the middle and higher classes; and for every £1 of taxes the proportion paid by each is about as follows:

Falling on the working-classes.

Falling on the middle and higher classes.

Spirits	£0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	7 3 2 1 1 0 0	5 0 9 5 0 9 8 0	Local taxes, land, houses	£0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	-	10 3 0 10 9 0 7 0	
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"To appreciate properly, however, the real burden of taxation, we must take into account the number and income of the working classes. The relation to their number is easy to calculate, since £30,000,000 of taxation among 21,000,000 of persons gives an average of 28s. 6d. per head, while £60,000,000 among 11,000,000 of the middle and higher classes gives an average of 109s. per head.

The proportion of taxation to expenditure differs enormously with different families and individuals, the provident and the improvident, the temperate and the intemperate, the town laborer and the agricultural laborer paying very different portions of taxes. But it is important to bear in mind that very few of our workmen save much out of their weekly earnings. Assuming an expenditure of £400,000,000, the proportion expended on each article by the working-classes may be approximately stated as

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	Per cent.	Amount
Bread	15	£60,000,000
Flour	5	20, 000, 000
Meat	7₺	30,000,000
Butter and cheese	5	20, 600, 000
Sugar, tea, and coffee	6	24,000,000
Other articles of food	61	26,000,000
Drink	12	48,000,000
Tobacco	3	12,000,000
Rent and taxes	9	36, 000, 000
Coal and gas	6	24,000,000
Clothing	13	52,000,000
Other expenses; education, church or chapel, amusements, doc-		
tors' bills, clubs, furniture, &c	12	48, 000, 000
Total	100	400, 000, 000

Twelve per cent. spent on drink is a large proportion; but from my knowledge of the working-classes of England, I am sure that Professor Levi, if anything, rather underestimates that item of their expenditure.

III .- MECHANICS AND SKILLED TRADESMEN.

All over the world the mechanic is economically in a different position from the laborer, the miner, or the "factory-hand." He has been provided with a trade. Either baret, the little flat of factory-hand. In the has been provided with a trade. Interest a premium has been paid for teaching him, or he has, as an apprentice, foregone part of his earnings during the period of pupilage. He has bought something which he intends to sell again; his acquired skill being his stock in trade. In England the mechanic, who works both by his hands and his brain, doing that which machinery does not yet do, is intellectually and morally the superior of the other members of the working class. As already indicated, the introduction of machinery has, in many cases. through the subdivisions of manufacture, reduced many mechanics to the level of operatives. They do not require that skill of hand and eye which an apprenticeship gives. But there are still many trades in which this special skill is required, and in which the steam-engine will always be entirely subordinate to that human skill.

The English mechanic is the superior of the other workers; but in education and social standing, how inferior to the American! His intelligence is mostly confined to his trade; apprenticed at an early age, his only education has been that of the workshop. Outside his trade he is too often ignorant of everything. A small proportion of mechanics may yearly become masters; now and then they become wealthy and enter the ranks of the aristocracy or gentry. Then this ignorance of which I speak shows itself so plainly, and makes the nouveaux ricks of England notorious throughout the world. In this again, as always, let it be understood that I speak generally. I have seen a Manchester mechanic read Newton's "Principia" in the original. I know a London mechanic well read in Latin and Greek, and who is learning Hebrew in order that he may study the Scriptures in that tongue. But the general ignorance of the workers of England arises from there not having been, until the last two years, any system of national education. The English mechanics I believe to be unsurpassed in the world, but owing to that want of education and the early age at which they are apprenticed, they are, outside their trades, far inferior to the American.

English mechanics do not receive such high wages as miners or iron-workers. Still

their work being more regular and there being less risk to life, they are certainly materially better off than any other class of English workers. It would swell this paper terially better on than any other class or English workers. It would swent him paper to too great a length to go through all the branches of English trades and compare the wages given with those in America. As a rule, however, I find that wages of mechanics in the Eastern States and large cities generally are 100 per cent. higher than in England, and the cost of living does not increase proportionately.*

This is but a slight sketch of the working-classes of England, but it is drawn from

the life, and there is no fact or inference contained therein which is not within my own knowledge. What is the real cause of the poverty and hardships the workers of England endure, and what can be done to alleviate their lot? Socialists attribute this poverty to the constitution of society; political reformers to the form of government; theologians, perchance, as a punishment of original sin. But the real cause is not on the surface. The farm-laborer suffers certainly from a condition of things entailed upon him by the land-laws of England. He shares with the other workers in the want of a good national system of education, and in the hard barriers of class-distinction which, keeping the workingman in a subservient position as one of the "lower order," prevents him from having that personal self-respect which is such a help and safeguard through life. But above all these are the laws of nature and political economy. The population of England has increased faster than its production of food; her laborers faster than her capital. England now shows larger profits, higher wages, more soaring business, and greater luxury among the employers of labor; and yet in spite of higher wages the working-classes can only reach a certain low level of comfort. The competition existing in an expertence of labor are a certain limit and if tition existing in an overstocked labor-market keeps wages at a certain limit, and if they have risen, it is mainly owing to the influence of the trades unions, and the cost of living has risen in proportion. But supply and demand rules everything, and the trades unions cannot overcome economic laws. My theory may be objected to by many, but I hold that every trade, business, or profession is lamentably overstocked in England. Where is the outlet? But a few miles of water and the United States, the true "Greater Britain," is reached. America opens her arms to all the world, but should especially welcome those of her kindred, the race of the men who landed on Plymouth Rock and founded the plantations of Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. J. S. STANLEY JAMES.

LONDON, January 31, 1874.

^{*} For example, a mechanic in London will receive 30s. a week, (I take a high average.) If a single man he will have to pay at least 15s., one-half his income, for his board. In America the same mechanic will receive \$15 a week, and will pay for his board \$5, one-third of his income, and live twice as well as his English compeer. Throughout all the handicraft trades I find this difference between wages and living in England and America



LORD ROSEBERY ON IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE WORKING-CLASSES.

At a meeting of the Social Science Congress, held at Glasgow, in October, 1874, the president, Lord Rosebery, made an extended address in which he directed his remarks almost exclusively to an exposition of what he considered the best means of improving the condition of the working-classes. Foremost among these means he places education. Education and enlightenment, he says, are required to keep pace with the material prosperity of the country. But the education of experience is also valuable—as much so as superior culture. It is requisite that the working-classes should understand the injurious effects of strikes and collisions with their employers, and that employers should recognize the claims of their workmen to their kindness and forbearance. He favors compulsory education, also, as a means of lessening habits of drunkenness. The statistics of national thirst are not very attractive topics so long as revenue considerations are suffered to obscure every other, and it is unfortunately true that among a large section of the population increased prosperity seems to mean increased drink, or, as he sarcastically puts it, "the outward signs of our civilization are an extraordinary accumulation of wealth and an extraordinary consumption of alcohol." But an increase of culture by no means implies an increase of sobriety.

the reviews the physical questions which so materially concern the welfare of the working-classes—their dwellings, their hours of labor in factories, especially as regards women and children, and the good aspects

of union and co-operation. He says:

It is true that unions among work-people, with a view to the artificial raising of their wages, may hamper production, and harshly control freedom of action. On the other hand, they have often been of real service by promoting intelligent communication between work-people in different parts of the country, and in ascertaining the due recompense of labor. Few impartial persons will be disposed to deny that, though it has caused bitter feelings on both sides, as all such revolutions must, the great social movement which has recently united the English peasantry is likely to diffuse enlightenment, to encourage independence, and to place wages on a more clear and rational footing. The natural adjustment of the right proportion between the profits of capital and the wages of labor is a tolerably sure, it may be, but certainly a very slow process, and union among workmen has had a beneficial effect in hastening it. Strikes, which cause so much distress, and which so greatly hinder production, we must lament. But so long as capital and labor continue distinct and opposing interests, is it likely that strikes will be rare? Co-operation, indeed, is the obvious remedy for all these troubles; but co-operation can hardly, so far, be considered a success in this country. It appears to require a more general intelligence and a greater accumulation of capital among the working-classes than exists at present.

There is so much to be done; our civilization is so little removed from barbarism. At this moment there is a daily column in the newspapers devoted to recording bratal outrages, where human beings have behaved like wild beasts. Every policeman in London is assaulted on an average about once in two years. Within the memory of living men the workers at the salt-pans of Joppa, only a mile or two from Edinburgh, were serfs—adscripti glebæ—and sold along with the lands on which they dwelt. Neither they nor their children could move from the spot, or could alter their calling. The late lord provost of Edinburgh, who bears the honored name of Chambers, records his having talked to such men. What a hell, too, was described to Lord Ashley's commission of 1842. In the mines were women and children employed as beasts, dragging trucks on all fours, pursuing in fetid tunnels the degraded tasks which no mere animal could be found to undertake. We know that equal horrors existed in the brick-fields two or three years ago, when there were 30,000 children employed, looking like moving masses of the clay they bore, whose ages varied from three and a half years to seventeen, and when an average case was thus described: "I had a child weighed very recently, and though he was somewhat over eight years old, he weighed but 524 pounds, and was employed carrying 43 pounds of clay on his head an average distance of fifteen miles daily, and worked seventy-three hours a week. This is only an average

case of what many poor children are doing in England at the present time, and we need not wonder at their stunted and haggard appearance, when we take into account the tender age at which they are sent to their Egyptian tasks." Then again: "All goodness and purity seems to become stamped out of these people, and were I to relate," says a witness, who worked himself in the brick-fields, "what could be related, the whole country would become sickened and horrified."

IRELAND.

Letter from Mr. Consul King on the condition of the working-people of the Dublin consular district.

> CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES. Dublin, November 24, 1873.

DEAR SIR:

First, as to the condition of the working people in this district. In all or nearly all branches of labor wages are greatly higher than they formerly were, and I do not think that the cost of living has advanced proportionately. Bread is slightly dearer, but meat, sugar, and tea, and even oatmeal, can be had for nearly the same as before the advance in wages. I have never seen people of the laboring class, or perhaps I should say of the manual-laboring class, so badly clothed as here. Even in cases where necessity does not compel such carelessness, ragged or curiously-patched garments are not uncommon, yet clothes are really quite cheap here, even when compared with

prices current ten years ago on the European continent.

House-rent is low, and I think has not advanced greatly for some time, but I think the working-people pay more for rents than they formerly did. Dublin is full of fine old houses, formerly the abodes of the courtly or wealthy, but now abandoned by fashion. Until recently, and even still to a certain degree, the better portion of these houses were chiefly occupied by clerks or people of that respectable class with low Within the past few years, great numbers of small houses have been built on all the outskirts of the city, and have been occupied chiefly by persons of this class, and the apartments formerly used by them have been taken possession of by the manual-laboring class in addition to what they had before, thus greatly improving the condition of their lodgings. At least this is my opinion, founded partly on isolated in-stances which have come under my own observation, but chiefly on the fact that large numbers of new small houses have been built in the city while the population has not increased. I do not think that landlords generally keep their houses in as good condition as they ought, and I have been told that the reason for this is the defective nature of very many of the titles and consequent danger to holders or improvers of city property. The Irish land-act has never been extended to the cities, which I consider it

would greatly benefit, as it seems to have done the country districts.

Secondly, in regard to drunkenness: On this I was unable to give an opinion of any value, and, consequently, appealed to that eminent Irish statistician, Dr. Neilson Hancock, who kindly gave me the benefit of his observations. In his opinion, Irish laborers, when compared with English or Scotch, may be called industrious. In my own opinion an English laborer will get drunk at night and go to work as usual next day, while the Irishman will not work the day after a debauch. According to Doctor Hancock's statistics drunkenness throughout Ireland is less prevalent than it was ten years ago; and he thinks there is not more of it here than in England, though in Ireland the number of arrests is greater, which fact is accounted for, the doctor thinks, by the facts that there are more policemen here, and that they are under government control, while the English police are local, and, consequently, are more wary

when making arrests of tax-payers.

I have also received your letter of the 31st ultimo, and, in compliance with your request, have been to see Mr. Pim. I have also again tried to secure some statistics from Mr. Guinness, and have, in both cases, met with courteous promises, but, as yet, nothing has resulted.

> WILSON KING, United States Consul.

Dr. EDWARD YOUNG, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics.

ADVANCE OF TEMPERANCE PRINCIPLES.

On this subject Mr. Consul Webster, under date of March 26, 1873, writes as follows:

The cause of temperance is, I am quite sure, advancing. The results of the earlier closing of public houses are seen to be good. "The Good Templars" organization is growing

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very rapidly, and is drawing in many who have been hard drinkers. And, moreover, we are coming to that stage when the better sort of drinkers feel called upon to excuse themselves by saying that their physician advises it. &c.

Sobriety is to be commended and its absence deployed among all classes, especially among railroad employés, to whom the lives of the traveling public are intrusted. But it may be doubted whether much benefit will result from the following instance of—

ENFORCED TEMPERANCE OF RAILROAD EMPLOYÉS.

It is stated that Superintendent Angell, of the European and North American Railway, has sent to all the employes of the road a form of pledge for them to sign, whereby they agree to abstain from using intoxicating liquors as a beverage, and the use of profane or ungentlemanly language. Accompanying the blank pledge is a circular informing the employés that this step is taken in consequence of frequent complaints at the office, and requesting those declining to sign to give notice of their intentions, that their places may be filled by others.

A SANITARY STRIKE.

A strike with a novel object is reported as having occurred at the Trenton collieries, Durham, the miners having struck for water and decency. They allege that their sufferings, owing to a want of water both for drinking and for domestic purposes, have been very considerable, and that their complaints receive no attention. Acts of Parliament and orders of the local government board are stated to be, as far as they are concerned, mere dead letters; and the men, who with their families number about 3,000 persons, refuse to do any more work until they are provided with a proper water-supply, and with decent dwelling accommodation. The neglect which has characterized some of the Durham colliery districts is but too well known, and although in some isolated localities excellent dwelling accommodations and every necessary sanitary requirement are provided for the colliers, there are many places in which such a thing as a closet is unknown, and where none but the filthiest water can be procured unless it is sought at a considerable distance. This strike at least has our sympathy, and we trust that it will teach some of the wealthy colliery-owners a lesson in sanitary administration .- The Sanitary Record.

THRIFT AMONG THE WORKING CLASSES IN THE TEXTILE DISTRICTS.

[From the report of the Inspector of Factories, 1874.]

Want of thrift has hitherto been considered one of the great faults of the operative class, and therefore one hails with pleasure any institution which tends to foster among

them a more provident and careful character.

The establishment of penny-banks as connected with schools and churches in the poorer parts of some of our manufacturing districts, is doing much to promote saving habits among our working classes, and I am glad to find, after making careful inquiry, that such institutions have largely increased of late years, and are much patronized by those for whose good they are established.

I annex a deposit-book of one of these institutions situated in a crowded factory district of Manchester; and also a notice which has been circulated in the factories and workshops of the neighborhood. The book gives the rules pertaining to the management of the institution. I am informed that during the past year the number of

depositors in this bank was over 400.

I should like to see such institutions established in connection with all our large factories and workshops, especially where married women are employed. And I think the following remarks on one I have lately come across will show the good they may

produce:

Some time since, on going through one of our largest cotton-mills in Salford. I observed by a notice hung on the walls that a penny savings-bank in connection with the works had been established, where sums of from one penny to £10 are received from the work-people, and interest at the rate of 5 per cent. given on sums over 10s., the firm having consented to guarantee the amounts invested. The notice went on to say, "those of our hands that have not begun to save are reminded that although trade is rather good at present it may not always remain so, and they are earnestly requested to avail themselves of the opportunity to provide for less prosperous times."

On making inquiry, I found that this call had been fairly responded to by the hands employed. This mill gives employment to upward of 800 hands, of whom above 500

are females.



The sums deposited weekly vary from 6d. to 5s. This institution, besides promoting saving habits among the work-people generally, is a great boon to the married women. and is taken much advantage of by them. It acts to them as a kind of lying-in club. where, many months before the birth of her infant, the mother can make a little provision for the event by laying aside a small sum weekly unknown to her husband, and without his being able to meddle with it. This enables her not only to meet the time with more comfort around her, but also does away with the necessity of her returning to her work in the factory so soon after her confinement; thus saving her own health and giving a better chance to the infant of surviving future hardships.

The deposits in this factory-bank were in 1873, £70 4s. 10d.; withdrawals, £58 4s. 1d.; number of depositors, 63; accounts open 31st December, 23.

HOMES FOR THE POOR.

[From the New York Times, February 28, 1875.]

An interesting debate occurred in the English House of Commons on February 8 An interesting debate occurred in the English House of Commons on reordary of a subject which is of deep interest to all civilized countries—the improvement of the dwellings of the working classes. Mr. Cross, in behalf of the government, presented a bill which would go far toward remedying the evils resulting from overcrowding in English large towns and cities. In his able speech advocating the bill, he indirectly showed how much has already been accomplished in this great reform. The "Peabody fund" controls a capital of \$3,000,000, entirely devoted to building improved dwellings for the poor. Two other societies have expended \$1,500,000 each for the poor. similar objects; other associations have also accomplished much, so that thirty thousand of the poor of London are now housed in well-ventilated, healthy, and scientifically arranged buildings. The remarkable sanitary influence of these "model houses" is shown by the fact that the death-rate in the lowest districts of Manchester, Liverpool, and London will run up to sixty or seventy per thousand, and in one instance has attained the fearful maximum of seven hundred per thousand, while the death-rate in the "model lodging-houses" is never over fifteen per thousand. The effect of these buildings in preserving the lives of young children is equally remarkable. Thus, in Liverpool, the annual rate of mortality of children under one year amounts to thirty in one hundred living, while in the model houses it seldom amounts to eighteen. In one district of Manchester, out of a hundred deaths of persons of all ages, the deaths of children under five years reached the extraordinary rate of 49.7, or nearly one half. Yet in these improved buildings they seldom reach the ratio of twenty.

Various cities of England have already had special acts passed to enable them to prove the poor-quarters. Thus, in Liverpool, under these acts, the corporation has improve the poor-quarters. demolished 503 houses, and improved 392 "courts," at an expense of \$438,000. Edinburgh has also spent a large sum, and cleaned out some 1,400 houses. Many nests of crime were broken up, and the police reported a falling off of the number of serious offenses from 670 to 570 in one year. At Glasgow about \$9,000,000 was expended, but much of this has been returned to the corporation from the sale of the property which has been improved. The experience of all these cities has been that the breaking up of all these fever-nests and dens of crime produced no hardship to the poor people who were turned out. They always found quarters elsewhere, and many were induced to transfer themselves to the country. It often happened, too, that where improved buildings were erected more people were accommodated over a given space of ground, but under much better sanitary conditions, so that the same district could accommodate as many poor as before the improvements, and yet save forty or fifty lives among every

thousand of the inhabitants.

The new law which is proposed in the English Parliament allows the corporations of the large cities to break up poor-quarters, open streets, demolish houses which have become infected with fever, and make various improvements which have sanitary objects. The secretary of state himself will have the power of urging the "order" necessary through the house of commons, so as to save the town councils much expense. The cost of the improvements will, of course, be laid upon the tax-payers. It is not proposed, however, that the town councils should at once build "model lodging-houses," but that they should endeavor to entice the floating capital of the country to investments in these improvements. In case, however, the land is left to run to waste, the local authority has the power to build, in special cases, with the consent of the secretary of state.

HOUSES FOR THE WORKING-CLASSES.

[From a report on the sanitary condition of the city of Edinburgh.]

The condition of the poor and their miserable dwellings also engaged the attention of the charitable in Edinburgh, and the movement which originated in London, for erecting suitable houses for the working-classes, extended to this city. In 1851, the first block of houses was built, and named Ashley Buildings, after the nobleman who

had taken such a prominent part in the operations of the metropolitan association. No better site could have been obtained for the structure in question. It was placed in the town district, in which overcrowding prevails to a great extent, and on all sides it was surrounded by decaying houses, tenanted by the poor. It not only afforded to the industrious workman a greatly-improved habitation, but from its situation formed an example to surrounding proprietors and tenants of the manner in which such houses should be built and kept in a permanent state of cleanliness. To secure a site old property had to be removed, and thus, while benefiting the working-classes, the association directly ameliorated the condition of the old town by the erection of houses in its midst built according to the most approved sanitary plans.

A WORKMAN'S TOWN.

From the London Times of August 5, 1872.1

Lord Shaftesbury recently laid the first stone upon an estate at Wandsworth, called the Shaftesbury Park Estate, which has been acquired by the Artisans, Laborers and General Dwellings' Company, (limited,) and is to be laid out as a workman's city, in 1,200 dwellings. The company was formed in 1867, in consequence of the destruction of houses by railroads and other improvements, for the purpose of enabling workingmen to erect dwellings combining fitness and economy with the latest sanitary improvements, and to become themselves the owners of these dwellings in the course of a stated number of years by the payment of a small additional rent. On every estate purchased by the company a suitable space will be reserved as a recreation-ground, a co-operative store will be built for the especial benefit of the tenants, and public houses

will be absolutely forbidden.

The Shaftesbury Park Estate contains about forty acres, and is situated between the Wandsworth road and the Southwestern Railway, and about half way between the Wandsworth road and the Clapham Junction Stations; and a new station on the London, Chatham and Dover Railway forms part of the architect's design for the future buildings, so as to afford to the inhabitants of the projected "city" all necessary facilities for going to and returning from their labor. The houses are to be thoroughly drained, constructed on sound principles, and with good materials, and well supplied with water. Ample school accommodations will be provided, and a hall for lectures or public meetings will be built. The houses are to be of three kinds, for the accommodation not only of artisans, but also of the "clerk-class;" and each house is to form a distinct and separate tenancy, fitted with every sanitary and domestic convenience.

At the appointed time a large concourse of people had assembled to witness the ceremony of laying the first or "memorial" stone. Lord Shaftesbury arrived punctually at the time appointed, and Mr. Walton, the chairman of the company, opened the proceedings by some introductory remarks, in the course of which he paid a warm tribute to Lord Shaftesbury's consistent endeavors to clevate the working-closses in the scale of civilization and humanity. His lordship then took the trowel and mallet, and laid the stone with the skill and self-possession of a finished workman. Having pronounced

it truly laid, his lordship then addressed the assembly. He said:

"MY GOOD FRIENDS: Having laid the first stone of this noble experiment, an experiment which seems to me deserving of the most unqualified success, I cannot separate from you without a few words of thankfulness and congratulation that we have met to-day for such a worthy purpose. We have founded this day a workmen's city, and we have founded it upon the very best principles. We have founded it upon the great principle of self-help, and upon the great principle of independence. By independence, I mean without any other assistance than that which every man has a right to receive from his fellow-man, sympathy and kind aid, and that is what every man, either great or small, stands in need of from another. You have founded the workmen's city upon your own efforts, and by your own contributions, and for the great and wise purpose of advancing your social position and bodily health, as well as your intellect and general prosperity. And most heartily do I say for myself, and I also say it in the names of hundreds and thousands of your fellow-men, that the blessing of Almighty God will rest upon the good work which you have inaugurated to-day. I like the principles you have laid down for your guidance. You have shown your wisdom in a moral print of view by excluding public houses and the tap-room; and you have done with them as the people did of old by the lepers, you have put them outside the camp. You have, too, founded the buildings with a due regard to the necessary arrangements. There are schools for the children, and will also be a library and reading-room for yourselves, and a clubroom, where you will have the advantage of indulging in beneficial amusements. . I hope, however, you will not forget the women, who are by far the best part of you, let me tell you. In those intellectual amusements take care that your good wives and daughters are not excluded, for you will find there is no social progress without the aid of the female sex. If the woman floats, she floats like a cork, and drags the man after her. I am glad, then, to say that you have inaugurated this workmen's city upon a sound and wise basis, and also that every man shall have his house to himself, so as

to fulfill the national saving that an Englishman's house should be his castle, and to maintain the great principle that the working-man should be the master of his house. and the happy head of a moral and industrious family. I would urge you most sincerely, as long as you have breath, to hold fast to the great social family relations of life. That will be the first step in the prosperity of your city, and it is the grand security of empires. I am delighted, too, to find that you have established a recreation-ground in the center of your city for the healthy enjoyment of your children; but I would strongly urge you not to devote this space to flower-beds and gravel-walks, but to leave it free for cricket, for foot-ball, and for all those manly and exhibitanting games by which the healthy development of the body may be promoted and secured. The by which the healthy development of the body may be promoted and secured. The schools which will be established I hope will be turned to good account, and thus save your children from the temptation of the pot-house and 'penny-gaff.' More mischief is done in London by children frequenting such places than many people are aware of. You cannot do better than look to your children, and see them properly educated, because in early life lasting impressions are made. A child eight years of age will retain early impressions, which will never, while life lasts, be wholly effaced. A good, tender, pious mother will make impressions on her child which may for a time leave it in manhood, but which will sconer or later return." His lordship then alluded to the impressions created by the culture of flowers and window, gardening, and then the impressions created by the culture of flowers and window-gardening, and then passed on to picture the wretched and ill-ventilated homes of some of those who were compelled to dwell in the midst of the metropolis. He said: "Imagine a young man, about twenty years of age, in the prime of life, coming up from the country to seek work in London. He may obtain, perhaps, as much as 35s. per week. As a matter of necessity he takes, as it were, the first place he can get. The place is ill-drained and health wentileted. He lives perhaps over a restilential stream and in a few months. necessity he takes, as it were, the first place he can get. The place is ill-drained and badly ventilated. He lives, perhaps, over a pestilential stream, and in a few months he is numbered with the dead, and his wife and family come upon the parish for assistance. There is nothing so economical as humanity. Whatever it may cost at the outset, good air, good water, and no overcrowding in close, noisome rooms, will be found the most economical and best means of developing the physical and moral energies which God has given to you. The domiciliary condition of the people involves health, comfort, and happiness. It involves also contentment, and people who are contented always give a government less trouble than those who are not. When men are contented always give a government less trouble than those who are not. When men are contented they become excessively reasonable, and employer and employed find that their interests are identical. They must hold together, and by united action give force to progress. I should like, then, to see, from the Queen upon the throne to the lowest in the land, one feeling of united sympathy of action, and one and all give 'a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull altogether.' I can only say that I have been delighted beyond measure at what I have seen to-day. For more than thirty years I have been engaged in advocating improvement in the domiciliary condition of the people, but it is not by charitable means that the work can be effected. It must be done by the exertion of your own hearts and hands. You must say, 'We are Christians, and will live like men.' I trust that this will be the commencement of a great work, destined for the advancement of the social position of the people." In conclusion, his lordship said he felt an honor had been conferred upon him by being invited to attend that highlyinteresting gathering. He said that a library was to be established in connection with the school; and, as a memorial of the day, he hoped the committee would allow him to be the donor of the first book. The book he should give would be 'The Homes without Hands,' a wonderfully interesting account of the way in which creatures not provided with hands were enabled, by the instincts which God had given them, to provide themselves with safe and healthy habitations. He selected it not only for the sake of the information to be derived from it, but also for the sake of the reflections that it was calculated to suggest. He hoped when the city on which they were then engaged was completed, when every man was sitting under his own vine and his own fig-tree, enjoying the blessings which God had given him, that their thoughts would be called to another place, in which he trusted he should some day meet them—to a home without hands, eternal in the heavens."

BENEFICENT MANUFACTURERS.

In the preceding part of this chapter attention was called to the condition of the tenements occupied by a large portion of the laboring-classes, and the opinion was expressed that the drinking habits so common among them were aggravated by the want of comfortable homes. It was alleged, at least by implication, that upon mill and factory owners rested a considerable share of the responsibility for the intemperance and degradation of the working-classes in manufacturing towns. In the early part of this investigation the author discovered the chief

cause of this deplorable condition, and suggested a remedy to some of the proprietors of large industrial establishments. On reaching the West Riding of Yorkshire, especially the town of Bradford, the gratifying fact was ascertained that the benevolence of some of the wealthy and large-hearted mill-owners had already been directed into that channel. The most noteworthy instance was that of Sir Titus Salt, whose alpaca-works at Saltaire, as a first-class industrial establishment, deserves especial mention, but whose beneficent and successful enterprise for the welfare of his work-people entitles him to a place in the very front rank of philanthropists. In well-directed efforts for the promotion of the best interests of laborers "many have done wisely," but in practical benevolence "he has excelled them all." It is eminently proper, therefore, that, in a chapter on the condition of the working-classes of Great Britain, special mention should be made of-

SALTAIRE AND ITS FOUNDER.

It has already been intimated that no account of the worsted-trade of Bradford would be complete without a notice of Sir Titus Salt, who, if not the first to engage in the production of worsted goods, was the first to manufacture the wool from the alpaca sheep. This beginning, in 1836, proved so successful, that in 1852 the importation of this wool had reached 2,186,480 pounds, and the price consequently advanced from 10d. per pound in 1836 to 2s. 6d. in 1852. There were in Bradford and its suburbs, in the year 1850, 194 mills.

Mr. Salt might have retired from business and enjoyed his well-earned wealth, but he chose to go on, not only to help his large family, but also to improve the condition of the factory operatives. How successfully this determination was carried out, the following statement, condensed from

an extended account by a local writer, will prove:

Bradford, with its still-increasing manufactures, was becoming overcrowded, dirty, and smoky; its streams and canal were every year becoming more and more sinks of filth and pollution, and hot-beds of foul diseases, and Mr. Salt wisely determined to be no party to its further increase. Seeing a better spot on the banks of the river Aire, and purchasing a tract of land there, he at once began to erect such a palace of industry as England had never seen, with dwellings for the work-people contiguous. In 1853 these works were opened by a banquet of unusual magnificence, attended not only by the lower land of the size of the series and other size. by the lord-lieutenant, members of Parliament, magistrates, mayors, and other civic dignitaries, but by the work-people of Mr. Salt, who, to the number of 2,500, marched in procession from his mills to the railway-station at Bradford, and were conveyed by

a special train to the works.

The mills, warehouses and sheds, dye-houses, and gas-works at Saltaire occupy an area of 94 acres. The principal building, six stories high, distinguished in many respects for architectural elegance above all other works of the kind, is built of lightcolored stone in the Italian style of architecture, and is computed to cover over 9 acres, including the warehouses, stables, and dining-hall, while the floors in the several buildings cover an extent of 114 acres, or 55,000 yards. The walls of the building eral buildings cover an extent of 114 acres, or 55,000 yards. The walls of the building are of extraordinary thickness, and, in truth, more resemble the castles of ancient times than a building for the exclusive purposes of peaceful industry. The south front of the mill—545 feet in length and 72 feet above the level of the rails—has a very commanding and beautiful appearance. The floors are based upon arches of hollow brick, supported by long rows of highly ornamented cast-iron columns and massive cast-iron beams. The roof is of iron, and the windows are large and formed of immense squares of plate-glass, a fact which alone proves that everything has been done to render the building attractive and comfortable for those employed. to render the building attractive and comfortable for those employed.

The warehouses, which run northward from the center of the great front line and terminate at the canal, are 330 feet in length. The ground slopes downward to the canal, so that that end of the warehouses rises 90 feet from the level of the water, or

18 feet higher than the principal front.

These magnificent sheds are roofed with sloping skylights, through which the light is more directly and uniformly diffused than by side windows. In the western side are also rooms for sorting, washing, and drying wools, and for reeling and packing. Bo-

Digitized by GOOGLE

neath it is an enormous tank or reservoir, and filter, with 500,000 gallons of water. into which, through a number of conduits, the rain is carried, and, when filtered, applied to the process of the manufacture.

On the top of the warehouses a large iron tank is placed, capable of holding 70,000 gallons of water, drawn by engine from the river, available in case of fire; though, in truth: as the whole of the buildings are fire-proof and roofed with iron, we trust that,

for the latter purpose, it will never be required.

The cottages are built of stone, lined with brick-work, and contain a parlor or livingroom, a kitchen, a pantry and cellar, and three bed-rooms. Some of the houses are designed for larger families and others for boarding-houses. Each house has a separate yard, a privy, a coal-place, and ash-pit. These houses are fitted up with all the modern appliances of comfort, are well ventilated, and have small plats of ground for a garden in front, with borders of plants and flower-beds.

The baths and wash-houses contain plunge-baths, warm baths, and Turkish and douche baths, washing, rinsing, and steam tubs, drying closets, hydro-extractors, man-

gles, and other requisites. The charges made are little more than nominal.

A literary and philosophical institution, with a museum, lecture-hall, and class-rooms, is designed.

The almshouses consist of forty-five beautiful buildings, for the accommodation of the aged and infirm of Saltaire, and are capable of holding sixty persons. These almshouses, resembling Italian villas, are supplied with everything required by the poor for whom they are intended: ovens, boilers, and pantries. Generally the rooms are on the ground-floor, but some of them have chambers and bed-rooms above. In front are asphalt-walks and green parterres and flower-beds, while underneath the windows are open spaces, where the honeysuckle, the rose, and the sweetbrier may be trained and cultivated.

The occupants of the almshouses are men or women, single or married, of good character, destitute of means of support, and incapacitated by reason of age or infirmity so as to be unable to earn their living. Each married occupant shall receive a weekly allowance of ten shillings, and each single person seven shillings and sixpence, in addition to rooms free of rent and taxes, and this allowance to continue after the death of the founder. If any inmate shall marry, or willfully disobey any of the rules of the institution, or be guilty of insobriety or immoral conduct, or, by failing to improve in condition, shall have ceased to be a proper beneficiary, the founder or trustees will displace or remove such person.

The social and moral condition of the inhabitants of Saltaire is superior. There are, certainly, some improvident families, who never better their condition because they never attempt it. Those who are industrious have their reward in well-furnished and well-appointed homes, and several have, with their weekly earnings, bought or built

cottages.

The Saltaire factory-schools, erected by order of Sir Titus, were opened in 1868. Whatever art could invent or money buy has been brought together here, and every possible aid has been employed to promote education. The school-rooms are lefty, well lighted and ventilated, and the building heated throughout with hot water. The

boys play-ground is provided with gymnastic appliances.

In the year 1858-759 Sir Titus caused a beautiful Congregational church to be erected at his sole expense, which was opened in April, 1859. A neat and chaste little chapel (Wesleyan) has also been built and fitted up with exquisite taste for the use of the

inmates of the almshouses.

An infirmary has also been built, where medicine is dispensed, and where any acci-

dents which may happen at the works are attended to by a competent surgeon.

The Saltaire park, covering fourteen acres, contains sufficient room and all needful appliances for recreation; and in its arrangement the tastes of all in the way of openair amusements have been carefully consulted, not forgetting provision for boating and for the national game, cricket. Among the regulations made for the government of the park are the following: Intoxicated persons not allowed to remain; children under the age of eight years not admitted except in care of an adult; dogs not admitted except in care of an adult; mitted unless led; no music, singing, preaching, lecture, or public discussion, and no meeting for the purpose of making any religious or political demonstration, will be allowed without the written sanction of the firm; stone-throwing, disorderly and indecorous conduct, profane and indecent language, gambling, pitch and toss, and soliciting alms are strictly prohibited; no wine, beer, spirits, or intoxicating drinks are to be consumed in the park; smoking is not allowed in the alcoves, nor spitting on the paths; the play-grounds are not to be used on Sundays.

CROSSLEY ORPHAN HOME AND SCHOOL, HALIFAX, YORKSHIRE,

This orphan asylum, founded by the three brothers, John, Joseph, and Sir Francis Crossley, Bart., M. P., was opened for the reception of children on the 29th of June, 1864, on which day six boys were admitted. The admissions in the early years of the institution were as follows: In 1864, 8; in 1865, 59; in 1866, 67; in 1867, 62; in 1868, 10; first half of 1869, 19; in all, 225 children, consisting of 150 boys and 75 girls, of whom 50 were motherless as well as fatherless. The numbers in the Home on the 30th of June, 1869, were 188; of whom 122 were boys and 66 girls.

The founders having given a preference to orphans born in the county of York, 128 Yorkshire children have already been admitted, of whom 50 are natives of the parish of Halifax.

In the election of children the founders have also given a preference to those belonging to families whose temporal circumstances have been reduced; and it will, doubtless, be interesting to know the profession of some of the parents of the children received: 63 are the children of master tradesmen; 45 of shop-men, mechanics, and others; 26 of ministers and missionaries; 17 of law, bank, and commercial clerks; 11 of civil engineers, architects, and surveyors; 9 of physicians and surgeons; 9 of merchants and commission agents; 8 of commercial travelers and salesmen; 7 of master mariners, pilots, and fishermen; 5 of railway officials: 5 of farmers; 5 of accountants; 4 of barristers and solicitors; 4 of manufacturers; 4 of school-masters; and 3 of ship-brokers.

The applications received on behalf of these children were only entertained after the most careful investigation, and many of the cases were of a peculiarly painful character. The following particulars regarding three of them abundantly illustrate the value and urgent need of a Home for Orphan Children:

(A.) The skill and taste of this girl's father (a master cutler) assured every one that in a few years he would be second to no firm in the town. In six years the number of his workmen increased from 3 or 4 to about 200; but in 1862, while attending the Exhibition in London, he was seized with insanity. Shortly after he was removed to an asylum, where he died, leaving a widow and five children.

'(B.) Two boys, the children of a Baptist minister, who died of typhus fever, caught in ministering to a fever patient who had desired his services. These boys have no

male relative.

(G.) This boy's father was a man of high honor and great ability. Having spent several years in England and Spain in the pursuit of his profession as civil engineer, he was induced to assume the heavier responsibilities of a contractor, in which he was for some time very successful. He embarked all his large capital in the carrying out of a contract for extensive water-works in Ireland, which proved ruinous. He met his death in the prime of life from an accidental fall, leaving a widow and thirteen children wholly unprovided for.

The education afforded is regulated by the capacities of the children. All the inmates are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, and composition, geography, singing, drawing, and the rudiments of natural science. Those boys who show capacity for such studies are taught Latin and one modern language, also the higher branches of arithmetic, algebra, and geometry. The girls are taught needle-work and such departments of household service as are likely to prove useful to them in after life. Both boys and girls are so trained as to fit them for fighting the battle of life courageously.

In addition to the building and furnishing of the Home, at a cost of £56,000, the founders have provided an endowment of £3,000 per annum toward the cost of maintenance and education.

SIR FRANCIS CROSSLEY'S RENEFACTIONS.

"The people's park," covering a little over thirteen acres, laid out by Sir Joseph Paxton, with fountains, waterfalls, lake, and furnished with several large statues in Carrara marble. Original cost. £32,000. On its completion, in 1857, conveyed to the Halifax corporation as trustees for the town, and subsequently endowed to the extent of £6.000, thereby meeting the expenses of gardening, repairs, &c., without any charge on the town's rates.

Twenty-two almshouses.—Style of building somewhat similar to Mr. Joseph Crossley's almshouses, and the rate of payment to alms-people the same. The endowment by the founder yields £500 per annum.

Assistance to young and needy tradesmen.—Sir Francis conveyed to the corporation a sum of £10,000, to be held in trust, and to be lent out in sums of varying amount to Halifax tradesmen, for a period of years, and repayable without interest.

JOSEPH CROSSLEY'S BENEFACTION.

Forty-eight almshouses, forming, with chapel, three sides of a quadrangle, the center being laid out as a garden. The style of architecture Gothic, the houses stone-built and pitch-faced. Cost of land and buildings about £25,000. A weekly dole of 10s. is paid to each married alms-man, and 7s. to each unmarried alms-man or alms-woman. entire charges on the charity are fully provided for by the founder by endowments amounting to £1,275 per annum.

SIR JOSEPH WHITWORTH.

The benevolent effort of this eminent engineer has been directed into another channel—the encouragement of young men who have a taste for mechanical engineering, as appears from the following extract from an English journal:

WHITWORTH EXHIBITIONS.

Sir Joseph Whitworth, wishing to encourage young men having a mechanical instinct, and who are already possessed of some degree of manual dexterity in the use of tools, proposes to found, in connection with Owen's College, Manchester; King's College, London; and University College, London, a certain number of Whitworth Exhibitions, in order to fit them better to become candidates for the Whitworth scholarship. The competition for these exhibitions is to be as follows: Candidates, not less than sixteen nor more than eighteen years of age, pass a preliminary qualifying examination in English dictation and composition, arithmetic as far as decimals, and the elements of mechanical drawing, at the commencement of the academical year of each college; undergo a practical examination in the use of tools, to be held at each college or elsewhere. This examination is to include at least two of the following handicrafts: filing and fitting, turning, smith's work, pattern-making, and molding.

The successful competitors for the exhibitions will be entitled to receive, during the

The successful competitors for the exhibitions will be entitled to receive, during the two years next following the examination, instruction in all such subjects (being part of the course of each college) as shall better prepare them for the Whitworth Scholarship Examination, viz: practical plane and solid geometry, machine-drawing, mathematics, theoretical mechanics, applied mechanics, and freehand drawing, provided always that the right to enjoy the exhibition for the second year shall be contingent on the candidate's success in the college examinations held at the end of the first year. Sir Joseph Whitworth will pay each college annually for four years, as a trial of the success of his proposal, the sum of £100 for or toward, at the option of each solves the acceleration of the coupretions.

lege, the academical expenses of the competitors.

[From the report of Inspectors of Factories, 1874.]

PANMURE WORKS, CARNOUSTIE, NEAR DUNDEE.

In visiting factories it is always pleasant to notice any efforts made by the occupiers to promote the social well-being and improvement of their work-people. In this respect Messrs. James Smieton & Sons, of the Panmure Works, Carnoustie, afford a praiseworthy example. Their works consist of a power-loom factory for weaving, calendering, and packing jute and linen cloth, giving employment to about five hundred persons. Of this number about seventy are half-timers, attending a school upon the premises, and carefully instructed in the ordinary brauches of education by a well-qualified female teacher, holding a first-class government certificate, and two assistants. The girls, who form the greatest number of the half-timers, have the additional advantage of being taught sewing and knitting, and are also instructed in music, according to the tonic sol-fa system, by a master employed for the purpose. Evening classes are open for such of the workers as are employed in the factory during the day. The expense of maintaining these schools is defrayed solely by the Messrs. Smieton. There is also an evening class, during the winter months, for young men connected with the works, where for a merely nominal sum, instruction is given in the higher branches of education, by a highly qualified male teacher. In connection with these works is an elegant and spacious hall, capable of accommodating six hundred persons, and furnished with piano and harmonium. It is used as a school-room during the day, and in the evening is available when required for public meetings, lectures, &c. There is also a reading-room on the premises for the exclusive use of the work-people. Five daily and two weekly newspapers are supplied by the Messrs. Smieton, besides magazines and occasionally other papers considered amusing or instructive. A bagatella by the firm, attends twice a week for the purpose of giving out books. Commodious cottages have also been built by the Messrs. Smieton for the work-people, and are let at moderate rents, much lower than

It is not asserted that there are no other wealthy manufacturers in England whose beneficence has been directed into channels similar to those marked out by the eminent firms of whom mention has just been made. No doubt there are many such, and, moreover, a much larger number who have devoted munificent sums to various charitable and religious objects. But the devotion, by a manufacturer, of a portion of the wealth he has acquired through the labors of his work-people, to objects especially designed for their benefit, appears to the author to be a disposition of his wealth which is eminently praiseworthy, and which, in effect, is true co-operation, and conforms to the dictates of natural justice. Viewed in this light, the benefactions of Sir Titus Salt are in the highest degree meritorious and worthy of grateful recognition.

The author cannot close this part of his report without the remark that in the bestowal of baronetcies the advisers of the Queen have evinced much wisdom in the selection of worthy recipients. Formerly such honors were bestowed chiefly on men eminent for military prowess; but when on such manufacturers as Sir Titus Salt and Sir Francis Crossley, such engineers as Sir Joseph Whitworth and Sir William Armstrong, on such a man of enterprise as Sir Samuel Cunard, and such a diplomatist as Sir Edward Thornton, these marks of appreciation have been conferred, the wisdom of the selection is apparent, and the fact recognized that eminence in the pursuits of civil life is deserving of at least equal honor to that gained in the profession of arms.

LABOR IN FRANCE.

In the historical part of this work something has been said in regard to the condition of the working classes, in the territory now known as France, during the latter years of the Roman Empire and the earlier part of the feudal ages. The facts there presented were, however, given with a view to illustrating, to some extent, the general condition of the same classes in the western provinces of the Roman Empire and in fendal Europe during the periods referred to. A continued history of labor in France would have been interesting and highly instructive, and the materials for such a history, especially for that of the manufactures of this nation, so renowned for its varied and highly developed industries. are exceedingly rich and abundant. It would be easy, for instance, to trace the successive improvements in the manufacture of silk from its establishment at Lyons, in the reign of Francis I.* to the present day. from the rude implements first employed to the automatic looms and other machinery which now produce fabrics that challenge the competition of the world. Many other industries, whose artistic products have placed France in this regard far in advance of other nations, might also be traced from their inception in the middle ages to their culmination in recent years, and such a history of the rise and progress of the industrial arts could not fail to be instructive. To do this exhaustively, however, would not only occupy more time than can possibly be devoted to this work, but require a volume of still greater bulk. Indeed it was not even practicable within these limits to present a history of the working people of each of the leading nations of Europe, still less to give a history of the various industries by which they obtain subsistence.

The history of the working classes of our mother country has been presented in some detail, but in the case of France, as in that of most other countries of modern Europe, it must suffice to give such facts and figures as will tend to show the condition of the laborer at the present time, comparing it in some instances with his condition at a period in

the recent past.

IMPORTS FROM FRANCE.

Before entering upon the consideration of the cost and condition of labor, however, it may be well to consider the extent and character of the products of French industry which find a market in the United States. Of the imports from that country during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1874, amounting to upward of \$49,000,000, the value of raw materials and other articles which are admitted duty free was but \$2,684,576, while the balance consisted chiefly of articles of luxury.

The following statement exhibits the values of the principal articles imported into the United States from France in the fiscal years 1874 and 1873, and the total value imported in each of the five preceding years:

^{*}The preparation of silk thread dates back to an earlier period—to the time of King Louis XI, (1461-1483,) who introduced the manufacture of silk into France. The construction of the machines employed at that early period is unknown; but they must have been of the most simple character. In the year 1670, at the request of the municipal council of Lyons, that astute statesman, M. Colbert, finance minister of Louis XIV, sent to Bologne for a millwright named Pierre Benay, who erected near Aubenas an establishment for winding and twisting silk, in which the latest improvements invented in Italy were introduced.

Value of imports from France in the seven fiscal years ended June 30, 1874.

Principal articles.	1874.	1873.
Silk, raw	\$299, 23 8	\$204, 985
Silk, manufactures of	11, 817, 424	5, 185, 450
Wool. manufactures of	9, 270, 044	3,850,607
Wines, spirits, and cordials	5, 350, 234	5, 473, 444
Leather, gloves	3, 319, 293	863,750
other manufactures of	2,004,117	1,851,871
Cotton manufactures		858, 223
Fancy goods	1,665,028	932,911
Watches and manufactures of gold and silver	1,368,900	788, 400
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	1,032,334	2, 253, 039
Chemicals		2, 312, 526
Earthen, stone, and china ware	622, 046	810, 831
Buttons, all kinds	612, 480	254, 428
Furs, dressed	766, 593	503, 884
Straw and palm-leaf manufactures	819,606	379, 219
Other articles	9, 150, 482	7, 453, 632
Paying duty	49, 007, 320	30, 925, 977
Free of duty		3,051,223
Total	51, 691, 896	33, 977, 200
Total for fiscal year 1872.		\$43, 140, 156
Total for fiscal year 1871		28, 099, 279
Total for fiscal year 1870		42,731,138
Total for fiscal year 1869		30, 284, 531
Total for fiscal year 1868		25, 315, 605

EMIGRATION FROM FRANCE.

From the above statement it will be observed that the products of the skilled industry of France are to a large extent consumed in this country: but few, however, of its skilled workmen make their home among us. The well-known attachment of the French to their native land, together with other causes, renders the emigration from that country quite insignificant in comparison with that of other Europeans. In the heterogeneous population of this country, composed, as it is, of many nationalities, the French element is comparatively small, there being but 115,140 natives of France in the whole country in 1870. And while, since 1820, Germany has sent us nearly 2,800,000, and the British Isles over 4,000,000, the direct increment to our population from France, up to June 30, 1874, has been but 280,942. During each of the last five fiscal years the migration into the United States from that country has been as follows: 1870, 4,007; 1871, 3,137; 1872, 9,317; 1873, 14,798; and 1874, 9,643; total, in five years, 40,902; an average of only 8,180 a year. From so sparsely settled a country as Norway, during the same period, the emigration to this country amounted to 60,642, a yearly average of 12.128.

Even after the termination of the Franco-German war, when the industries were paralyzed, and even highly-skilled labor in limited demand, the emigration from France to the United States was only 14,798, of whom but 8,368 were males over fifteen years of age, showing that the number of artisans who sought a market for their skilled labor in the

New World, was extremely small.

INDUSTRIES OF PARIS.

In 1860 an inquiry into the industries of Paris was instituted by the chamber of commerce, under the direction of M. Moréno-Henriquès, and the result published in a ponderous folio of 1,088 pages. This volume* gives, in great detail, the history, progress, and present condition of twenty great groups of industries in that city, and of the numerous subdivisions of each group, with the various rates of wages paid to the employés, distinguishing respectively men, women, boys, girls, and apprentices.

The total value of the products of these industries in 1860 amounted

to 3,369,092,949 francs, distributed as follows:

Table showing the aggregate and proportionate value of the products of industry of Paris in 1860.

No.	Group.	Value.	Percentage to the whole.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	Food Building Furniture Clothing Yarn and woven goods Steel, iron, copper, &c Gold, silver, platina, &c Chemical and ceramic industry Printing, engraving, and paper making Various industries: First division, mathematical instruments and time-pieces. Second division, skins and leather Third division, carriages, saddlery, and military equipments. Fourth division, wooden ware, baskets, and brushes Fifth division, articles de Paris Sixth division, industries not grouped	France. 1, 087, 904, 367 315, 266, 477 199, 825, 948 454, 538, 168 119, 998, 751 163, 852, 428 183, 390, 553 193, 616, 349 94, 166, 528 66, 040, 233 100, 881, 796 93, 849, 195 27, 075, 323 127, 546, 540 141, 140, 294 3, 369, 092, 949	32, 29 9, 36 5, 93 13, 49 3, 56 4, 87 5, 45 5, 75 2, 79 1, 96 3, 00 2, 78 0, 80 3, 78 4, 19 100, 00

WAGES.

The rates of daily wages earned by the 416,811 persons employed in the various industries of Paris—ranging from 1 franc to 20 francs for males, and from 1 franc to 10 francs for females—are given in detail in the table on the following page:

^{*} Statistique de l'industrie à Paris resultant de l'enquête faite par la chambre de commerce pour l'année 1860. Paris, 1864.

LABOR IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.

	Totals.		1.01.000 88 60 60 82 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50	280, 750	2, 13, 50 2, 2, 36 3, 58 58 5, 58 5,
	ton selvisubut redidO Srouped.		1 188 1 194 1 194 1 194 1 194 1 1 193 1 1 193 1 1 193 1 1 1 193 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	12, 069	6 £ 30 2 7
	Parisian small wares or fancy articles.		5118 524 525 1,1,0,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1	10, 838	9.4.9 9.10 9.17 9.077
	Wooden ware, will- losw ware, and stuches.	•	136 136 136 136 136 136 136 137 137 137 137 137 137 137 137 137 137	3, 204	2 & 66 8 8
	Carriages, saddlery, and military equip- monts,		1.00.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1	15, 980	10 110 402 433
ni.	Skins and lesther.		0 0 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	5, 791	88 84 4 5 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8
THE GROUPS OF INDUSTRIES	Philosophical instru- ments and time- pieces.		1, 200 1,	10, 030	45 137 200 195
P8 OF IN	Printing, engraving, and paper-making.		2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 200	13, 834	390 1, 120 1, 456 880
HE GROU	Chemicals and pot- tery.		2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	10, 772	74 303 1, 015 1, 170 563
	Gold, silver, platina,		1, 9, 9, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8, 8,	11, 505	28 119 490 883 893 894
DESIGNATION OF	Steel, iron, copper, sinc, lead, &c.		**************************************	26, 700	82.05 84.08
a	Тати апд woven gooda.		9898 9898 11, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18,	10, 490	9 267 4, 515 9, 435 9, 316
	Clothing.		. 888. 4. 4. 4. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8.	27, 247	1, 188 5, 577 10, 748 15, 316 10, 007
	Familiare.		22 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	31, 905	8 8 4 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6
	Bollgiv£.		. 48 14 15 16 16 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	70, 243	
	Food, (alimentation.)		& 4. 2. 1 2. 2 2. 2 2. 2 2. 2 2. 2 2. 2 2	30,031	1.9.4.1. 88.89.83 28.83
	Rates of wages.	Wages per dion of males."	Less than 20 cents From 30 cents to 30 cents From 30 cents to 40 cents From 50 cents to 40 cents From 50 cents to 90 cents From 60 cents to 90 cents From 60 cents to 90 cents From 80 cents to 90 cents From 81 to 81.10 From 81 to 81.10 From 81 to 81.00 From 81 to 81.00 From 81 to 81.00 From 81 to 81.00 From 81 to 82.00 From 81 to 80 cents From 81 to 80 cents From 81 to 82.00 From 81 to 82.00 From 82.00 to 82.40 From 82.00 to 82.40 From 82.00 to 82.40 From 82.00 to 82.40 From 82.00 to 82.40 From 82.00 to 82.40	Total males	Wages per diem of females.* Lees than 30 conts From 30 cents to 30 cents From 30 cents to 40 cents From 40 cents to 50 cents From 40 cents to 50 cents From 60 cents to 60 cents

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7, 99, 99, 99, 99, 99, 99, 99, 99, 99, 9	106, 310	14, 161 5, 581	19, 748	290, 759 106, 310 19, 749	416, 811
288223	2, 870	10	5	12,099 2,870	14, 974
65. 841 741 741 75	12, 676	1, 106	2, 184	10, 838 12, 676 2, 184	25, 698
27.7	88 28	88	1128	8. 288.27.	4, 390
1112	1, 769	88	88	15, 980 1, 769 835	18, 584
######################################	749	28	57	5, 791 749 57	6, 597
26 65 1 0 1 0 1	788	994	1, 010	10, 630 788 1, 010	11, 828
88851.4cs	4, 290	1, 924	1,383	13, 634 4, 290 1, 383	19, 507
200 200 200 1	3, 433	190	192	10, 778 3, 433 192	14, 397
257 258 268 1	3, 597	3,017	3, 629	3, 505 3, 597 3, 689	18, 731
8.0	1,053	1, 108	1,113	26, 700 1, 053 1, 113	98, 866
1, 100 185 185 10 30 3	15, 637	219 471	889	10, 490 15, 637 683	26, 810
9 90 85 1 85 1 85 1 85 1 85 1 85 1 85 1 85	47, 477	498 3, 155	3, 653	87, 947 47, 477 3, 653	78, 377
976 931 51 15	3, 475	8, 517 54	9, 571	31, 905 3, 475 9, 571	37, 951
₹@	æ	798	\$	5. 28. 28.	71,942
11 12 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13	7, 636	1, 183	1 198	30,031 7,636 1,192	38, 859
From 60 cents to 70 cents From 70 cents to 80 cents From 60 cents to 90 cents From 81 to \$1.50 From \$1 to \$1.50 From \$1.50 to \$1.40 From \$1.50 to \$1.40 From \$1.50 to \$1.40	Total females	Boys. Girls	Total apprentices	Males Females Apprentices	Aggregate number of work people.

Nors. -In the above and in all subsequent statements, the value of the franc has been computed at 30 cents. This is done chiefly for convenience of computation, the more exact equivalent being 19.3 cents, United States coin. * The average daily wages, as computed from data in the above table, were as follows: males, 88.7 cents; and females, 44.3 cents.

In a note appended to the table on the preceding page the average daily wages earned by males and females respectively in the aggregate industries of Paris are shown. The following table exhibits, however, the average rates earned by men, women, and children in each branch of manufacture named below:

Table showing the number of work-people and wages of men, women, and children, in the following branches of manufacture, in Paris, in 1860.

·	rorl	Wages of-							
Manufactures.	Number of work- people employed.	14	ſen.		w	Child-			
		Range.		Average.*	Range.		Aver-	Average."	
Masons	31, 676	\$0 50 to \$							
Machinery and engines	8, 627	40 to		91	\$0 30 to	\$ 0 50	\$ 0 34	\$0.4	
Heating apparatus: stoves, furnaces, ovens, &c.	3, 559	50 to		88		• • • • • • •		3	
Founderies: iron, brass, copper, lead, and sino.	4, 026	50 to		91-	30 to		43	3	
Sewing-machines	473 598	60 to		1 07	50 to	70	64		
Fire-arms, swords, &c	297	70 to 30 to		1 02	35 to	50	35 43	2 2	
Boilers and kettles of iron, brass, and copper.	2, 254	50 to		87	35 W	30	•	3	
Cin-ware	1, 539	60 to		87	30 to	50	40	9	
Pawter-were tin-foil and nutty	607	60 to		92	30 to	50	30	3	
Wool-spinning	575		1 20	1 00	15 to	40	35	Š	
Cotton-spinning	2, 146		1 20	73	95 to	65	37	1	
Dawis: wooled and casumers	1, 930	95 to	2 00	75	90 to	90	39	9	
Printing and figuring woven-fabrics and dress-									
goods	566		1 20	99	20 to	80	46	ı	
Oyeing threads and tissues	1,007	60 to	2 00	83	95 to	70	41		
Woven fabrics for dresses, house-furnishing,	0.400			امما				_	
buttons, vests, &c	2, 488		8 00	86	10 to	. 70	35	9	
frimmings: galloons, buttons, &c	8, 426	40 to		79	20 to	1 90	39	1	
Artificial flowers	7, 831 2, 254		1 40 1 20	76 79	90 to		45 35	1	
Inholeterers	3, 591	60 to		1 04	30 to	1 30	46		
Jpholaterers	26, 138	60 to		92	90 to	90	42	••••	
Canners	1, 286		1 80	88	20 (0				
forocco-makers	1, 149	70 to		94	15 to	50	90		
eathor-dressers	1,660	60 to	2 40	99	25 to	50	34	2	
Boots and shoes	18, 082		2 00	73	15 to	1 90	38	2	
loves: leather	1, 196	60 to		93	90 to	80	44	1	
ur goods	1,065	50 to		91	30 to	80	43	. 9	
filitary equipments	5, 487		1 60	93	15 to	. 80	47	3	
Hat-making	3, 354 904	40 to 60 to	2 20	1 12	20 to	1 60 1 20	49 45	1	
straw-hate	4. 957		2 40	1 09	90 to	1 30	43		
ine jeweiry	5, 971		2 40	1 11	90 to		50	9	
Cheap jewelry	2 937		2 00	93	10 to		50	•	
lilver.ware	694		2 20	1 17	40 to	- 80	64		
Vorkers in the precious metals	1, 240		2 00	96	40 to	90	50	4	
apidary work	317		2 40	1 27	40 to	80	51		
clocks, watches, and watchmakers' materials.	9, 386	60 to		1 09	40 to	1 60	57	2	
Mathematical and optical instruments	3, 108		2 00	98	30 to		45	9	
Turniture: cabinet-ware	7, 951		2 40	92	35 to	80	47		
Aper-hangings: wall-paper	4, 459	50 to		1 03	90 to	60	98	3	
Imbrellas, canes, whips, &c	2, 222		2 00	81	15 to	80	41	1	
Austra instruments of metal	725		2 00 2 40	1 07	• • • • • • • • •	••••	····:	3	
Piano-fortes and harps	2, 101 1, 737	60 to 50 to		1 06 81	25 to		60	1	
Matches	799		1 20	63	30 to	180	44	3	
Printers' type	6. 158		2 40	99	90 to		42	3	
ithographic printers	3 219	50 to		1 02	30 to		45	ī	
hemicals and coloring matter.	1, 749	50 to	2 00	74	25 to	1 80	49	i	
harmacista, druggists, &c	1, 511		1 60	56	30 to	80	1 11	ī	
							39	3	

^{*} The figures given in these columns are the computed averages—not the mean rates.

MANUFACTURE OF LEATHER GLOVES.

As an illustration of the completeness of the results of the inquiry, a single branch of industry, the product of which finds its chief market in this country, has been selected, and translations of the letter-press and table are presented on the following pages.

HISTORY.

Before it came to be an article of the toilette, the glove was made use of to protect the hand. From skins and the coarser kinds of cloth, mittens were first made, being a kind of sack without division except for the thumb. Afterward, they were cut at the commencement of the joints of the fingers, so as to leave the fingers at liberty. In the sixth century the glove of thick skin began to appear; at a later period thin plates of metal were added, forming the gauntlet adopted by the chivalry at the commencement of the fourteenth century. Under the Valois, gloves constituted part of the

The hosiers made mittens of wool, and the glovers dress of the lords of the court. made gloves of cloth or of skins.

The most celebrated gloves were those made at Paris and at Vendome; those made at this last-mentioned city were so fine that they could be inclosed in a nut-shell. A practice for a long time prevailed of perfuming gloves with musk, the essence of neroli.

and of frangipanni.

To the gloves of skin and of wool were added, under Louis XIII, satin and velvet gloves. The gloves worn in the time of Louis XIV were generally ornamented with

ribbons, laces, and fringes of gold and silver.

During the long reign of this king many cities besides Paris and Vendome acquired a just renown by the perfection of their products. At this period is dated the reputation of the gloves of Grenoble, De Blois, Luneville, Niort, and Béziers. Ham produced the gloves known as dog-skin gloves. In the last century French industry had contact the state of the s tributed a large quantity of gloves to the trade of Holland, England, and even Flanders and Italy, while we were indebted to those countries for certain other kinds.

The manufacturers of gloves formed an important community, which received its first corporate authority in the time of Philip Augustus, in 1190; these enactments, confirmed in the reign of subsequent monarchs, were renewed in 1656, by Louis XIV. In 1776 the glovers, already united to the perfumers and powder-makers, were joined

to the wig bag-makers and the girdle-makers. They had at that time the exclusive right to make all sorts of gloves, mittens, and other covering for the hands, to double, to live, ornament, and earlich them with embroideries and lace, with gold and silver, pure or imitated, with silk and all other ornaments, and to wash and perfume them. They were obliged to make their gloves of good skins or other material, with the ends of the fingers well secured, being of correct proportions, and bound and edged with the same material as the rest of the glove, throughout their whole length, and doubled and stitched in accordance with the rules of the art. Gloves were sold by the merchants and small dealers as well as by the master-glovers, but the manufacturing of them was prohibited to the former.

According to an ancient proverb, in order to furnish a complete glove, it was neceseary that three kingdoms should furnish each its quots of handicraft to the work; Spain, the preparation of the skin; France, the cutting; England, the making of the seam. The dexterity which our workmen have attained in each of these three operations has rendered this adage obselete, and French products possess now a superiority which is acknowledged by our rivals themselves.

It was after the Revolution that the use of gloves of skins, and the making of them, became an object of special industry. The progress made by the glove-making industry for the past twenty-five years has been very considerable. This is to be attributed in part to the quality of the skins tanned in France.

Annonay, Paris, Grenoble, Romans, and Chaumont prepare kid-skins and lamb-akins suitable for the making of smooth-finished gloves, and Milhau furnishes the skins in considerable quantity for the making of lamb and castor gloves.

As to the cut of gloves, great improvements have been made of late years, the most important of which are due to Xavier Jouvin. The cut called "l'emporte piece," and the system of measuring invented by this manufacturer in 1835, has resulted in giving to the glove-manufacture a mathematical precision.

Besides, the seaming of the gloves has gained in elegance and simplicity. This result has been attained by the assistance of a little mechanical instrument in the form of a vise, which makes the work more regular. Also by the use of stronger silk, and

by the more general use of the puncturing instruments.

The sewing of the gloves is ordinarily done at the establishments where the business is carried on. The manufacturers of Paris employ very generally the workmen of the neighboring towns of Vendome, Mortagne, Verneuil, Mitry, Tremblay, and other communes of Oise and Seine-et-Oise.

Paris makes the finest quality of gloves. Grenoble makes the kid gloves of secondary quality; Chaumont and Luneville make principally for exportation; Milhau, Niort Vendome, and Saint Jullien prefer the manufacture of lamb, doe-skin, and castor gloves. Then the Swedish glove, which is made of the refuse of the tanned skins turned, that is to say, the hair-side in, are manufactured everywhere where smooth-finished gloves are made. Paris and Grenoble are the only markets for the sale of gloves. Manufacturers of other cities do not sell at home, they have depots and agents at Paris.

The gloves of France are so highly appreciated abroad, that the manufacturers of other countries, to facilitate the sale of their products, do not scruple to counterfeit on

So confident were the Prench manufacturers in the superiority of their goods, that at the time of the investigation relative to the commercial treaty with England, they asked for the free admission of foreign gloves into France. Moreover, the exportation statistics clearly show the prosperity of this industry.

The exportation of gloves which amounted in 1827 to a value of only 5,516,600 francs, reached 25,000,000 in 1849, and 30,998,000 in 1853.

NUMBER OF MANUFACTURERS.

In 1849 there were at Paris 185 glove-makers; in 1860 there were found to be—	
Employing more than 10 workmen	54
Employing from 2 to 10 workmen	79
Employing I workman, or working alone	21
-	
Total	154

Of which 10 carry on another trade.

The census shows, besides these, 129 fashioners.*

THE MAGNITUDE OF THE GLOVE MANUFACTURE.

With 1,196 workmen the glove-makers manufactured in 1860 to the amount of 14.987.400 francs. The average for each establishment, 97,320 francs; and for each workman. 12,531 francs.

If we add to the number of workmen the 129 fashioners, working with 15 persons, the number will be raised to 1,340, and the average reduced to 11,184 francs. With 26 workmen borne upon their lists, the 129 fashioners have manufactured to the amount of 170,185 france over and above that of the glove-makers; average for each, 1, 319 francs.

RENTS.

The rents of the 154 establishments amount to the sum of 290,645 francs; average for each establishment, 1,887 francs.

Among the fashioners, 9 are "concierges," (doorkeepers.) The united rents of the remaining 120 amount to 19,585 france; average for each, 163 francs.

WORKMEN.

Number on the census of 1860: Men, 747; women, 422; children under 16 years of age, (including 26 apprentices,) 27, of which 25 are boys and 2 girls. Total, 1,196 work-people, classified as follows: Dressers, cutters, and "doleurs;" splitters, puncturers, embroiderers, sewers, and claspers.

In 1849, the glove-makers employed 1,950 workmen. The decrease of 754 is explained by the employment of a greater number of workmen in the departments where hand-

work is less expensive than in Paris.

WAGES.

Men.—146 work by the day, and 601 by the piece; 9 earn less than 3 francs each per day; 33 earn 3 francs each per day; 33 earn 3.25 francs each per day; 14 earn 3.50 francs each per day; 8 earn 3.75 francs each per day; 145 earn 4 francs each per day; 127 earn 4.50 francs each per day; 284 earn 5 francs each per day; 13 earn 5.50 francs each per day; 68 earn 6 francs each per day; 9 earn 8 francs each per day; 4 earn 10 francs each per day. The workmen earning less than 3 francs are generally boarded by the employer. Those who earn more than 6 francs are the chiefs of shops or skillful cut-

employer. Those who earn more than 6 francs are the chiefs of shops or skillful cutters working by the piece.

Women.—95 are paid by the day, and 327 by the piece. 45 earn 1 franc each per day; 45 earn 1.50 francs each per day; 29 earn 1.75 francs each per day; 49 earn 2 francs each per day; 39 earn 2.25 francs each per day; 162 earn 2.50 francs each per day; 41 earn 3 francs each per day; 11 earn 3.25 francs each per day; 9 earn 3.50 francs each per day; 2 earn 4 francs each per day.

Children—A young girl under 16 years of age earns 50 centimes per day as assistant.

Apprentices.—Of 26 apprentices, 11 have neither salary nor gratuity: 3 receive an uncertain gratuity; 12 receive from 50 centimes to 1 franc per day; 3 of them are boarded by the employer.

boarded by the employer.

HOURS OF LABOR.

The working-day consists generally of twelve hours; from 7 to 7 in summer, and from 8 to 8 in winter, of which two hours are taken for meals.

^{*} The "fashioners" (façonniers) appear to be small manufacturers or contractors.

"DEAD SEASON."

Seventy-six glove-makers report no dead season. As for the others the season contimes three and one-half mouths in June, July, August, and September.

MANNERS AND HABITS.

Men.—Out of 747 workmen, 9 have lodgings with the proprietor; 571 furnish their own lodgings; 167 lodge in furnished apartments; 571 are well behaved, (une conduite bonse;) 38 doubtful; 138 bad; 663 know how to read and write; 59 know how to read only; 25 neither read nor write; 76 keep holiday every Monday.

Women.—Of 422 workwemen, 3 have lodgings with the proprietor; 389 furnish their

own lodgings; 30 lodge in furnished apartments; 397 are well behaved; 10 doubtful; 15 bad; 358 can read and write; 15 can read; 49 can neither read nor write; 29 often

bout, 356 can read and write; 15 can read; 45 can notice read not write; 25 often keep holiday on Monday.

Children.—The young girl lodges with her parents, and can read and write.

Apprentices.—Of 26 apprentices, only 1 is a girl.

Boys.—3 lodge with the proprietor; the rest with their parents; 18 read and write; 2 read only; 5 neither read nor write; 1 only is the son of the proprietor; 1 is a ward of the city of Paris, on account of merit in the schools; the others are placed at this business by their parents; 3 are engaged by contract, and 22 without contract; 7 are engaged for two years; 4 for three years; and 14 for four years. 1 pays 200 francs for the period of his apprenticeship.

The female apprentice is placed in the establishment by her parents, with whom she

ledges, and is under contract for two years: can neither read nor write.

MOTIVE POWER.

A steam-engine of 4 horse-power is employed at the glove-making works, and is used in the process of splitting the leather.

DESTINATION OF THE PRODUCTS.	France.
Marketed in France	7,061,900
Exported to England 1 353 8	00 .
Exported to Russia 548, 0 Exported to Germany 185, 5 Exported to Holland 90, 0	00
Exported to Sweden 60, 0 Exported to other countries 1, 375, 2	00
	7,925,500
Total value	14 997 400

TABULAR STATEMENT.

The number and classification of manufacturing establishments in Paris in 1860, by wards, (arrondissements,) with the value of the annual product and the amount of rent in each; the number of men, women, children, and apprentices employed, distinguishing the men and women paid by the day from those engaged on piece-work, are given in the table which appears on the following page:

FOURTH GROUP-CLOTHING. No. 16.—Gloves of skin or leather.

	nen L		79	BA the piec	8 2222-1583333
er of-	Women paid-	•		By the day.	කිව්යය - සය
Number of-	-pred		ъ	BA the piec	200 200 111 100 100 100 100 100 100 100
	Men p			By the day.	8
nd be	include 1768.	seoita Ba Ba	erqqa ibeserq	уо төбтий ; өйз	Ø - Ø - Ø - Ø
	eobje:	work-p	30 Te	dmna latoT	254 254 251 251 251 251 251 251 251 251 251 251
	Paris	ta Tir	ятодш	Residing te	
		Jusp	1901 TO	dana latoT	25.4451128512 8 1 8 1
بر ا	Resident work-people, (residing censtantly at Paris)	nder	80 H	Total	Ø-0 8 - 5
Working population in 1960	t at	Children under	age working the shop.	Girla.	н н
ation	netao	Children	o o	Воув	φ O α 1 φ
ndod :	ling or			Total	21132211388 8
orking	, (resid	Wошев-	-gaj	At home.	84.01 100 81 11
₽	people	≱	Working-	In shops.	¥255-70 1 888 88 3
	work			Total	25.2 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
	Mident	Men	- yar	At home.	1353 48888 E
	A		Working-	In shops.	200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200
				Rents.	6 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
		٩	нопро	ng to sufaV	25. 12. 20. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25
ģ				Total	Kanaarra Sau
orpuration of	198		alone.	One person	चक्रणन अस लन स
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		Arrondissements			Total

In the volume from which the foregoing extracts have been made, each subdivision of all the great groups of industries is, like the foregoing, fully and exhaustively presented. Although the period in which this inquiry was made is not recent enough to furnish with sufficient exactness the rates of wages now ruling, yet if the investigation had extended to all the chief manufacturing towns, more copious extracts would have been made.

CONDITION OF THE WORKING CLASSES OF FRANCE.

When the author of this Report visited France in the summer of 1872, the termination of the Franco-German war was so recent, and all branches of industry in such a prostrate and unsettled condition, that he did not deem it expedient to make a personal investigation into the cost and condition of labor in that country as he had done in Great Britain, Belgium, Prussia, and Saxony. Industry not having resumed its regular channels, it was impossible to obtain such data in relation to wages as would indicate, with sufficient accuracy for publication in a permanent form, the earnings of the work-people.

Unable to present accurate information on the subject of labor in a country so justly noted for its manufactures, and unwilling to omit its consideration altogether from this volume, resort has been had to the published results of investigations made by others at a comparatively recent period. A circular dispatch was issued by the British foreign office on June 7, 1870, to the secretaries of legations and consuls, instructing them to report upon the condition of the industrial classes in foreign counties. From the reports of the British diplomatic and consular agents in France copious extracts have been made, which appear in the following pages:

Extract from the report made to the British government on the condition of the working classes of France, by Lord Brabazon, dated Paris, September 20, 1871.

There are 9,000,000 families in France, 1,000,000 of which are in easy circumstances. Of the 8,000,000 belonging to the industrial or working classes, 3,000,000 are inhabitants of towns; while in England the town population is computed at four-fifths of the whole, in France it is about two-fifths. Land is very equally distributed among the bulk of the population, and the same is the case with personal property. In 1846, the population of France was distributed as follows: Rural, 75.58 per cent.; urban, 24.42 per cent. In 1861 the population was rural, 71.14 per cent.; urban, 28.86 per cent.

The decrease of the rural and increase of town population has continued since 1861 at an augmented rate. The amount of general education of the French people may be judged to some extent from the military statistics. The number of conscripts unable to read amounts to 30 out of every 100 for the whole of France. The degree of education, however, varies greatly in different parts of the country, instruction being far more general in the eastern and northern than in the southern districts. Among the 89 departments there are 14 in which, out of every 100 conscripts, from 90 to 96 can read.

As the working population of all countries may be divided into two sections, the agricultural and the mechanical, and as the condition of the former is not subject to as many changes and variations as that of the latter, it will be more convenient to give separately a general description of the agricultural class throughout France, before proceeding to consider the questions regarding the artisans.

AGRICULTURAL LABORERS.

Agricultural laborers are divided into two classes; those who are engaged by the year and live on the farm, and those who work by the day. Farm laborers who live in the farm-buildings receive, in addition to food and lodging, wages partly paid in money and partly in kind. The average amount of money-wages earned by farm-laborers is 145 francs (\$29) a year.

In some departments, such as l'Aisne, l'Aube, les Bouches du Rhône, and la côte d'or, laborers earn over 200 francs (\$40) in the year. In others, such as l'Aviège, la Corrèze, les Côtes du Nord, la Finistèrre, la Haute-Garonne, they do not receive more than 100 francs (\$20.) The additional amount of wages received in kind throughout France is calculated to be about 26 francs (\$5.20.) But there is a much greater difference in the amount paid in kind than in mouey. In the departments Bouches du Rhône, Gard, and Gironde, it is not customary to pay in kind. In some this description of payment does not amount to more than 10 francs, (\$2;) in some it surpasses in value the amount of the money payment (in Aisne, Aude, Hérault.) By adding together both descriptions of payment it will be found that the average amount of wages received by a farmlaborer in France is 171 francs (\$34.20) a year. If to this be added the value of food consumed by the laborer, which may be computed at about 10 cents a day, it will be found that the maintenance of a farm-laborer costs his employer, on an average, about 354 francs (\$70.80) per annum.

The wages of day-laborers vary, according as they are fed or not. In order to facilitate comparison, we will only take into consideration the day-laborer who is not fed by his employer.

From a table presented to the Emperor by the minister of the interior in 1858, it appears that the average daily pay of a day-laborer in France was 1 franc 75 centimes, (35 cents.) The highest is 2 francs 50 centimes, (50 cents.) in the department of the Seine, and the lowest 1 franc 13 centimes, (22½ cents.) in the Côtes du Nord. According to the "Statistique Agricole Officielle," the daily pay of a woman in the agricultural districts was 85 centimes, (17 cents.) and that of children 63 centimes, (12½ cents.) The same document shows that the male agricultural laborer works, on an average, 200 days in the year, women 120, and children 80.

If the above figures be correct the day-laborer earns on an average \$70, a woman \$20.40, and a child \$10. The same publication gives the following calculations on the

annual expenses of day-laborers, single and married:

Average expenditure of a single man.	France.		
Lodging Food	27 230		40 00
Clothing	45		00
Total	302	60	40

Deducting this from the amount which it was calculated he earned in the year, \$70, only \$9.60 remain for other expenses or for investment.

Average expenditure of a married day-laborer's family, consisting of father, mother, and children.

Items of expenditure.	In Fre		In United States gold	_
Lodging Bread Vegetables Meat Milk Wine, beer, and cider Salt Clothing. Fring Taxes Other expenses	36 42 24 34 7	C. 0 0 0 0 0 0 50 0 45 0	47 7 8 4 6 1 18 6	80 50 20 40 09

The foregoing is, of course, calculated to meet the requirements of a French, and not of an English laboring-man. For a family consisting of five persons to be able to afford the above expenses, they must all work, and even then the united wages leave but a small margin.

	In Free		In United States, gold		
Man's wages Woman's wages Three children, at 50 francs a year	Fr. 350 102 150	C. 0 0 0		00 40 00	
Total	602	0	120	40	

The married workman is, therefore, according to this calculation, and under very favorable circumstances, still worse off than his single neighbor, for while the latter may, if he is economical, lay by about 48 francs, (\$9.60,) the other will have but a bal-

ance of 21 francs (\$4.20) at the end of the year.

But it must be here remarked that among agricultural laborers in France, there are a certain number who supplement their resources by the prosecution of an accessory industry, such as weaving, wood-cutting, sawing, wooden-shoe-making, cask-making, and building. Such an accessory industry may increase a single man's wages by about 190 francs a year, (\$38,) but it is probable that those who carry on a trade in addition to their agricultural labor, cannot work as many days in the year at agriculture, and consequently earn less than the purely agricultural laborer. It is calculated that about 8 per cent. of the agricultural laborers are engaged in some trade.

In order to form a just appreciation of the moterial condition of a working-man, it is not sufficient to have a knowledge of the average amount of wages he earns in the year; we must also know how much is to be deducted from this sum to defray the

necessary expenses of lodging and food.

FOOD.

The food of the French workman is, as a general rule, substantially inferior to that to which the Englishman is accustomed. Many a French factory-hand never has anything better for his breakfast than a large slice of common sour bread rubbed over with an onion to give it a flavor. For dinner, some soup, potatoes or carrots, and sometimes a small piece of pork, which costs about 10 cents a pound; and for their last meal they eat the meat of which their soup was composed. With this frugal fare some drink only water, others half a bottle of cider, beer, or wine. Bread, vegetables, and fruit are generally to be obtained in France both cheap and good; but meat is bad

The following is the present price of food in a "cuisine ouvrière" frequented by none

but factory-hands at Rouen:

Bill of fare.—A dish of meat and vegetables, 6 cents; bread ad libitum, 3 cents; one-half litre, or ‡ of a pint of "cidre coupé," or cider and water, 2 cents—11 cents a meal, ‡ of a pint of pure cider, 3 cents; a basin of soup, 4 cents—7 cents.

In the north of France an Englishman need make no difference in the amount or the nature of the diet to which he is accustomed. As he approaches, however, the southern districts he should diminish the amount of animal food and substitute for it bread and Bread is an article which is always to be obtained of good quality in ve**getables.** France, and Frenchmen consume it in much larger quantities than we do. It forms the "pièce de résistance" at every French workman's meal; and all other articles of food are regarded as accessories to what in France is literally the "staff of life." The French have always been renowned for their culinary skill. It is a talent peculiar to the whole nation. The very poorest classes possess it. A French man or woman will manufacture a palatable meal out of the very coarsest, and what, to our ideas, may appear even most repulsive materials. The "soupe," which is to be met with on every French workman's table, is infinitely preferable to the concoction of hot water, pepper, and gravy which the richest millionaire in England is obliged to put up with, if he has to dine at an ordinary English provincial hotel, or even at many an establishment in the metropolis calling itself first-class. And yet it would be injudicious sometimes to look too closely into the composition of the French dish. The result of this is, that a French workman can live, even luxuriously, where an Englishman would starve. As regards beverages, beer and wine are good, wholesome, and cheap. Within the last few years the consumption of beer has increased enormously among all classes. Formerly it was almost unknown in France; now it is the common restaurant beverage of the Parisian middle-class. The workmen, however, still cling to their wine; the beverage commonly consumed by all classes at home. The beer principally drunk is the light Strasburg, which still bears its German name of "bock," though it is of a much milder nature than the original.

The French are very much addicted to the use of the deleterious spirit called "absinthe," which has a most injurious effect on their health. The Englishman is at all times too prone to indulge freely in drink, but if he has any regard for his health he

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will be careful to avoid dram-drinking, (the "petit verree," composed of all sorts of noxious spirits;) for, in addition to the adulterated character of these spirituous liquors, the dry climate of France will not permit men to take with impunity the amount of spirit which they could, perhaps, drink in England without any positively injurious effect.

According to Dr. Cenveilhier the population of France is not sufficiently well nourished. He calculates the daily consumption of alimentary matter by a strong, healthy man to be, at present, from 46 to 49 ounces, viz, 20 ounces water, 14 ounces carbon, and 7 ounces azote or nitrogen. In order, he says, that the matter eliminated should be regularly replaced, there ought to be an excess of carbon and nitrogen. A healthy man ought, therefore, to consume daily 31 ounces of dry food, or 6 cwt. 1 qr. 14.297 lbs. annually. The rations of the French soldier have been fixed upon this calculation.

It is, however, proved that the average daily consumption of the whole population is only 4 cwt. 1 qr. 9.017 lbs., instead of 6 cwt. 1 qr. 14.297 lbs. per man annually; but, if the number of children under five years of age be deducted, the consumption will be 4 cwt. 2 qrs. 3.63 lbs., a difference of from 1 cwt. 3 qrs. 2.416 lbs. to 1 cwt. 3 qrs. 13.439 lbs., or 29 per cent. This consumption, which corresponds to 44 gallons of wheat, 22 gallons of barley or rye, 75.018 pounds of meat, and 80.377 pounds of potatoes, is, according to the doctor, much above the average of the last century, but is, he considers, still insufficient. This must be very much below the average wants of a large portion of the population, because it must be borne in mind that the general consumption is relatively greater among the upper classes and in towns, than among the poorer classes and in the country.

As regards the consumption of wheat alone, the average is stated to have been 33

gallons per man in 1821, and 63 gallons per man in 1862.

The consumption of meat per head since the year 1812 is shown by the following table, in pounds:

Years.	Sheep, pigs, goats.	Oxen.	Cows, calves.	Total.
1812	4, 409	2, 205	15, 432	22, 046
	11, 023	4, 409	17, 637	33, 069
	17, 637	4, 409	17, 637	39, 683
	17, 637	4, 409	24, 251	46, 297
	22, 046	6, 614	24, 251	52, 711

Taking into consideration the increase of population, the consumption per head for 1871 would be over 72 pounds. In 1862, 1,900,000,000 pounds of meat were consumed in France, (reckoning the kilogramme* at 2 pounds English;) 48 per cent. were oxen, 40 per cent. pigs, 12 per cent. sheep and goats; in all, 16,000,000 of animals were alaughtered.

The following table will show the price of provisions in France during a period of thirty-two years:

Ĺ	Half a	kilo = 1.	1-10 of a	pound.	Ordin	ary-sized	l bird.	Half kilo.	1 dosen.	eler A pasp
Average period of years.	Beef.	Mutton.	Veal.	Pork.	Chioken.	G0086.	Turkey.	Butter.	Eggs.	Potatoes.
824–1833	0. 71-5 74-5 81-5 92-5 109-5	81-5 84-5 101-5	8 83-5 94-5	91-5 10 191-5	193-5 94	523-5 573-5 679-5	782-5 84 1 01-5	15 16 18	83-5 92-5 104-5	632
			Annua	l increa	se, per	oent.				

From 1834-1843 to 1844-1853 143-5 15 172-5 224-5 19 139-5 14 1-5 1834 68 1-5 From 1844-1853 to 1854 . . . 55 4 181 3-5 50 3.5 rom 1854 to 1855 212 4-5 196 204 164 2832 172 119 4-5 17745 1481-5 178 From 1824-1833 to 1855..... 36 2-5 513-5 361-29 1-5 1032-5 35 4-5 314

CLOTHING.

The French workman wears a blue linen blouse and trousers. The suit costs 10s. (\$2.42,) and one will last from one to two years. The only difference made in winter is to put on two extra shirts, a woolen one over a cotton. Cloth clothing is more expensive in France than in England; and as there is no occasion for an Englishman who has emigrated to the north of France to make any change, it rests with him to judge whether it would not be more economical for him to adopt the cheaper, but less durable, dress of the country. In either case, he will probably find that clothing costs more in France than in England. In the south of France, however, an English workman ought certainly to adopt the blouse, which is infinitely cooler and pleasanter than his own dress, when there is great heat.

The following prices are those at present charged by a firm in Paris, whose principal

dealings are with the working-class:

	Francs.		U. S.	gole lars		ol-
Complete suit	19 0 to 38 35 0 to 52 19 0 to 30	0 0 0	5 00 3 80 7 00 3 80 2 40 5 00	to to to	7 10 6 6 7	60 40 00
Working-dress.						
Overalls. Blouses Shirts, apiece	1 90 to 4	75 25 50 0	38 45	to to to	_	55 85 10 00

LODGINGS.

Speaking generally, home-comforts are not to be met with in the dwellings of the French workmen. Their houses in the small towns and in the country are mere lath and plaster erections, ill-calculated to resist either the heat of the summer or the cold of winter. No doubt there are many exceptions to this rule, as in the case of the "Cités Ouvrières," which have been built in Paris, Marseilles, Amiens, and other towns. Many employers have also followed the good example thus set them, and have built as good houses for their work-people as can be met with in the best parts of England. In large towns the artisans usually live in apartments in flats, which are apt to be overcrowded, and, as a rule, dirty. Workmen do not appear to have much difficulty in finding lodgings near their work; but this does not apply to Paris, on account of the local separation of classes.

The "Cités Ouvrières," already mentioned, are not all built on the same plan. Some are large barracks under regulation, in which apartments are let out at a cheap rate to the working-classes. Although these buildings have been erected with every regard for the comfort of the working-man, and the regulations are made as little oppressive as is compatible with the order and regularity which are essential for individual happiness where large masses of men are brought together under the same roof, still they have never been popular among the classes for whose benefit they were erected. The French workman objects to supervision. On his return home he wishes to be a free man, and to be master of his own household; and the consequence is that for lack of a sufficient number of working-men applicants, many of the apartments in these buildings are let to a class for whom they were never intended. The Cité Ouvrière at Marseilles may be taken as a specimen of this class of building. It is built on the side of the well-known hill which overlooks Marseilles, and which is surmounted by the little chapel consecrated to Nôtre Dame de la Garde. It consists of a single building of three stories, and contains 150 rooms opening on to long corridors. The rooms are let for 80c to \$1 and \$1.20 a month. The furniture consists of an iron bedstead, a table, two chairs, a cupboard and a looking-glass. Only men are admitted.

The workmen have the use of a large restaurant in the house at very moderate prices. A physician attends and gives medicine gratis. Hot-baths are prepared every Sunday,

and cost 5 cents.

The Cité Ouvrière, in Paris, in the Rue Rochechouart, contains 170 dwellings, besides a salle d'asile and a small establishment of baths. Furniture is not provided. The rooms are better than can be obtained by workmen in the neighborhood, and the price about the same. The Cité Napoleon was the first Cité Ouvrière erected in Paris, and is composed of 15 houses, 929 dwellings for married workmen, and 604 rooms for bachelors. Rent for workmen, \$13.40 to \$50 a year; for employés or clerks, \$59 to \$79. The furuished rooms are let for \$1.60 a month. At Amiens, similar erections have been made. Rent for family, from \$15.60 to \$25.20.

The system, which has really been a perfect success, is that adopted at Mulhouse. workmen's dwellings consist of rows of two-storied houses, each with a garden attached, and the condition of the lease is such that a workman, after a certain number of years, can obtain the freehold of his house. This has an immense moral influence on the population. There is no irritating system of supervision. The workman feels that he is the possessor of a real home, that in a few years he will become a proprietor; and thus the whole character of the man is changed. His self-respect increases, he feels himself a member of the body-politic, and his interests enlist him on the side of order.

The following passages are extracted from a sanitary report on the condition of Lille which was drawn up and presented to the municipality of that town in 1832. improvements have been effected since that date, and several new quarters for the working-classes have been erected; but if the misery is no less now than in 1832, there is still enough left to afford ample scope for improvement:

"It is impossible to imagine the dwellings of our working-classes without seeing em. Through the state of indifference and demoralization in which they live, they bring themselves into a condition of dreadful and deadly misery. In their dark, underground dens, in their rooms, which might be taken for cellars, the atmosphere, low-ever loathsome, is never changed. The walls are covered with filth. The beds, when there are any, consist of dirty planks, covered with damp and putrid straw. The coarse sheet, the color and material of which is hidden under a layer of dirt, resembles a sieve in texture.

"The furniture is mildewed, bedaubed, and broken. The windows, always closed, are pasted up with paper so blackened and smoked that the light is unable to penetrate. In some cases the windows are nailed up by the proprietor to prevent the panes of glass from being broken by opening. The floor is worse than all, strewed with rubbish, filth, cinders, and reumants of vegetables picked up in the streets, and infected with vermin of all kinds. The air is unfit to be breathed," &c.

M. Blanqui has thus described the workmen's habitations at Rouen: "The entrance is often by a low, dark, and narrow passage, where a man can hardly stand upright. These passages are the bed of a fetid stream issuing from the different stories and apartments, and which runs into the small court-yard and there stagnates. The staircases are spiral, without light or bannisters, bristling with hardened filth, and by them are reached dismal low dens, with windows and doors which scarcely open or shut, and with little or no furniture. The youngest children sleep on a bag of cinders; the rest of the family, father and mother, brothers and sisters, are all huddled together on a miserable litter."

Great efforts have been made to ameliorate the condition of these wretched classes, and much has been effected since the above was written, but the amount of poverty

that prevails renders it difficult to keep pace with it.

M. Jules Simon remarks, in speaking of the wretched condition of the working-classes in the French towns, that luckily they are not aware of the extent of their misery, and in proof of this he quotes an old woman lying on some wretched straw in a damp cellar, who, pointing to her neighbor on the wet, bare floor, said, "I am not rich, but, thank God, I have my pallet of straw."

WAGES AND QUALITY OF WORK.

There can be no doubt that the trustworthiness of the workman has an influence in most trades on his rate of wages. Of course, in some mechanical employments, where the workman is but a machine, and where there is no scope for the quality of honesty or dishonesty to make its influence apparent, the former may not be remunerated as it should be; but, on the other hand, in some trades, such as the jeweler's, honesty fetches a high price. The persistent abstraction of an infinitesimal portion of the silk given to the Lyons workmen to manufacture has always weighed heavily on the trade of that city. The workman forgets that the effect of this petty fraud is to increase the cost of production, first, by loss of material; second, by increased expenditure in supervision. He forgets that the manufacturer has to contend with competition; that his competitors are foreigners, who, perhaps, are not so heavily weighted in the race, working, probably, under more favorable circumstances, and where a stricter code of morals prevails. On this subject, M. P. Beaulieu, in his "Populations Ouvrières," says: "The manufacturer who is the victim of petty larceny is obliged to sell his goods at the same rate as foreign manufacturers, although the cost of production is greater in his case, owing to the frauds to which he is subject. To meet this he has but one resource, viz, the diminution of the rate of wages. Either the factory or work-shop must be closed or wages must be lowered. There is no middle course, and in either case the workman is the sufferer."

In 1856 the French government, alive to the economical consequences of the dearth of 1853, instituted inquiries on the influence which the increased price of food had

exercised on the rate of wages, with the following results:

Rate of wages in the principal departmental towns (Paris excepted) during the years 1853 and 1857.

DAILY WAGES OF A WORKING-MAN WHEN BOARDED.

	1853.	1857.	In- crease.
Ordinary pay	241	\$0 211 28 17	\$0 02 1 03 1 02 1
. WHEN NOT BOARDED.		·	
	1853.	1857.	In- crease.
Ordinary pay	\$0 37 <u>\$</u> 47 301	\$0 42 \$ 54 35	©0 05 07 041

From the above table it would appear that wages, taken en gros, increased between

1853 and 1857 at the rate of about 14 per cent., or one-seventh.

But the most important point to ascertain is the ordinary daily rate of wages of workmen not boarded, who compose by far the largest portion of working-men, and form the real laboring class. Under this category it was found that ornamental workers in stone attained to the highest rate of wages, viz: 68 cents in 1853, and 80 cents in 1857. Some of the more experienced workmen in the same profession received even as much as 94 cents in 1853 and \$1.14 in 1857. After them came the workers in jewelry and precious stones, who received 55 cents in 1853, and 59 cents in 1857. The wig-makers received the lowest wages, 27 cents in 1853, and 33 cents in 1857; and the weavers 28; cents in 1853, and 31; cents in 1857.

Among women the artificial-flower makers obtained the highest rate of wages. From 26½ cents their wages rose within the five years to 30 cents. The worst paid were the slop-makers, 19 cents in 1853, and 25 cents in 1857; the stay-makers, the embroiderers, and the seamstresses, who received from 19½ cents to 19½ cents in 1853, and 22½

cents to 23 cents in 1857.

In 1854 and 1855 the following were the rates of wages of workmen engaged in the house-building trade in the principal departmental towns:

Average daily rate of wages obtained by a good workman in the building-trade.

Mason: In 1854, 43 cents; in 1855, 44½ cents. Carpenter: In 1854, 46 cents; in 1855, 47½ cents. Joiner: In 1854, 46 cents; in 1855, 48 cents. Locksmith: In 1854, 47½ cents; in 1855, 49 cents.

The quality of the work executed by French workmen is, as a general rule, good. They have much more taste than the English workmen; they consequently excel in the manufacture of all articles of luxury where refinement and a correct eye for the artistic are necessary; but where solidity or accurate fluish is required, especially in iron and steel work, the Englishman is superior.

COTTON MANUFACTURE.

The manifacture of cotton, which now occupies so prominent a position among the industries of the world, was not introduced into France until about the middle of the seventeenth century. In 1816 the French manufactories were employed on more than 12,000,000 kilogrammes (11,810 tons) per annum.

The cotton industry in France has from its very commencement adopted as its spécialité the manufacture of fine texture, while England on the other hand has principally aimed at the production of coarse articles at a cheap rate. The French textures, in consequence of their fineness and elegance, have always sold for higher prices than the English, but the proportion between the two prices has always remained about the

The average wages of cotton-spinners are from 30 cents to 40 cents; 40 cents is paid

for spinning two sides and 30 cents for spinning one side.

The hours of work at Rouen formerly were from 6 a.m. to 7 p.m. They are now reduced from 6 a. m. to 6.15 p. m., and in some establishments only from 6 a. m. to 5.15 p. m.; but the employers state that they are afraid they will not be able permanently to adhere to this reduction on account of the loss which this diminution of labor

The following shows the difference in the wages of the workers in cotton in 1860

and 1870:

PIECE-WORK.—Arerage salaries per day of good workmen.

	1900.	1870.
Spinners	59	\$0 394 74 394
Winders, (men or women) Children	25	394 25
Average	331	371

This augmentation of wages is at the rate of 30 per cent. in ten years.

The proportion between the men, women, and children from twelve to sixteen years of age employed in the cotton-factories of France, is 50 per cent. men, 25 per cent. women, and 25 per cent. children.

In some manufactories a good weaver, employed at piece-work, can gain as much as

\$1.19 a day, but this is an exception.

In the Vosges wages are a liftle lower than those already quoted, but the augmentation during the last ten years has followed the same ratio.

Daily wages in the cotton-trade at Amiens.

	Wages in U. S. gold.
Hecklers.	\$0 40 to \$0 60
Preparers	30 to 40
Spinners	
Reelers	30 to 50
Doffers	
Weavers	40 to 80
Mechanics	60 to 1 00
Foremen	80 to 2 40

The houses built for their work-people by the Compagnie Anonyme consist of four rooms, with a coal-shed and a small garden. The rent before the war was 50 cents, which has now been reduced to 25 cents. The houses of the same class in the neighborhood are let at from 50 cents to 55 cents.

Elbæuf.—This town, which holds such a prominent place in the manufacture of cloth, contains from 9,000 to 10,000 workmen permanently residing within its limits; about 20,000 altogether, counting the floating population. The value of the manufactures of this town amounted in 1858 to 85,000,000 francs, (\$17,000,000.)

The fact that the number of workmen employed for the last half century has not altered, is worthy of notice, although the production has so enormously increased. Thus if we take, for the sake of comparison, the years 1804 and 1853, that is to say, a year in which all the work was executed by hand, and a year in which machinery was employed, it will be found that the same number of men were employed, notwithstanding the difference in the amount produced.

In 1804, 15,500 pieces of cloth were manufactured, while in 1853 82,000 pieces were In 1804 three kinds of cloth were made, the average price of which was 24 francs the metre. In 1853 the action of machinery had reduced the average price to 12 francs the metre. The cloth manufactured in 1853 for 12 francs was superior to the cloth which in 1804 sold for 20 francs.

The wages of the workmen in 1804 were 24 cents a day; women, 15 cents; children 4 to 6 cents. In 1853 the average had risen to 55 cents for men, 35 cents for women, and 15 cents for children.

Lille.—This is a very large center of industry, the cotton-spinners alone amounting to 7,000 or 8,000 in number. The population of the town is over 154,000, and the inhabitants are chiefly engaged in the manufacture of lace, tulle, and cotton fabrics. climate, like that of Calais and Dunkirk, is very similar to that of England. Men earn from 50 to 65 cents a day, and the women 50 cents, working twelve hours. In the cotton-mills wages average from 44 cents to sometimes, but rarely, 70 cents a day.

Oissel.—The wages here are: men, from 60 cents to \$1; women, from 30 cents to 60 cents; youths and girls, from 25 cents to 55 cents; and children, from 15 to 20 cents.

Rouen.—The cost of provisions at Rouen is as follows: meat, 20 cents a pound; milk, 2 cents the litre; bread 4 cents a pound. * * * The rate of wages is as follows: Fitters in engineering works get 871 cents to \$1.18 a day; turners the same; smiths working steam-hammers, \$1.50 a day; iron-molders, from \$1 to \$1.25 a day; "monteurs," being better educated and of rather a superior class, get 14 to 16 cents

The want of the system of apprenticeship here tends to inferior workmanship; and the employers do not speak very highly of the amount of talent shown by their men, nor of their evincing much pride in their work. The hours of work vary from eleven to twelve hours in the town; in the country they are nearly always twelve. In Paris alone they are ten, but they are scarcely ever ten elsewhere, except in cases where the business is in the hands of a company who are spending money which is not their own.

All firms who work for themselves work for eleven or, more generally, twelve hours.

At the manufacturing town of Bolbec, in the neighborhood, where there are several large capitalists, the men work for eleven hours only; and the system adopted there by these employers, who are endeavoring to better the condition of their workmen. seems to have resulted in making them more settled, and to have improved the whole tone of their character; they evince more pride in their work, and thus repay their employer by attending to his interests, while their whole morale is raised; but this would hardly be possible in a large town where the proprietors did not all agree to act in concert in the matter.

Valenciannes has almost entirely ceased to produce the lace which bears its name. The workmen who make the real Valenciennes lace earn 26 cents a day; those who make the imitation, as it is made in Belgium, earn 1 franc, 50 centimes, (30 cents) for twelve hours' work. The workers in coarse lace earn 25 cents.

The large coal-fields in the neighborhood, in what is called the Bassin de Valenciennes, supply three-fourths of the coal obtained in the whole of France, and concen-

manufactories, which employ a number of women, there are no great industrial establishments here. The hodinen get from 50 cents to 60 cents a day. The last prices are the same as in the spinning factories in the little town of Suippes, twenty kilometres from Chalons. Unfortunately the lodgings are of a very low character, damp, and unhealthy. They cost, unfurnished, from \$30 to \$40 a year for a family of four persons. The climate is healthy. The average temperature varies between 90° Fahrenheit, in the summer, and 15° Fahrenheit, in the winter, the average lying between 50° Fahrenheit and 60° Fahrenheit. Coal costs 80 cents to 90 cents the 100 kilogrammes, (1 cwt. 3 qrs. 24 lbs. 7 oz;) bread, per pound, 4 cents; meat, per pound, 18 cents; butter, per pound, 28 cents; eggs, each, 2 cents; potatoes, per pound, 5 cents; bacon, per pound, 18 cents; wine, per pint, 54 cents; beer, per pint, 3 cents.

Lons le Saulnier.—Cheese and wine are the staple products of this district. A salt-

mine, employing 150 hands, gives work to the population. A mechanic, in proportion to his skill and strength, can earn from 45 cents to 70 cents a day. Masons, carpenters, blacksmiths, &c., receive about 4 francs or 5 francs (80 cents or \$1) for a day's work of twelve hours. Lodgings, consisting of single rooms, cost from \$10 to \$13. Workmen sometimes live in boarding-houses for \$8 to \$10 a month; but many find it

cheaper to live at home. The climate is a temperate one.

Nancy.—The wages here are very low and workmen are obliged to live with the greatest economy. Mechanics, for instance, who are the most numerous class here, only receive from 39 cents to 50 cents a day. The best only get from 60 cents to 60 cents. The skilled workman only receives 80 cents per diem. Beyond these, higher wages are only given for piece-work to workmen employed in special branches of industry in large establishments. These can live well on their earnings. Miners and the stability well if they well if they puddlers, plate-rollers, casters, and mechanics can get on, and even live well, if they are sensible men and economically disposed. The embroiderers and the lace-workers of Mirecourt, who number, the former about 40,000 workmen, the second about 25,000, are very badly paid. In 1852, the lace-workers of Mirecourt complained that their daily labor of twenty hours only produced 35 centimes to 40 centimes (7 to 8 cents) while formerly they received from 144 centimes to 19 centimes.

Rheims is indebted to the manufacture of wool for its important industrial position. It holds the first rank in the amount of production, 30,000 to 40,000 workmen being employed in this branch of industry. Since the introduction of steam-carding the workmen employed in this department have suffered considerably. While an industrious workman requires an assistant to enable him to card by hand, in the year, 715 to 770 pounds, the machine can prepare 33,000 pounds to 45,000 pounds in the same time. Formerly a carder could earn 300 francs (\$60) a year, a sum insufficient to support him comfortably, but now he cannot earn even that.

Taking the average of all the industries in Rheims by hand as well as by machinery the income of the artisan in 1860 was \$100. If we separate those who work by hand from those who work with the aid of machinery, it will be found that the former

earned \$80 per year, and the latter \$120.

St. Etienne.—The following table gives the prices of provisions at St. Etienne in 1871:

Articles.	In French currency.	In United States cur-
	f. c.	
Wheatper 100 kilogrammes, 220 pounds	26 50	8 5 30
Ryeper 100 kilogrammes	18 00	3 60
Barleyper 100 kilogrammes	20 50	4 10
Oatsper 100 kilogrammes	20 50	4 10
Peaseper 100 kilogrammes	32 00	6 40
Lentilsper 100 kilogrammes	50 00	10 00
Beans per 100 kilogrammes.	27 00	5 00
Potatoesper 100 kilogrammes	6 50	1 30
Flourper 100 kilogrammes .	40 00	8 00
Bread, whiteper 100 kilogrammes.	50 00	10 00
Bread, brownper 100 kilogrammes	45 00	9 80
Bread, black	34 00	6 80
Beef per kilogramme	1 90	*18
Vealper kilogramme	1 80	*17
Mutton per kilogramme.	1 90	*18
Porkper kilogramme	1 60	•15]

* Per pound.

Lyons contains about 300 manufactories of silk, and as several are in the hands of partners, the manufacturers number from about 450 to 500. About three-fifths of the production is for the foreign market. There are 70,000 looms at work, employing 175,000 hands. In 1860 the wages paid were at the rate of 131 cents per yard. The weaver can make a little more than 4 metres (4½ yards) a day, working from 5 in the morning until 10 at night, which brought in 70 cents. Thirty-five cents out of the above sum went to the owner of the loom, and 35 cents to the workman. Some are better paid, but the average is 36 cents per day.

The majority of the Lyons workmen occupy large houses of five or six stories, built expressly for them. The rooms are made sufficiently lofty to take in a Jacquard loom, and are let separately. The largest part of the room is devoted to the looms, the numbers of which vary from two to six, while the remainder of the space, forming a kind of alcove, lighted sometimes by a window, is divided—thanks to the height of the room—into two divisions, one above the other. The upper part is reserved for the children and assistants; the lower half serves as kitchen, sitting-room, and bed-room for the owner of the looms. The staircases are large and airy. The healthiness of the modern lodgings and the assistance of machinery in weaving have had a marked effect on the health and physique of the population.

The French law for the protection of children is not so stringent as the law in England. Children from eight to twelve years of age may work in France eight hours out of the twenty-four, that is one and a half hours longer than in England. There is also no effective system of supervision. The French law only applies to manufactories and establishments in which machinery moved by mechanical power is used, or in workshops containing more than twenty workmen. The Lyons workshops never hold more than six workmon, and the government has never used the power conferred on it by this law to extend the prohibition. It is, therefore, a dead letter as far as the silk manufacture is concerned.

Market.

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Market and retail prices of provisions at Lyons in September, 1871.

Batter, per kilogramme, 2 pounds 3\(\frac{1}{2}\) ounces Eggs, per 100 Cheese, per kilogramme Fresh sea-fish—let quality, per kilogramme Fresh-water fish—carp, per kilogramme Fresh-water fish—tench, per kilogramme Fresh-water fish, pike, per kilogramme		1 43 27 64 29 29	
Bread, per kilogramme Beef, per kilogramme	Retail 8 c 271	Market. 7‡c. 27	

Fin ordingire, or wine of the country, 7 cents to 12 cents per litre—(14 pints.)

Marseilles.—Nothing is manufactured here on a large scale but soap, for which there are large works, with corresponding mills for crushing oil-seeds, and one or two large eigineering establishments. In these the wages range from 62 cents to \$1 a day, according to the quality of work. The prices of house rent, labor, food, and clothing are within 1 or 2 per cent. the same as at Paris; bread, meat, vegetables, clothing, and furniture are slightly dearer; house rent, fruit, and wine are cheaper. Most things are brought from Paris, which accounts for the high prices. It would seem that living at Marseilles costs more than in London, or any other large town in England.

Bordeaux.—The purchase-power of money at Bordeaux as regards absolute necessaties of life, such as food, clothing, and lodging, is less than in England. The light wines of the country are drunk in preference to beer, and are more suited to the climate, especially in summer. The draipage at Bordeaux, from the porous nature of the soil, is naturally very good; workmen can obtain lodgings near their work, and do not suffer from overcrowding. In the manufacture of small articles, French workmanship is nearly always better as regards finish, but it is not of so solid and strong a character as the English. Wages in manufacturing establishments vary from between 80 cents to \$1.20 for men, from 40 cents to 60 cents for women and grown lads, and from 20 cents to 40 cents for girls. The English workman cannot live as well at Bordeaux as in England, nor are his earnings as great. Rent of furnished lodgings is from \$3 to \$3.62 a month. Fuel costs \$8 to \$9 a ton. Meat 20 cents the English pound. Vegetables, groceries, and clothing are all dearer than in a town of the same size in Englaud. The Englishman being accustomed to animal food, which is twice as dear as bread and vegetables, (upon which the native thrives,) cannot feed himself for less than 3 francs (60 cents) a day; the same sum sufficing to cover all the expenses of the French workman.

Montauban.—The climate is very healthy and mild, and epidemics unknown. The temperature in winter rarely goes below 24° F., and that only for a few days. A winter suit of clothes can be got complete for from \$6 to \$10; summer ones, from \$4.25 to \$6. A workman can get good healthy lodgings of two rooms, for from \$2.10 to \$3.10 a month. Food is plentiful and cheap. Eggs cost 1 cent apiece. Chickens, 30 cents to 40 cents apiece. Butchers' meat and vegetables are cheap, as is also fruit. Wine costs 5 cents to 6 cents for \$1 imperial pint. The industry of the place consists in the manufacture of coarse woolen goods and serges, (Cadis de Montauban,) in spinning silk, and in making furniture. The character of the people is somewhat indolent, and they might, if they chose to be more active, easily double their average earnings, which are from 40 cents to \$1 a day for men, and 10 to 20 cents for women.

Chateauroux.— There are two manufactories here; one of tobacco, in which the men carn about 30 cents; and one of cloth, in which 54 cents is the average of wages. Mechanics earn from 40 to 80 cents in founderies, &c. The ordinary workman earns from 41 to 66 cents a day. In dress-making establishments, where women are employed, wages vary from 25 to 30 cents. The average time they work is ten hours. Food is wholesome and abundant. Meat costs from 35 to 42 cents per kilogramme, (2 pounds 33 cunces.) Turkeys cost \$2.40 to \$3 the pair. Fowls, from 58 cents to \$1.18 a pair. Bread is at 91 cents per kilogramme, (about 41 cents per pound,) for the first quality. The second costs about 31 cents per pound.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS IN PARIS IN 1871.

. Articles.	In French currency.	In United States gold.
	f. c.	A 0. W
Bread, first qualityper 1 kilogra	mme . 0 45	\$0.09
bread, second quality per } kilogra	mme 0 25	0
Beef, first qualityper 1 kilogra	mme 2 00	40
Beef, second quality per 1 kilogra	mme 1 70	3
Beef, third qualityper 1 kilogra	mme 1 50	3
Veal, first qualityper 1 kilogra	mme 2 60	5
Veal, second qualityper 1 kilogra	mme 2 20	4
Veal, third qualityper 1 kilogra	mme 2 00	4
Mutton, first qualityper 1 kilogra	mme 2 20	4.
Mutton, second qualityper 1 kilogra	mme 1 70	3
Mutton, third qualityper 1 kilogra	mme 1 40	2
Fillet of beefper 1 kilogra	mime 500	10
Rump-steakper 1 kilogra	mme 3 00	6
Butter, first qualityper 🛊 kilogra	mme 2 50	5
Butter, second qualityper i kilogra	mme 2 20	1 4
Butter, third qualityper 🛊 kilogra	mme 1 70	3
Butter, fourth qualityper } kilogra	mme 1 35	2
Milkper	litre 0 40	0
Creamper	litre 1 00	2
Sugar, first qualityper 1 kilogra	mme 0 80	1
Sugar, second qualityper i kilogra	mme 0 75	!
Sugar, third qualityper i kilogra	mme 0 70	1 4
Coffee, first quality per 1 kilogra		1 2
Coffee, second qualityper 1 kilogra		
Coffee, third qualityper ‡ kilogra Coffee, fourth qualityper ‡ kilogra	mme 1 80	1 3
Fea, first qualityper \(\frac{1}{4} \) kilogra	mme 8 00	1 6
rea, second qualityper ‡ kilogra	mme 6 00	1 2
rea, third qualityper ‡ kilogra		1 8
Candles, first quality per 1 kilogra	mme 1 50	
Candles, second qualityper ‡ kilogra	mme 1 40	ا ا
Candles, third qualityper 1 kilogra	mme 1 30	1
Candles, fourth qualityper } kilogra		1 3
Lamp-oil, first qualityper } kilogra		3
Lamp-oil, second qualityper 🛊 kilogra	mme 1 60	
Fire-woodper 1,000 kilogra	mmes 70 00	14 (
Coalper 1,000 kilogra	mmes 60 00	12 (
Cokeper 1,000 kilogra		12 (
Wineper		10c. to 14

FROM REPORTS OF BRITISH CONSULS.

BOULOGNE CONSULAR DISTRICT.

The following is the price of labor for the day of 10 hours: a mason, 70 cents; a slater, 90 cents; a carpenter, 80 cents; a joiner, 68 cents; a locksmith, 70 cents; a painter, 54 to 62 cents; an ordinary laborer, 54 cents. In the boot trade a workman earns from 60 cents to 70 cents a day by piece-work. In the pen manufactory wages are about \$3.75 a week, the day's work being from 8 a. m. to 7 p. m. with the interval of an hour; the women employed on piece-work probably receive as much. In the cement-works, where not much skill is required, the wages are 56 cents a day. In the iron-works the ordinary laborer is paid from 50 to 56 cents, while the skilled workman receives as much as \$1 a day. In the carriage manufactory, which is a very important business, the wages range from 50 cents to \$1.25 a day, according to the degree of skill in the workman.

The following are the prices of provisions in the town of Boulogne: Wheat bread, first quality, 4 cents per pound; beef, ordinary quality, 22 cents per pound; mutton, ordinary quality, 20 cents per pound; veal, ordinary quality, 20 cents per pound; pork, ordinary quality, 18 cents per pound; butter for the table, 32 cents per pound; butter for the kitchen, 25 cents per pound; coffee from 40 to 45 cents per pound; sugar, white, 17 cents per pound; sugar, brown, 13 to 15 cents per pound; coals are from \$6 to \$6.50 per ton.

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CALAIS CONSULAR DISTRICT.

Lodgings.—In the neighborhood of Calais the lodgings are tolerably good and healthy. and conveniently situated as regards distance from work.

In the Lille district there are a few unhealthy lodgings, but such cases are rare.

In Saint Valery-sur-Somme lodgings for working-men are very scarce. Laborers employed on public works, such as the embankments, reside generally at a distance of from three to five miles from the town, and have to come to and from their work, according to the state of the tide. Mr. D'Arcy adds, that "healthy premises are very difficult to find, and that the small ill-ventilated cabins, in which the laboring classes reside, in the villages around Saint Valery, are, in some cases, very unwholesome and dirty, in some places duughills and cesspools being contiguous to their very doors."

I would here observe that there are no factories in the immediate neighborhood of

Saint Valery, the district being purely agricultural.

As regards this part of France there is no special risk for any one living temperately; on the contrary, in the Calais district especially, the people are clean and healthy, and

particular branch of industry

Mr. Wilson reports that, with the exception of the weavers, the workmen in his dis-

trict are not good, and, being badly paid, they take no pride in their work.

As regards the question whether there is any class of artisans whose work can be depended upon as good from the sense of honor they have in executing it, I should say, with, perhaps, the exception of the lace trade, they are governed not by a sense of honor, but by interest. The same remark is made as regards the weavers in the Lilla district.

As to the skill of the workmen influencing the rate of wages, those employed in the lace-trade are paid according to the quality of their work and steadiness in their business, careless or unscrupulous workmen rarely remaining in their situations. Skill and

trustworthiness must, therefore, influence the rate of wages.

The rate of wages in the tulle trade varies as much as from \$6 to \$14 per week, and is regulated entirely by work done. The hours, too, vary considerably. When the trade is active, the machines are at work day and night; in average seasons, during the day only; and at certain times, known as the "morte saison," i. e., during the autumn, they are at work only during part of the day.

In the Lille district the men earn from 50 cents per day, and the women \$60 cents, working 72 hours per wake; and in the cents per day, and the women \$60 cents.

50 cents, working 72 hours per week; and in the cotton-mills they earn from 40 cents

to 70 cents per day, the latter sum, however, very rarely.

HAVRE CONSULAR DISTRICT.

Purchase-power of money.—It is not very easy to give the absolute rate of wages paid in the Havre district to the different classes of workmen, as it varies, as do the prices of provisions, and house-rent in the different localities being higher at Havre than in the interior. I have, however, endeavored to give the mean of the different rates.

	Average d	aily wages.	Hours of la-
Occupations.	French currency.	United States gold.	bor, exclud- ing meals.
Carpenters and locksmiths. Stone-masons Mechanics Bricklayers House-painters Smiths Shipwrights Laborers, ordinary Dock-laborers Cotton-spinners Cotton-weavers, (principally women Calico printers and dyers. Flax-spinners Bleachers Tanners Engine-drivers, four classes, average Stokers, two classes, average	4 75 4 50 4 50 4 50 4 75 3 00 5 00 5 00 2 50 4 25 4 00 3 00 4 00 7 35	\$0 80 95 90 80 90 90 95 60 1 00 50 85 80 60 1 47 90	9—11 9—11 9—11 9—11 9—11 9—11 9—11 11—12 11—12 11—12 11—12 11—12 11—12 No fixed time.

AGRICULTURAL LABORERS.

	Avera,	ge wages.	labor.	
Occupation.	Currency.	United States gold.	Hours of labor	Observations.
By the year: Plowman. Ordinary laborer. Women By the day:	Frs. 400—450 275—325 223—275	\$80 00 to \$90 55 00 to 65 44 60 to 55	15 15 15	Board and washing found. Meal-times included.
Men, with food Women, with food Men, without food Women, without food	1 50 1 00 3 00 1 75	30 20 60 35	13 13 13 13	Meal-times included.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS.

	Avers	ge price.
Articles.	Currency.	United States gold.
Bread, second quality	Fr. c. 0 80 1 50 1 40 0 071 1 15 0 93 0 93 1 00 0 66 2 00 4 50 0 15 0 10 0 73 0 73	\$0 16 30 28 11 23 18 18 18 20 13 40 90 03 02 144
Soap, soft	0 40 0 20 0 25 0 66	08 04 05 13

PRICES OF RENT, FUEL, LIGHTS, CTOTHING.

	Average price.		
Articles.	Currency.	U. S. gold	
	Fr. c.		
Rent of roomsper week	3 00	\$ 0 60	
Coals per ton	40 00	8 00	
Lighte		•	
Candles per pound	0 76	15	
Petroleumper quart	0 82	16	
Clothing			
Tweeds per yard	8 00	1 60	
Fustians per yard	4 50	90	
Flannels per yard	3 50	70	
Linen (coarse) per yard	1 25	25	
Calico per yard	0 80	16	
Prints per yard	1 00	20	
Merino per yard.	2 00	40	
Stockings per pair	1 50	30	
Shoes, men'sper pair	12 00	2 40	
Shoes, women's per pair	8 00 5 00	1 60 1 00	
Shoes, children's per pair.			
Shoes, (sabots) per pair	1 00 12 00	20 2 40	
Hate, eilkeach	4 00	80	
Hats, felteach	3 50	70	
Caps each	3 50	, 10	

MARSEILLES CONSULAR DISTRICT.

Considering the severe disorganization the country has undergone since July, 1870, it is not surprising that the normal scale of wages given to artisans and laborers should have undergone many changes, and it is really difficult, at present, to say what may be considered the standard of wages. In the large engineering establishments in Marseilles the ordinary laborers are paid at the rate of 70 cents a day, and the skilled workmen earn \$1 to \$1.20. In the large soap-works, and in the mills for crushing oil-seeds, the same rates prevail. The porters and laborers employed in loading and discharging vessels, and in the work at the docks and warehouses about the port, are mostly paid at the rate of \$1 a day, or they manage to earn that amount at piece-work. Ship-carpenters, calkers, and blacksmiths are likewise paid at the rate of \$1.20. These are more or less the prevailing rates of wages in this and other large towns, artisans and laborers receiving about 10 per cent less in the smaller towns in the south of France. Agricultural laborers are paid, on the average, from 40 to 50 cents a day.

The foregoing rates of wages sufficed, previously to the war, to keep all the available laborers occupied, and many of them were even enabled to save small sums of money. The savings-banks' returns show that, in Marseilles alone, there were 27,288 depositors in 1864, and 35,966 in 1869. Two-thirds of these, at least, were artisans and laborers. In the former year their average savings amounted to \$70.30 per head, and in 1869 to \$71.10.

There has been a falling off in the savings-banks since the outbreak of the war to the extent of 15 per cent. Considerable sums of money are likewise invested in government stocks, and all sorts of French and foreign securities, by the artisans and laboring-classes. The rate of wages which are thus stated enable the artisans and laborers to obtain the necessary aliments and clothing, as well as to meet their other necessary expenses, house-rent, &c., to about the same degree as the artisans and laborers in England. A great advantage, however, possessed by the working-classes in the south of France is the climate, which is usually so bright and cheering. With the exception of fruit and wine, provisions are not cheaper than in England. Bread, meat, fish, and vegetables are not to be obtained in the south of France below English rates; fuel is dearer than in England, but the winter being shorter in France than in that

country, the annual expenditure thereon amounts to about the same in both countries.

House-rent in the large towns is higher, proportionately, than in England.

In the south of France the standard of health is very good; the climate is fine and enjoyable throughout the year, and a fair amount of longevity is not wanting. The summers are warm, but the heat does not prevent the artisans and laborers from carrying out their occupations, whether indoors or out in the open air, and the field-laborers are not prevented thereby from performing their work.

The laboring classes in these parts are frugal and abstemious in matters of diet. This consists principally of bread and wine, and, of late years, the taste for animal food has increased with the growing prosperity of the country. In the towns, especially, the taste for meat is fairly established, and successful work-people live as these

in England.

The inhabitants, taken altogether, are better found in clothing than in most countries. The articles of which their clothing is composed are not altogether so good or so substantial as those in general use in England: but the Frenchman is more careful about his clothing, and his garments look better and last longer in this fine dry climate than those usually worn by English artisans and laborers. Warm clothing is absolutely requisite in the south of France, as much so as in England, the changes of temperature being very rapid, and dry, cutting winds which prevail rendering it necessary

to use proper precautions for the preservation of health.

Much progress has been made of late years in securing proper lodgings for the working-classes. All the large towns are being rebuilt, and much attention is being paid to the proper ventilation and drainage of the houses. In Marseilles, Lyons, and other large towns in the south of France the working-classes can now find proper and

healthy lodgings not too far removed from their work.

The workmen generally employed in the various trades and occupations in the south of France are every way most competent in their respective pursuits when it suits their fancy to display their skill; but as a rule they do not work steadily. There is much instability in their manner of working, and slovenly workmanship is not uncommonly seen. They waste much time about their work, and, considering them altogether, they do not take much pride in their work, or put their character into it.

NANTES.

Wages may be fixed at an average of 80 cents per day. The Parisian workman is paid by the week or fortnight, deducting, of course, the holidays. The mean pay may thus be estimated at \$20 per month, about \$240 a year, but one must not lose sight of the stoppages, ("mortes saisons,") which, in different trades, vary between two and four months in the year. In short, the Parisian workman cannot be said to surpass \$250 yearly. It would be difficult to say whether this sum is sufficient for his maintenance.

The existence of the Parisian workman is at best a wretched one, and this is, therefore, very probably the reason why change is so popular. The general wish appears to fore, very probably the reason why change is so popular. The general wish appears to be in favor of the eight-hour legal-labor system, the supplementary hours of work to be paid according to the present custom. This would not, however, benefit all the working-classes. The day's labor of glaziers and house-painters, for instance, varies according to the seasons. They are not paid uniformly by the day, but according to its length; having full days in the height of summer, and nothing to do in winter; their day's labor increasing progressively in spring to decline with the autumn, the pay ranging from 50 to 80 cents, \$1, and \$1.20 per day.

Food.—Workmen find in Paris good and abundant food at moderate prices, though perhaps not very much cheaper than in London. Again, it must be taken into consideration whether the operative be single or married. If the latter, there are many nossibilities of obtaining food at more nuclerate prices, especially if living in the center

possibilities of obtaining food at more moderate prices, especially if living in the center of Paris. The central markets offer, between four and eight o'clock in the morning, all kinds of food sold first hand. With a little advance, or by clubbing together, a basket of fruit or a quantity of vegetables may be bought at a tenth of the price asked for the same articles a few hours later. The poorer classes of workmen purchase the broken victuals from restaurants and large private houses. If the workman be married, his food is usually prepared at home, and even if working a few miles off, h : carries with him his breakfast in a tin box which can stand the heat, and which he will perhaps warm when he takes his wine. If single, he will repair to some "marchand de vin," or some cooking establishment, where regular workmen's meals are prepared whenever any number are laboring in the neighborhood. The pork-butcher's shop is likewise a favorite resort, from whence, after buying cooked meat, sausages, black puddings, sardines in oil, or hard eggs and bread, they proceed to the "marchand de vin" to complete their breakfast. The single man will dine as he has breakfasted, while the marchand man returns to dinner to exclude the coordinate to the vinue. while the married man returns to dinner at 7 or 8 o'clock, according to the nature of his labor or to the distance.

The Parisian workman is highly imbued with professional pride. One constantly sees workmen refusing better-paid work, and preferring to it a less remunerative one in which they excel. Great emulation is to be found among them in this respect. Unfortunately, it is confined to the quality, and not to the quantity; highly honorable and praiseworthy, no doubt, but neither lucrative nor practical, and assuredly inverting the general order of things. Masters eagerly seek out exceptionally clever workmen. Some of them earn as much as \$5 a day, but success, self-love, estentation, and the tastes and vices inherent in the Parisian character, often reduce these very clever artificers to positions less fortunate than those of their humble brethren, earning only 20 cents or \$1 per day. * * * Rooms in the old houses, many not very healthily situated, are to be had for moderate rents; dwellings containing two or three moderately-sized rooms varying from \$26 to \$28, \$30, and \$40 a year, exclusive of taxes. Single rooms are comparatively dear; one room, without proper ventilation or light, emphatically called un trou, (a den,) will cost \$12.

DAILY WAGES IN NANTES.

Occupation.	French cur- rency.	U. S. gold.
Sugar-refiners Cotton-spinners Wool-spinners Woevers Mechanics Workmen in porcelain and china Smiths, strikers, and riveters. Ship-carpenters, sail-makers, riggers, and calkers. Joiners Carpenters Rope-makers Coopers House-painters Masons A Plumbers and glaziers Laborers Scavengers and street-sweepers Agricultural laborers, with food Female workers in the field, with food	2 50 to 3 00 3 00 to 4 00 2 50 to 3 50 4 00 to 6 00 10 00 to 15 00 4 00 to 6 00 5 00 to 6 00 2 50 to 3 50 4 00 to 5 00 2 25 to 3 50 4 00 to 5 00 2 25 to 3 00 4 00 to 5 3 50 to 4 00 4 00 to 5 2 50 to 3 50 2 25 to 3 00 4 00 to 5 2 50 to 5 3 50 to 5 5 00 to 5 00 5 00 to 5 5 00 to 5 00	\$0 40 to \$0 60 0 50 to 0 60 0 50 to 0 70 0 80 to 1 20 2 00 to 3 00 0 80 to 1 20 1 00 to 1 20 0 50 to 0 0 0 80 to 1 00 0 50 to 1 00 0 45 to 0 60 0 80 to 2 00 0 80 to 0 80 0 50 0 50 0 45 to 0 50 0 50 0 50 0 0 80

In short, men's wages in town rarely descend below 45 cents; some earn, as may be seen, 80 cents, \$1, and \$1.20, according to their abilities; the latter price is the general pay of foremen. Here, as in Paris, exceptionally clever workmen receive pay beyond the general tariff; those on piece-work may earn \$2 to \$3, nay, even \$4 per diem in some branches. These, however, are rare exceptions.

The general price paid to workwomen is 15 cents and food, whether for dressmaking, plain work, mending, or ironing. In the manufactories they get 25 cents, without food; many prefer it, nevertheless; they find there cheerfulness, company, (seldom good, it is to be feared,) and regular work. The length of their day's work is from 8 a.m. to 8 p. m.; subtracting two hours for meals, it leaves ten hours labor; and so a woman, who has employed three years of her existence in acquiring a certain dexterity, ends by earning 11 cents an hour to the end of her existence.

NICE.

At Nice, a good carpenter, working by the day, or at piece-work, will earn on an average about 65 cents, the tools which he uses being found by the master-carpenter; as a general rule the workman is idle during four months of the year, including Sundays and holidays, so that the annual produce of his work will thus be about \$160. If he is unmarried he can make that sum suffice for his wants, but if married and with a family, this result seems very doubtful.

There are one hundred and twenty master-carpenters, who each employ two or three hands; but who, at times, having no work, can scarcely provide for their own wants. There are about forty masters, who may be said to employ a certain number of hands during six or eight months of the year.

Let us take the case of a workshop of the former category, and suppose that the

workshop contains three benches, each one of which, with its tools, is worth about \$20: other tools, such as presses, screws, ogive planes, saws, &c., in common to the whole workshop, are worth about \$50; in all \$110. This capital, which is absolutely necessary, can only be obtained by one workman in four hundred, by seven or eight years of labor and economy.

Let us now consider his expenses:

mee as new constant and empended.		
Rent of workshop	\$60	00
Insurance, (obligatory)	· 1	50
Rent of lodging	40	
Setting, &c., and replacing tools	30	00
Glue, light, and incidental expenses	8	00
Patent or permit, (obligatory)	15	00
Interest on capital, and on, say, \$50 worth of wood, &c., in store	2	50
•		
	157	00

These amounts are given with the strictest care, as they are the result of inquiries

made from a large number of masters of this class.

Now, as to the produce. Let us take one of this class of masters in the most favorable circumstances, and suppose that he employs three workmen during six months of the year, and that he gains on the daily wages of each one 15 cents, (and this is a very favorable view of the case,) this will give him about \$82.50.

As he is obliged to devote much of his own time for work in obtaining orders, drawing plans on the wood, directing and overlooking his men, putting up his work when finished, buying wood, and getting in his bills, &c., he cannot work regularly at his own bench, so that his own actual work will scarcely be worth to him 48 cents a day

for 185 days, say \$90.

To go further and suppose that he is fortunate enough to have sufficient work to enable him to employ one man during two of the summer months, on whose labors he will gain about \$8.50, and if during that time he himself may be able to do work worth \$60; add to this a profit of \$60, which he may be supposed to gain on the wood used by him and his workmen during 600 days, assuming that to be 10 cents per day; this, with \$18 profit on the wood used during the summer, will give him a total gain of **\$**319.

From this is to be deducted the expense of his workshop, as stated before, \$157; the remainder is the profit that a master-carpenter of this class may count upon earning in favorable years at Nice, \$162; as nearly as possible what one of his workmen will

gain in the same time.

The average annual gain of one of the forty master-carpenters employing a large number of workmen may be from \$200 to \$400. This result is little calculated to induce

English artisans of this class to establish themselves in this district.

It must be said, however, that the amount of work effected here by one man is certainly not two-thirds of that done by an average English workman in one day. The work itself, with rare exceptions, performed by all classes, is ill-conditioned and slovenly, and would not pass inspection in England. Little or no pride is taken by the artisan in his work, and I doubt if any workman in the district would be influenced by a sense of honor to produce work of a high standard; neither do masters care to pay at a higher rate for work of a higher class, that produced being sufficiently good for the wants and for the knowledge of the employers, householders, and proprietors of the district.

As has already been said, the daily wages of the artisan are low; but, as the amount of work he performs in a day is small, and much less than an English workman would accomplish, the final cost of the material on which his labor has been expended is really as dear as in England.

Hours of labor are from or soon after suprise to sunset, with one hour for breakfast

at ten and two hours for dinner at one o clock.

Purchase-power of money.

Wheelwright Baker Butcher PROVISIONS. Beef. per pound. Mutton per pound Pork per pound Bread per kilogramme.	Fr. C. 4 00 3 25 3 25 4 00 2 09 1 50 6 to 8 3 25 3 20	65 65 80 40 30 1 00 to 1 60 65
Mason. Carpenter Blacksmith Laborer. Porter Cabinet-maker. Wheelwright Baker Butcher PROVISIONS. Beef. per pound Mutton per pound Pork per pound Bread per kilogramme	3 25 3 25 4 00 2 09 1 50 5 to 8 3 25 3 00	\$0 80 65 65 80 40 30 1 00 to 1 60 65
Mason. Carpenter Blacksmith Laborer. Porter Cabinet-maker. Wheelwright Baker Butcher PROVISIONS. Beef. per pound Mutton per pound Pork per pound Bread per kilogramme	3 25 3 25 4 00 2 09 1 50 5 to 8 3 25 3 00	65 65 80 40 30 1 00 to 1 60 65
Carpenter Blacksmith Laborer Porter Cabinet-maker Wheelwright Baker Butcher PROVISIONS. Beef. per pound Mutton per pound Pork per pound Bread per kilogramme	4 00 2 09 1 50 5 to 8 3 25 3 00	65 80 40 30 1 00 to 1 60 65
Blacksmith Laborer Porter Cabinet-maker Wheelwright Baker Butcher PROVISIONS. Beef. per pound Mutton per pound Pork per pound Bread per kilogramme	2 09 1 50 5 to 8 3 25 3 00	40 30 1 00 to 1 60 65
Porter	1 50 5 to 8 3 25 3 00	30 1 00 to 1 60 65
Cabinet-maker	3 25 3 00	1 00 to 1 60 65
Wheelwright Baker Butcher PROVISIONS. Beef. per pound. Mutton per pound Pork per pound Bread per kilogramme.	3 25 3 00	65
Baker	3 00	
PROVISIONS. PROVISIONS. Per pound. Per pound. Per pound. Per pound. Per pound. Per pound. Per pound. Per pound. Per pound. Per kilogramme. Per kilogramme.		60
Beef. per pound. Mutton per pound. Pork per pound. Bread per kilogramme.		
Beef	3 00	60
Mutton per pound. Pork per pound. Bread per kilogramme.	İ	
Mutton per pound. Pork per pound. Bread per kilogramme.	. 1	
Pork per pound	1 00	20
Bread per kilogramme.	0 90	18
	1 00	20
	0 45	09
Sugarper pound.	1 00	20
Potatoesper pound.	0 15	03
Coffeeper pound.	1 80	36
Tesper pound. Wineper quart.	6 00	1 20 08

WAGES AND PRICES IN PARIS.

The foregoing extracts from the diplomatic and consular reports to the British government during 1871, and the first quarter of 1872, furnish as accurate information in regard to wages and prices of provisions as could then be easily obtained. Through the kind offices of General John Meredith Read, then consul-general at Paris, (now our minister to Greece,) an article was prepared for this work by Professor George Renaud, a member of the Institute of France, on prices and wages in Paris, (Prix et salaires à Paris, in 1870 et 1872,) a translation of which is here presented:

I.—EXPENSES OF A WORKING-MAN'S FAMILY.

The average number of persons composing a household in Paris, since the census of 1872, is represented by the co-efficient 2.63; * but the unmarried represent each a distinct household, and this explains why it is that in 682,110 households there are only

379,317 comprehending both husband and wife.

There exist also 150,435 widowers or widows; there are therefore 152,358 celibate households. The normal population of Paris of 1,799,250 inhabitants, diminished by these 152,358 celibates, is consequently comprised in 529,752 households consisting of husband and wife, and widowers and widows, which gives as the average of persons of which each of these households is composed the number of 3.11. One can easily estimate at 4 the number of persons in each household when both parents are living. But this average is calculated upon the total number of the middle and working classes, and it is a notable fact that these classes generally have the most children. It may consequently be affirmed without exaggeration that a working family in Paris comprises five persons. How do these five persons live? The husband and wife work; sometimes the children also; the appellation "child" is applied to all individuals under fifteen years of age, but in Paris this last fact is exceptional. As a general rule the child goes to school or is apprenticed to a trade. Moreover, the average income of the workman, taking into account the taxes on income, and the frequency of these taxes, was

^{*}This co-efficient has been obtained by dividing the normal or municipal population, 1,799,250, by the number of households, leaving out the garrisons, inmates of prisons, &c.

but about 4 francs 19 centimes (84 cents) in 1860; that of his wife 2 francs 2 centimes (40½ cents.) The woman does not live upon the earnings of factory work alone, often having also to work as housekeeper. She earns ordinarily 3½ cents per hour; thus

making every day of six hours about 21 cents.

Account must be taken of idle time, which so much reduces the wages of operatives, but has no influence upon that of the housekeeper. Consequently it follows that there must be a deduction made for fifty-two Sundays, and very often Mondays also; but let us not overlook this abnormal respite. The interruption of Sunday leaves to the man only 712 cents (3.59 francs) perday for food, and to the woman 34.5 (1.73 francs.) There is, moreover, a respite, owing to the regular suspension of work. It lasts generally a quarter of a year, and affects only a third part of the industries. Thus the general average of wages is not reduced beyond one-twelfth, which leaves to a man for his expenses of living but 652 cents (3.29 francs) per day, and for a woman only 312 cents, (1.59 francs.) Moreover, it may be stated that these figures almost sin by excess. They go back to 1860. In 1870 all wages experienced an increase of above one-tenth. Unfortunately, the events of 1870–71 threw a general perturbation into business. There have been terrible stoppages, which are far from diminishing, notwithstanding the resumption of business; consequently, though workmen are scarce, the population of Paris has remained, within about 5,000 inhabitants, the same as in 1866, the city having lost by the insurrection more than 30,000 workmen, exclusive of 30,000 Germans expelled. Wages, too, have a tendency to remain what they were in 1870. They have not risen, on account of the necessity to which the workman found himself subjected to work in order to overcome the loss experienced during the siege and insurrection.

We estimate, then, the average earnings of a working-man at present at 654 cents, plus $\frac{1}{10}$, equal to 72 cents; and that of a woman at 35. The home workman, whose children do not earn any wages, must live on 72 cents, (3.62 francs,) plus 35 cents (1.75 francs,) equal to \$1.07 $\frac{1}{10}$ (5.37 francs) per day, or \$392.44 (1,962.73 francs) per

year.

In what manner was this sum of 5 francs 37 centimes (\$1.07 $\frac{1}{10}$) expended in August, 1872 ?

The following table gives the reply:

5 5 10	Per day.	Per year.
6 pounds of bread, at	Cents. 25 to	8 93 44
1 pound meat, fish, eggs, &c	. 12 TO	43 50
Fat substance for seasoning	. 12	11 94
Lard, about 1 pint.		8 76
Milk, per litre, (nearly a quart)	- 2 1 6	21 90
Change I nound	. 9	21 90 18 2
Cheese, ‡ pound	. 5	
Sugar	. 1 ₇ %	5 84
Coffee, 1 ounce		10 95
Salt		2 19
Pepper		73
Vinegar		73
Soap, 5 pounds per month		4 38
Potatoes, 1 litre per day		10 95
Lentils, white haricots, 1 kilogramme per day		365
Green vegetables	. 2	7 30
Fruits	- 16	2 19
Fuel	. 2	7 30
Lights	10	2 92
Wine, 1 litre	. 10	36 50
Brandy, 1 small glass every morning	. 2	7 30
Tobacco	. 3	10 9 5
Rent, 2 rooms		32 90
Instruction, education *		
Linen clothing		29 20

Direct tax: (the city of Paris receives the taxes on apartments renting at less than 400 francs, \$80.)

Medical assistance is furnished him gratuitously by the administration of public assistance.

Occasion is taken to keep an account of expenditures in taverns, which are made chiefly every Sunday and Monday, and which are at least 40 cents per week on an average.

Among the registered workmen this sum may represent the average of earnings realized and placed in savings bank say, per day, 26 centimes $(5_{70}^{+}$ cents;) per year, 96.70 francs, (\$19.34.) Total, francs, 1,962.10 (\$292.42.) Many modifications may have to be

^{*} The primary schools in Paris are free, and regarding religious culture, the Parisian workman is too indifferent to impose charges of this nature upon himself.

made in the proportion of these different expenditures; here are given only the approximate averages, but approaching truth, we believe as nearly as it is possible to expect.

The condition of the Parisian workman, though poor on the whole, is still superior to that of a working-man in the departments, or in the country, in regard to morality as well as to instruction. The industries of art aid much in this amelioration of his condition. Paris produces chiefly for exportation, and it is the superiority of taste manifested in the work which secures a regular market for his products. They are sold to foreign countries at a good price, though scarcely remunerative for workmen even of the best. There is still much to be accomplished, for 60,000 workmen earn less than 3 francs each per day; and the wages of women are lamentably small.

II.-PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, CLOTHING, ETC. ,

It is difficult to compare the prices of the various articles of merchandise before and after the events which so cruelly afflicted the French capital in 1870 and 1871. The greater portion of these prices have not been inserted in public papers or documents of any kind; we have had to depend on the memory of the parties, that is to say the information in question has but a strictly relative value, though it has been collected with the most scrupulous care and attention.

The following prices of various articles of merchandise were obtained either from merchants themselves or from the weekly mercuriales (assembly of French parliament held weekly, after vacation,) in regard to provisions exposed for sale in the market:

	In 1870, before the war.	In August 1872.
Bread, per kilogramme, (2\frac{1}{2}) pounds)	\$ 0 10	*\$ 0 09
		13 10
wheat-flour, superior, per 157 kilogrammes, (346 pounds)	11 66	13 40
Wheat-flour, best, per 157 kilogrammes, (346 pounds)	11 99	13 90
Rye, in the grain, per 115 kilogrammes, (253 pounds)	4 32	3 57
Barley, in the grain, per 100 kilogrammes, (220 pounds)	3 70	3 00
Oxen, on the hoof, per kilogramme	281	32
Cows, on the hoof, per kilogramme	26	30
Cows, on the hoof, per kilogramme	30	34
Mutton, on the hoof, per kilogramme	294	36
Pork, on the hoof, per kilogramme		32
Beef, hind quarter, per kilogramme		t394
Beef, fore quarter, per kilogramme		28
Beef, loin, per kilogramme.		381
Beef, neck, per kilogramme	154	14
Veal, first quality, per kilogramme	364	36
Veal, second quality, per kilogramme		301
Veal, third quality, per kilogramme	301	25 1
Mutton, first quality, per kilogramme		344
Mutton, second quality, per kilogramme	. 271	31
Mutton, third quality, per kilogramme		28
Leg of mutton, per kilogramme.		41
Pork, entire or half, per kilogramme		294
Pork, in quarter, per kilogramme	••••	31
Pork, salt, per kilogramme		214
Lard, per kilogramme.	• • • • • • • • • •	36
Codfish, dry, per kilogramme		26
Mackerel, fresh, (each)		11
Butter, per kilogramme		662
Cheese, per kilogramme		40
Rice, (East Indies) per 100 kilogrammes, (220 pounds)	8 70	7 45
Rice, (Piedmont) per 100 kilogramme, (220 pounds)	9 75	10 50
Rice, (of Java) per 100 kilogrammes, (220 pounds)		16 00
Beans, per litre	. 10	. 8
Milk, per litre		6
Eggs, per dozen	. 19	22
Groceries:		
Tea price extremely variable, according to quality, per poun	d, from \$0 7 8	3 to \$0 80
Coffee, roasted, per kilogramme	80	88
Sugar, white, per kilogramme	26	36

^{*} This low price is due to the promise of a rich crop in 1872, which promise has been realized.
† The rise in price indicates that France, consequent upon the war requisitions and ravages by the cattle pest, had lost over a million of cattle in one year.



Sugar, cane or moist, per kilogramme	from \$0	. 22	to	\$0.	24
Molasses, per kilogramme		14		•	14
Soap, common		14			18
Starch		321			32
Sirup, first-class, white, crystal, 100 kilogrammes		_		15	20
Sirup, thick, 40 degrees, 100 kilogrammes				11	10
Sirup, liquid, 33 degrees, 100 kilogrammes				9	30
Coal, semi-size, ton				8	75
Coal, small-size, ton		00		7	80
Coal, quite fresh, ton		50		4	90
Wood, hard, oak, &c				39	00
Wood, pine				18	50
Burning-fluid, per kilogramme		26			30
Petroleum, litre		13			16

Since August, 1872, the price of bread in Paris has fallen. In March, 1873, it was for 2 kilogrammes 80 centimes, (15.6 cents, gold, United States.) The price of 85 centimes (16.57 cents, gold, United States) is still paid in many quarters. In bread-markete and depots bread can be purchased for 15 cents, which, without being of first quality, is equally nourishing. At this price the working-classes, if they had regular work, would not suffer; but it is the absence or insufficiency of work that produces suffering, the progress of which becomes every day more perceptible. Add to this the inordinate rise in the price of meat, and you have an idea of the cruel privations which weigh upon a portion of the population. The consumption of meat has suffered a reduction during this winter, which proves more than any reasoning the constraint of the population. In consulting the tables of the imports into the market of La Violette we find that the average number of sheep offered for sale, which varied from 15,000 to 17,000, has fallen to 10,000 or 11,000. The number of calves has diminished by half. Oxen and cows show a reduction of one-third. Pigs alone show no noticeable difference, but they have

reached prices no longer accessible to small purses. It would be difficult to draw scientific conclusions from these data. These figures have been collected after a certain joint course, during the two years 1871 and 1872. They are not rigorously-calculated averages, but only simple indications to serve as a basis for much larger and more probable estimates. But certain anomalies are observed therein, rare indeed, but which may be due to accidental and isolated influences, having acted upon the markets, which have been here selected at hazard without any possibility of tracing back to the perturbating cause. This is notably observed as regards calves of a much higher price in 1870 than in 1872, as the increase during the first of these two years had reached to one of the most serious crises. It should be noted that outside of merchandise which has a regular course at the market, (halle,) the prices of alimentary articles are not absolutely the same in all quarters of Paris. Following the general economic law the most populous quarters are always best provisioned, and consequently the cheapest place for provisions; such are the quarter of the Temple, St. Denis street, the markets, &c. The peddlers prefer to go to these quarters, assured that there they will dispose of their merchandise. The shop-keepers always sell a little higher, when the competing peddler does not oblige them to lower their prices. Still, the prices of shop-keepers in populous quarters are less than those in the old communes, annexed to the capital in 1860, such as Batignolles, Montmartre, &c., and especially at those of the elegant and rich quarters, but with extremely scattered population, such as Passy, Cheteil, les Champs Elysees, &c., the difference is about one-tenth. It is much the same as regards vegetables. On the whole, the price of living has increased since the war, while wages have remained stationary, in consequence of the too long idle time imposed on workmen by the circumstances, and by the loss of a certain number of markets taken away from the Parisian industry by the enemy. The opening of new centers of sale on the one part, the activity of French agriculture on the other, the perfection of industry on the third; finally, the increase in wages, brought about by the increase of production, will not delay the disappearance of this

temporary perturbation.

As regards the price of clothing, this has been modified but little. The stock has long ago been re-supplied, and even the activity of the factories tends more to produce lower prices than higher. The following are the prices of some goods in common use:

	U. S. gold.
Linen, unbleached, for shirts, good quality, 1 franc 10 centimes per metre, per	
yard	
Linen, white, 1 franc 75 centimes	35
Linen, unbleached, bedding, 1 franc 90 centimes	38
Linen, white, bedding, 4 francs 25 centimes	45
Flannel, cotton, medium, 1 franc 20 centimes	24
Linen for mattresses, good quality, 1 franc 80 centimes	36
Calico, 1 franc 10 centimes.	22

	U. S. Go	ıld.
Muslin de laine, 1 franc 45 centimes	\$ 0	29
Satinet, (nidienne,) medium quality, 1 franc 20 centimes		
Large boots, 15 francs to 18 francs per pair	\$3 to 3	60
Robes, called fatigue robes, tissue of wool, 61 centimetres wide, 1 franc 45	•	
centimes per metre, per yard		29
Scotch cassimere, in all the new colors, 1 franc 65 centimes		33
Scotch cassimere, of 62 centimetres, 1 franc 95 centimes to 2 francs 25 centimes,		44
Poplins, taffetas, striped, 1 franc 40 centimes		28
Mohairs, blue or rose, 1 franc 25 centimes		25
Foulard, 1 franc 40 centimes		28
Grenadines, black, 1 franc 75 centimes		35
Grenadines, striped, 3 france 60 centimes		72

The workman has great facilities for clothing himself in Paris. The extraordinary improvements that have been made in the manufacture and organization of Paris manufacturers has greatly cheapened the work. If they could improve the quality while keeping the low price they would do all that should be expected. Since the factories of Vienna and Carcassonne produce cloths at the low prices of 2,3, and 4 frances per metre, the Paris clothiers furnish to the workman a complete suit, (pantaloons, waistcoat, and frock-coat,) for 39, 41, and 45 francs, (\$7.80, \$8.20, and \$9.)

III.—RENT OF DWELLINGS.

The price of rent varies according to the quarters, the situation of dwellings, the elevation of rooms, their interior arrangements, whether they front on a street or a boulevard, toward a garden or an interior court-yard. The price for single rooms is very high. Thus, for example, in the center of Paris, Canmartin street, near the station of Saint Lazare and the Madelaine, one room, on the seventh story, quite small, pays 220 francs. At Batignolles one only rents for 80 to 100 francs. In workmen's quarters, like the quarter Saint Anthony, the place du Frône Menimoulart, Belleville, Grenelle, the competition of renters, also the risk of non-payment, very frequent in these places, cause the rents to advance. These little lodgings are often the only revenue of houses, of which they form a part. The proprietor is sometimes obliged to put the tenant out of the house by force, or be deprived of all profits from his property. He loses every year a certain number of payments. To make up for these losses he raises by so much, the price demanded from his tenants. Often, through revenge on the part of renters thus expelled, he is menaced, and even maltreated. These are facts common to all large cities, and all working populations in France, England, and Ireland, America, and Prussia. The same facts are found also to exist, more forcibly perhaps, in London, Liverpool, Dublin, New York, and Berlin. Be it as it may, all these risks increase the price, and raise so much more the taxes of small renters. One single room is rented in these quarters for \$20, \$24, and even \$28; for example, in the neighborhood of the City-hall, or on St. Antoine street, two connected example, in the heighborhood of the Chyshall, of the States, we contend the season of the Madelsine or the great boulevards. If there is added a vestibule, an ante-room, a cooler, giving some variety to the two apartments, it costs \$120 and \$140 on the boulevard Saint Michael near the Luxemburg, on the boulevard Sebastopol, Rivoli street, or in the neighborhood of the Madelaine; a similar one pays \$60 and \$70 at Batignolles or Passy.

Suites of three rooms are likewise extremely dear; less in old houses, badly managed, than in new ones, generally better arranged; the former suiting the small purses of the middle classes, but these are the most numerous, and the demolitions in Paris have greatly reduced the number of small tenements. The raising of prices is attended with unlimited speculations, which have beyond measure pushed forward the works of Paris to so great an extent during the last years of the empire. The large apartments, too numerous and too finely furnished, created with a view to attract the stranger to Paris, and to encourage the development of luxury, excluding therefrom systematically the industrial classes, very well conducted and very skillfully decorated, rise now to \$800, \$1,000, \$1,200 and \$1,400, in the sixth story, for example in the Champs Elysees, on the Boulevard Malesherbes, in the street Lafayette. On the second story certain of these apartments in Rivoli street, on the boulevard Montmartre, rent for \$2,000, \$3,000, and \$4,000. The metre of ground has sold as high as \$500; this undoubtedly is not as high as at Liverpool, where one metre of land reaches as high as \$1,200, but still it is considerable for Paris, which does, relatively, much less business than

One very curious economical fact is that of the prodigious increase in the value of landed property in Paris within a few years; the 7,502 hectares of surface of the capital, equivalent in value as well as in revenue to one-tenth of the total surface of the country. The revenue of the ground of Paris is nearly twenty times the revenue of land elsewhere, namely, \$53,868,000; the average tax is 61 per cent., which gives an aggregate value of the real estate of Paris of 4 milliards 144 millions of francs, \$628,800,000.

As regards the gross revenue from houses, according to information collected in 1968 in 374 public sales, it varies, by one-seventh between 4 and 6 per cent., more than half of them between 6 and 8 per cent.; finally as to one-third between 9 and 10 per eent., many as to their between 0 and 5 per cent., many as to the revenue of houses in the neighboring arrondissements is generally much higher than that of houses in old Paris, because the proprietor exonerates himself as much as he can from the expenses for the preservation of health and the security of his tenants. As regards the net revenue, it amounts to of health and the security of his tenants. As regards whe net revenue, is amounts to about one-tenth of the value. To judge of it by the results of sales during the last months of 1871, it appears that the value of houses has not been sensibly affected by the war and the insurrection. Nevertheless, in regard to the renters, a perceptible decrease has taken place; this is easily understood. Before 1870 there were 19,000 vacant lodgings, while in August, 1871, the number of vacancies amounted to 54,500 on a total of 650,631 apartments. The price of building-ground in the interior of Paris has likewise Speculation had caused it to rise beyond all measure. Thus it has been seen in 1869, when the metre of ground rose to \$294 at the corner of Rambuleau and Pierre Lescot streets; to \$260 on the Theatre-Français place; to \$360 between Voisine and the Fourth of September street; finally to \$500 on the new Opera Place.

From 1825 to 1870 the price of ground has risen on Saint Lazare street from \$11.40 to \$140; on Saint George's street from \$15.80 to \$120; on La Ferenes-des-Yathumin from \$42 to \$230; on Albosy street from \$8.40 to \$78; on Pascal street from \$4.80 to \$15;

Quarter Francis I, from \$8 to \$50 per square metre.

But the situation seems to have changed in a notable manner. Mr. De Lubev. at the meeting of the Politico-Economical Society in July, 1872, mentioned the case of a building constructed in Paris before the war having cost, for ground and erection, \$70,000, which was placed under adjudication at the price of \$50,000, then at \$40,000 and \$30,000, without finding any bidders.

Regarding occupied lodgings, they yield a revenue of \$40,980,000 for 66,000 houses in Paris, an average of \$621 instead of \$470 in the year 1825.

This revenue is thus distributed: \$7,770,000 for 259,604 lodgings, at less than \$50: \$13.770,000 for 153,346 lodgings, at less than \$100; \$6,840,000 for 38,125 lodgings, at less than \$200; \$3,600,000 for 11,866 lodgings, at less than \$300; \$9,000,000 for 17,851

lodgings, of over \$300.

It has been attempted of late to remedy the high prices of lodgings by building houses especially for mechanics and small retail shop keepers. Up to the present time nothing has been so successful as the houses on Arras street, No. 3, by the society of masons and stone-cutters, for co-operative society l'epargne immobiliere, (real-estate savings society.) The ground contained a surface of 715 metres, of which 624 are built upon, and 91 are in litigation. The buildings are of two kinds—these intended for dwellings and stores and those designed for public meetings. The first contains on the ground floor five shops with floor-room 180 metres each; in the second story, two rooms to be divisible according to the needs of the shop-keeper or other occupant; in the third, fourth, and fifth together, 40 lodgings. All lodgings are remarkable for their excellent distribution, for their good arrangement, and for the comforts they unite.

The kitchen is no longer used, and has been replaced by a heating-stove put into the interior of the principal room. This apparatus will give as much heat as is needed in the room in which it is placed, and is so contrived that no culinary vapors are perceptible in the room. They allow the tenants to cook while going on with their own work, which, as the workers earn but little, is a great advantage.

In all these lodgings there are arrangements made for lighting and heating with gas. In all the stories there are city water, wash-tubs, and water-closet on the closed system. The bed-rooms are parquetted and ornamented with looking-glasses. These lodgments rent at \$20 to \$79.20, a really moderate price. Such advantages have been readily appreciated by the public; for 40 lodgings there were 10 renters before the work was completed.

The second building combines a large hall with 1,200 seats, and will accommodate 1,500 persons. It is well lighted and consequently meetings held in the day-time have no expense for light. The price of seats is much less than in other halls in Paris.

Besides this large hall there are in this same building small meeting-rooms which

can hold eighty persons at very moderate rents, also for the accommodation of the public whenever required. All these buildings are perfectly healthy, being of brick and iron, and very solid.

The real-estate savings society deserves commendation for carrying out this project, which, in addition to its philanthropic purposes, has achieved a remarkable finan-

In Paris a furnished room rents very high. Miserable chambers cost 400 and 420 francs. It is by no means a rare thing to have to pay \$10 or \$12 per month for one furnished room. The price of large apartments furnished in proportion very much

The events of 1870-71 have brought about a decline in rents, but only in high rents. Regarding the low rents, they have only had the effect to suspend the rise. The emi-

gration of strangers and even of provincials, frightened beyond measure by the excitement of the capital, has been considerable. The insurrection has depopulated a good part of the capital, has been considerable. The insurrection has depopulated a good part of the city, as much by the deaths in the civil war as by deportation and emigration of a large part of the inhabitants. Besides, the population of Paris, which, according to its normal rate of increase, would, from 1866 to 1872, have been augmented by about 200,000, has increased only about 5,000 or 6,000.

It is difficult to foresee how the crisis will end, which was caused by the non-occu-

pancy of large tenement-houses. Several building societies have already failed. The pancy of large tenement-houses. Several building societies have already failed. The grounds were bought at too high a price; the cost of the labor and material was very high. It is difficult, therefore, to lower the price. These apartments cannot be transformed into small lodgings. Tranquillity only can furnish a remedy, by encouraging the return of strangers and citizens from the departments to Paris. In the quarters of Passy and Anteuil, placed directly under the fire of the batteries during the second siege, the houses have been greatly damaged; quite a number of the tenants have abandoned them, and the proprietors sell them at prices exceptionally low. This, however, will last but a little while. Persons of the middle classes, working-people, widows, journalists, men of letters, as well as some capitalists, have a desire to enjoy the verdure and the pure air in the neighborhood of the woods of Boulogne. The construction of new railroads and tramways will hasten the repeopling of these quarters.

IV.—PRICE OF PROVISIONS.

I have already referred to the prices of various articles of food. The daily expense for food varies according to usage, habits, taste, and taking a basis of comparison, people practicing economy intelligently may supply themselves with sufficient for their daily wants at a cost of 40 cents, or even 35 cents, each. A woman, who, in her employment, expends less of muscular force, may sustain herself with an expenditure of 20 or 22 cents. Many expend less, but in such case no doubt the health is injured and the strength declines. This is how a large number of working-men live:

Two meals per day, at 11 and 6 o'clock. At 11 o'clock, or noon, an ordinary, some-

times meat, half ration, 6 cents; at 6 o'clock, soup, 4 cents, half a ration of meat, 6 cents, a dish of vegetables or a piece of cheese, 4 cents, a chop, 6 cents; besides the bread which a laborer carries ordinarily with him from reasons of economy, and of which he consumes about two pounds, say 9 cents. This gives for the day a sum of 35 cents. In a family the individual expense is notably reduced, thanks to the advantages of living in common, which diminishes proportionally the sum of general expense. Before the war, some boarding-houses were found that furnished passable fare for about 35 cents per day, in the quarter "des Ecules;" they had two meals: soup and a plate of meat de resistance, moreover a dessert and wine, in the morning; soup, two plates of mest, vegetables, a dessert and wine, for supper.

Now, since the war all prices have augmented at least one-fourth. There were also, before the siege, restaurants where one could dine at 16 cents, and breakfast for 14 cents. This was neither luxurious nor of superior quality, but one could feel satisfied. All these establishments have disappeared or have advanced their lowest prices

to 36 cents.

The bouillon establishment of Duval, which served portions of meat at 5 and 7 cents, has raised its price to 10, 12, and 15 cents. The price of fruits has likewise increased in these establishments, as well as that of wines; and most restaurants have followed

this example. It may be said that the price of restaurant living has risen one-fifth at least, since the late events which have deluged our country in blood.

For workwomen, the quantity of indispensable nourishment is less. They eat less bread and drink less wine than laborers do generally. They prepare at least one meal at their homes; they can also live at 22 cents, 20 cents, and even less. The woman herself plans, and, thanks to a spirit of economy truly admirable, almost miraculous, does most honor to the household affairs with very little. There is certainly in a majority of women more morality, resignation, courage, and less wants than in man. It would be desirable, however, that the limit of remuneration for women's work be extended, and the only way to do this is to give it a higher value by more instruction, greater skill, fewer hours of work in the day, and better pay for the work. Thus the wages will be raised and women will be enabled to procure for themselves the necesvery supplies of food for their sustenance and comfort. This is a question of life and death, and it is the key to the future of all that portion of the French people who constitute the bulk of the population of the large cities. GEORGE RENAUD.

SILK INDUSTRIES OF LYONS.

The following information in regard to the industries of Lyons was obtained for the author of this work and forwarded by the United States consul of that district.

The translation from the French and the valuable explanatory notes were supplied by a practical silk manufacturer, Mr. T. Nelson Dale, jr., of Paterson, New Jersey.

Answers to questions concerning the industries of Lyons (France) submitted to the "Conseil de Prudhommes" for the silk industry of Lyons, September, 1872.

& I. GREAT INDUSTRIES.

I. What are the great industries of the department?

The chief and by far the most important within the jurisdiction of the council is the

silk manufacture with its numerous auxiliaries.

This industry includes, aside from the raising of silk-worms, cocoon-winding, silkthrowing, branches which, with a few exceptions, are prosecuted within the Lyons district :

1st. The dveing of thrown and soun silk, worsted and cotton varns, the dveing and printing of piece-goods, designing and the engraving of rollers for the same.

2d. The weaving of plain and figured goods, taffetas, satins, velvets, foulards, "lam-

pas." materials for ecclesiastical and upholstery purposes.

3d. The making up; and winding of trams and organzines; warping, beaming, mounting, and starting of looms; the making of headles with or without mails; and the stamping of pattern cards.

4th. The shearing of velvets, watering, embossing, finishing, and sizing of piece-goods, and the cleansing of pieces soiled in process of manufacture.

And, finally, operations connected with weaving and embroidering in gold and the manufacture of trimmings, comprising the drawing of gold, silver, and brass into threads and strips; the covering of silk and cotton threads with strips of foil; ornamental trimming, embroidering, the manufacture of bindings, hat bands, chenille, goods with raveled edges and fringes, &c.

Tules; hosiery and gloves of silk, cotton, and worsted; plain and figured laces of silk and cotton; ** stocking-knitting and crochet-work.

The manufacture of felt, with plush, straw, and cloth hats.

II. What is the condition of the operatives in these industries?

There are two classes of weavers—master weavers, who own the machinery; and journeymen weavers, working under the former for half the price paid for the weaving. tt

The works !! generally contain from one to four looms-rarely more.

The gross earnings of the master vary from 4 to 6 france, (80 cents to \$1.20;) those of the journeymen, from 2 to 3 francs per day, (40 to 60 cents.)

All extra expenses are defrayed by the master.

Journeymen dyers work by the day or hour, according to the custom of the employer, ten hours constituting a working day.

Most of the men earn from 4 to 5 francs, (80 cents to \$1;) a few as much as 5.50,

(\$1.10,) per day.

In addition to the journeymen, laborers are used for work which does not require special skill. They work 11 hours, and earn from 3 to 4 francs, (60 to 80 cents,) aver-

aging 3.50, (70 cents.)

Some of the manipulations before and after the dyeing, such as the undoing and making up of silk, \$\\$ require female labor, which is paid at the rate of from 2.25 francs (45 cents) to 2.50 (50 cents) per day of 11 hours.

Overtime is paid 50 to 60 centimes (10 to 12 cents) per hour for men, and 30 (16

cents) for women and apprentices.

From these rates a deduction should be made for loss-time.

*"Council of selectmen for the silk industry;" a committee composed of both employers and operatives, for the amicable settlement of controversies, established by law in 1806, as a court of arbitration. I Rich silks with sating ground and large taffets figures in relief. The reverse of damask. I Rolling together a number of skeins into a hank, and then knotting it to prevent the silk from getting snarled. This is done both before and after dyeing.

§ Mounting: Passing the warp through reed and harness. Starting: Regulating the number of shots, of shuttle per inch of fabric, also the tension of warp, &c., to make the required quality of goods.

|| Some headles are made merely with a loop for the warp-threads, others are provided with small steel

|| Some headles are made merely with a loop for the warp-threads, others are provided with small secret branch rings.
|| The design is first made on paper, then the cards for the loom are stamped accordingly.
|** The silk belongs to the manufacturer. He sends it out from his office to the dyer, winder, weaver &c., and pays them per weight or length for their labor.
| It these "works" consist simply of a large room of sufficient size to accommodate the looms, and of a small adjoining bedroom and kitchen combined, for the weaver and his family.
| It take it there are no worsted tulies or laces, as the original seems to imply.
| Organisines and trams come from the spinner (throwster) done up in knotted rolls. The dyer has to undo these, straighten out the skeins, count them, and mark them with variously knotted strings, so as to distinguish the lots. After the dyeing, the silk is made up into rolls again.

The moral influence of loss-time is at least as bad as its material result.

Operatives without work live on credit at first, run in debt, become discouraged, are

reduced to poverty, and poverty is a bad adviser.

In Lyons, two-thirds of the hands employed in dyeing lose on an average 20 days a year, and the other third as much as 40 or 50 days.

Higher wages are paid for the weaving of silk trimmings than gold trimmings; but, owing to the little loss-time made in weaving the latter, the workmen of both trades earn the same in amount, an average of 3.25 francs (65 cents) per day.

The manufacture of trimmings by hand furnishes occupation to about 400 women

and 100 men, at the rate of 1.75 francs (35 cents) per day; but this kind of work is

gradually being replaced by loom-work.

In both of these industries the master weaver, who furnishes the looms, makes a net

profit of 1 franc (20 cents) a day per loom.

The earnings of the master metallic-thread makers* at piece-work cannot be readily estimated; workmen earn about 3.60 francs (72 cents) per day of 11 hours, and women 2.50 francs, (50 cents.)

In gold-thread drawing, men earn 3 francs, (60 cents,) and women 2.25, (45 cents.) Masters work under the same conditions as master metallic-thread makers: ten hours

constitute a working day.

Embroidering and fancy trimming are done almost exclusively by women; they earn on an average 1.75 francs (35 cents) per day.

Tulle-makers on piece-work receive 1; centimes per 100 threads, for plain goods

and at that rate earn, on an average, from 3 to 4 francs (60 to 80 cents) per day.

In the hat manufacture the operatives are generally on piece-work, and earn—men, 3.25 francs (65 cents,) women, 1.37 francs (28 cents) on an average, loss-time deducted.

III. Are there a great number of hands employed in these industries? Estimate the number of men, women, and children in each.

The number of men and women employed in weaving amount to about 115,000; 35,000 of whom live in Lyons and vicinity, and the remaining 80,000 inhabit the department of the Rhone and the neighboring departments of the Ain, the Isère, and the Loire, where there are large manufactures of woven goods, as well as many private looms, worked for manufacturers in Lyons.

This number (115,000) is composed of 56,350 men, equal to 49 per cent.: 50,635 women.

equal to 44 per cent.; 8,015 children, equal to 7 per cent.

There are two classes of dyers—color-dyers and black-dyers, numbering together from 3,500 to 4,000, proportioned as follows:

Men, 75 per cent.; apprentices, from 13 to 18 years of age, 10 per cent.; women, 15

The manufacture of gold and silk trimmings furnishes occupation to about 1,000 men and 500 women; metallic-thread making to only 100 men and 600 women; gold-thread drawing, to 150 men and 300 women; embroidery, to 200 women; fancy trimming, to 500 women.

There are about 4,000 persons engaged in the manufacture of tulles in Lyons and its

suburbs, viz: 2,500 men, (overseers included), 1,000 women, and 500 children.

The number is much larger in the places about Lyons where the tulle embroiderers (women) live.

There are two kinds of hat-makers:

1st. Fullers and finishers, (or cleaners?) numbering about 1,500 men.

2d. Those employed in trimming hats, in pulling out the coarse hairs from the fur, and in cutting the fur from the skin for making felt, numbering some 800 women.

The winding of thrown and spun silk, worsted and cotton, is done entirely by women operatives, apprentices, and overseers.

One winder should be reckoned for every five weavers, making 23,000 winders for the

115,000 weavers in Lyons.

The overseers (women) earn on an average from 3 to 4 francs per day.

Each "winding-shop" contains from one to four winding-frames, which are the property of the overseer alone. The hands are generally engaged by the year, at the

Tate of from 150 to 250 francs, board, washing, and lodging included.

Warping is done on the same plan. There are about 3,000 warpers, earning on an average from 4 to 5 francs per day. The hands are engaged on the same terms as the winders, with this exception, that they receive a bonus of 30 francs a year.

[&]quot;i.e., winding or coiling a narrow, thin strip of metal, gold, silver, or brass, spirally around a thread or number of threads of cotton or silk, so as entirely to cover up the cotton or silk. The metallice thread thus made is used in the manufacture of military trimmings, &c., &c.

^{† 100} threads one metre long, (39 inches.)

These frames are circular and rotary, operated by foot. The operative, remaining seated, causes the postion of the frame which carries the skeins to revolve past her, and regulates each skein in turn.

IV. What is the general character of the relations existing between employers and operative 1

In the weaving and in the talle industries instability is their principal feature. Employers and operatives are entirely independent of each other. They make and close engagements with each other with the greatest facility.

The question of interest is the ruling one. The workman works for his employer,

and the employer pays him for it.

In this, as well as in the other industries within the jurisdiction of the council the

relations between employers and operatives are generally amicable.

Measures calculated to reconcile the different interests have been carried into effect by the efforts of the "council" during the last few years, and have produced the hap-

Among gold-weavers and trimming-makers, differences arising out of the question of salary have created a certain uneasiness in the relations of employer and operatives.

especially since 1869. Before that time the situation was more satisfactory.

V. Give an account of the institutions for the improvement of the condition of operatives.

Operative weavers have established, with the consent of the government, a jointstock company for the manufacture and sale of silk goods.

They have also formed a "protective and industrial society" for the purpose of reeisting a reduction of wages, and furnishing the members with information on all

matters related to their work.

There are a number of co-operative stores in different parts of the city for the sale of groceries at retail. Some of them have added to their business the sale of bread charcoal," and sausage-meats. It is desirable that these societies should grow, extend, and multiply themselves, so as to popularize, in their experimental stage, the various kinds of co-operative societies for purposes of production, credit, and consumption.

There is a loan board in Lyons established by government for the purpose of afford-

ing relief to master workmen in distress (for want of orders.)

Those provided with good recommendations can borrow a sum not exceeding 40 francs (\$6) for each of their looms for plain goods, and 50 francs (\$10) for each one for figured goods.

The rate of interest is 5 per cent. If the loan is not returned when due, the company is re-imbursed by a retention of wages to the extent of \(\frac{1}{4}\).

As regards the dyeing industry, some employers have endeavored to better the condition of the workmen by assisting them by means of voluntary contributions in becoming interested in the "mutual-aid societies" and "pension banks," or by giving them, in the way of a premium, a share in the profits of the establishment, or else by providing them with a physician in case of sickness.

The workmen have formed a "mutual society," which is at present in a flourishing condition. Employers are admitted as honorary members. A few journeymen dyes belong to the "mutual-loan societies" and "co-operative stores" of the place. In 1863 some journeymen dyers formed themselves into a "co-operative joint-stock company, with a variable amount of capital." Twenty men are employed in the works.

The dyers have also established a "protective and industrial society" to oppose a

reduction of wages and afford relief to the victims of accidents (members only) and to those who have been rejected by the mutual societies. Members pay 50 centimes (10 cents) a month.

Hatters have five "mutual-aid societies" in the department, including the women

hat-trimmers' society.

In the tulle and trimming industry there are no such organizations.

VI. Has there been an increase in wages in the department?

The question of wages is a vital one, especially in commerce and the more impertant manufactures. It is one of the most formidable problems of modern society. For exercial years wages have been gradually and regularly increasing with a corresponding increase in the prices of the various articles manufactured. Thus, the price of velvets has increased 50 to 60 per cent.; "patterns," figured and fancy goods, 30 to 40 per cent.; taffetas and plain goods, 15 to 20 per cent.; dyeing (during the last 2 years alone,) 10 to 12 per cent.

In the tulles manufacture, the rates of wages remain on an average nearly stationary, following the fluctuations of supply and demand. Men earn 4 francs, (60 cents,) and women 2.50 (50 cents,) and women embroiderers working at home in the country earn from 601 centimes (12 cents) to 1.50 francs (30 cents.)

In the hatters' trade there has been a reduction of 30 per cent. in all hand work for which machine work has been substituted. The price of "brushed hats, Flemish style,"; has increased 20 per cent.

In gold-weaving, &c., the rates have increased 20 per cent., and in the manufacture of trimmings, 17 per cent.

^{*} Charcoal is extensively used in France for cooking and heating purposes.
† Goods in which there is any variety in the play of the threads, (as serges.) simple designs, but not owers, figures, &c.
; Hats with a long silk plush. flowers, figures, &c.

VII. Has there been an increase in the cost of the necessaries of life!

Yes, to a remarkable extent. The price of articles of food has risen from 30 to 40 per cent. The price of meat, especially, has increased to such an extent during the last few years as to make the condition of the working classes worse and worse.

VIII. Under what conditions are agricultural and industrial pursuits combined?

The population of the Lyons district is engaged almost exclusively in manufactures; that of the neighboring departments is engaged in both agriculture and manufactures, pursuing them alternately, according to the season. Those who are thus employed are weavers, hatters, embroiderers, &c. Their lot is, in general, preferable to that of the city operatives, who receive higher wages, but whose expenses are greater and heavier, who are subject to more "loss-time," and whose occupation is more uncertain.

.IX. What is the state of education among the operatives? Do the children attend school?

After considering the material wasts of the workman, if you inquire into his real condition, it will have to be acknowledged with regret that not only is his education very limited, but in some cases entirely neglected. Parents pressed by straitened circumstances only send their children to school up to their twelfth year. The knowledge which they acquire there is very elementary and soon forgotten in the midst of surregulings so unfavorable to its retention and so much more unfavorable to its cultivation.

There are indications of progress in the education of the laboring-classes, but there is much wanting. The native Lyonness can generally read and write. Parents are usually willing to send their children to school, and the attendance is pretty regular; but the number of schools is far from sufficient in many districts of the city, and in some there are none at all. In the trimming industry operatives have about the amount of education necessary for their occupation, and their children generally attend achool.

X. Has any society been established within the department for the purpose of enabling workmen to become owners of real estate? What is the status of these societies—chartered or independent? What share have employers had in them? What have been the results? What is the number of the "mutual aid societies?"

There is no institution with such an object in view; but manufacturers cheerfully make advances toward the purchase of a loom to any one of their workmen whose work has won their approval. In this way workmen become master-weavers. The loan is refunded by retaining one-eighth of the wages. Ten per cent. of the present master-weavers began in this way.

The "mutual aid societies" are very numerous. They embrace nearly all the industries represented in the council. There are many societies of this kind, with a large number of participating and honorary members.* Especially worthy of mention is the great weavers' society of Lyons, under the patronage of the chamber of commerce. Its members number 5,000, viz, 1,600 men and 3,400 women. The former pay 2 francs (40 cents) a month; the latter 1.50, (30 cents.) In case of sickness, the society provides its members gratuitously with medicines, the attendance of its physician, and a subsidy of 2 francs (40 cents) and 1.50 francs (30 cents) per day for men and women respec-An additional charge of 6 centimes is made on every kilogramme of silk (a trifle over } cent a pound) weighed at the "public silk-conditioning office," t for the benefit of this society. The amount received annually from this source, 100,000 francs, (\$20,000,) is set aside for the purpose of duplicating the deposits of the members of the

society at the "pension bank." §

The trimming-makers have a "mutual aid society," to which nearly all the employers belong as honorary members.

vision.

† Some, if not all, of these societies defray also the funeral expenses of members.

† As stik absorbs moisture very readily, its weight varies according to the dampness of the atmosphere.

To secure dealers and buyers against losses arising from variations in the weather and from fraudulant moistening, public offices for ascertaining the amount of moisture in silk have been opened in all cities where silk is largely used for manufacturing purposes. A sample of each bale is carefully weighed, then perfectly dried in a heated metallic box and weighed again. 11 per cent is added to the weight dry, which is considered as representing the amount of moisture absorbed by silk from the atmosphere on an average day of the year. Silk can absorb as much as 33 per cent.

All raw silks pass through these offices. Duly registered and signed certificates of tests are furnished, not only of the amount of dampness, but also of that of gum and foreign substances in raw and thrown silks, and of the average size, strength, elasticity, and of the twist and general nature of silk abers, all of which may be of consequence to the manufacturer.

§ An institution under the control of a government commission, baving for its object the assurance or ammittee to the superannusted railroad companies, omnibus lincs, and other corporations, sometimes makes deposits in this bank for pensioning off its employés when they become too old to work. The aumber of policy-holders in 1858 was 10,331, of whom 3,692 were operatives.

^{*}In 1857 there were in France 3,860 of these societies, with a "participating" membership of 450,000. In 1860 the number of the societies had increased to 4,410. Some of them are under government super-

XI. Do joint-stock societies tend to supplant private manufacturing-enterprises?

By no means. Several unfortunate attempts have been made by workmen in that direction, but they seem to have abandoned the idea. There are no such efforts to report on the part of manufacturers.

XII. Are there any instances within the district of large manufacturing-enterprises being con ducted by a company or society of workmen?

There are none, except that of the weavers' society and that formed by a few journeymen dyers, which are still in operation.

6 II.-MINOR INDUSTRIES.

I. What are the minor industries of the department of any commercial importance?

In the silk manufacture the minor industries are pasteboard-box-making, making packing-cases, headle-making, twisting and drawing in, beaming, warping, reeding, pattern-card-stamping, the manufacture of Jacquard machines, shuttles, reeds, and other weavers' implements, and the construction of looms.

There are also minor industries connected with dyeing, as the dyeing and cleansing of piece-goods soiled in process of manufacture, (and garments.) A very moderate investment suffices for a small business which is sustained by local wants. does the work himself, and in busy times employs one or more assistants.

The laundry business should also be mentioned, which is moving from the city to the country. It is becoming quite extensive, and even sustains some large establishments.

II. Are the minor industries inclined to maintain or extend themselves, or become absorbed by the great ones?

III. If they are becoming absorbed, state the most apparent cause of it.

They are rather inclined to maintain themselves, because of the cheapness and simplicity of the necessary machinery and implements.

There is no danger of absorption, either at present or in the future.

IV. Are there any minor manufactures in the department carried on by a company or society of workmen?

None.

V. Has there been an increase in the rates of wages in these industries? Have the prices of the necessaries of life increased?

The same answers are given as to questions V and VI, under the head "Great industries."

The increase in wages is, on an average, only from 20 to 30 per cent.

LETTER FROM THE UNITED STATES CONSUL AT LYONS.

The following letter from the consul of the United States at Lyons gives some additional facts in regard to the cost and condition of labor in that seat of the silk industry:

UNITED STATES CONSULATE. Lyons, France, November 7, 1873.

DEAR SIR:

On the whole there is a very great difference in the nature of work and the mode of living of the workmen in this country and in the United States, and in my opinion it is almost impossible to judge of the relative agreeableness of the work and the wellbeing of the laborer by placing the kind of the former and the cost of the various articles of food, clothing, and of house-rent in the two countries into a comparative posi-

tion with the earnings in wages.

The labor market of the Lyons region is governed and absorbed to the greatest extent by the manufacture of silks. This complicated industry divides itself into a great number of separate manipulations, so much so that—a few cases excepted—the manufacturers cannot keep the progress of their work under their direct control. Their business consists principally in distributing the materials as they advance to the different degrees of perfection, among the various sections of their workmen. These take the materials to their homes, and there perform the task assigned to them. In this way it happens that a lot of silk, after being spun and dyed to be made into a piece of dress-goods, passes eight or nine times through the manufacturer's office before the piece arrives finally on his shelves, ready for sale.

^{*}Twisting and drawing in; i. s., attaching the threads of a new warp, one by one, to the thrums or ends of a warp which has just been woven out, and then drawing the new warp by means of the thrums through the harness and reed. In case the harness and reed are used for the first time, the threads have to be passed through both by means of hooks.

This mode of proceeding and the nature of the work admit the employment of all male and female members of a family above the age of twelve years. By thus accumulating the wages, a family earns sufficient to meet all its wants, and, besides, a surplus for times of sickness or want of employment, although the daily wages appear to be very moderate.

The earnings of an adult in the various kinds of labor connected with the silk industry are from 2 to 5 francs (40 cents to \$1) a day. A single person may have good board for \$1.75 to \$2 a week; lodging for 50 to 75 cents a week.

A family of two adults and one child of about fourteen years earns not less than \$10 a week; they may live comparatively well in expending from \$3 to \$4 in the same time, while they can reut an appartement, containing rooms for their utensils, (looms, &c.,) one or two bedrooms, and kitchen for from \$60 to \$80 a year, or about \$1.25 or \$1.50 a week.

The classes of people in question live principally on soup, cooked with vegetables, meat, bread, and light red wine; the latter article is used by everybody and by both sexes, and forms an essential portion of the daily food.

Coffee is comparatively neglected, and replaced by a thick and very substantial

Tea is used only in case of sickness. Of bread, only white (wheaten) bread, and of meat, fresh beef and mutton, have the preference; occasionally smoked ham and sausages come in by way of variation.

All French men, as well as women, are perfect cooks, and understand how to prepare with the above main ingredients most excellent and healthy dishes. The light red wine

taken with their meals costs from 24 to 40 cents a gallon.

The silk industry employs some 80,000, perhaps 100,000, looms, demanding with the auxiliary manipulations about 200,000 hands. All other labor is necessarily influenced by such an army as regards wages and conditions.

After these few remarks, respectfully made, and intended for the easier appreciation of the situation of the French laborer in and about Lyons, I have the honor to return the inclosed blanks, filled up as far as the case admits.

I am, sir, &c.,

P. J. OSTERHAUS.

Hon. EDWARD YOUNG.

Chief of Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.

WOMEN WORKERS IN PARIS.

The following extract shows the number of women employed in various branches of industry in Paris:

In Paris alone above 178,000 females earn their livelihood in some department of trade, 161,795 being bona-fide workwomen; and of these, half are engaged in trades having to do with dress, the grand total of 130,625 being divided among twenty-two naving to do with dress, the grand total of 130,025 being divided among twenty-two occupations in the accompanying proportions. Seamstresses number 51,169; bleachers, 20,896; shirt and linen makers, 20,579; artificial flower and feather makers, 7,432; milliners, 6,453; boot and shoe makers, 6,244; tailoresses, 4,619; hat and cap makers, 3,138; glove, breeches, and dress-makers, 2,479; embroiderers, (of women's attire,) 2,353; button-makers, 801; cane and umbrella makers, 529; comb, brush, and dressing-case makers, 525; dyers, 424; embroiderers in silver and gold, 463; perfumers, 392; straw-hat makers, 261; furriers, 250; stocking-makers, 138; barbers, hair-dressers, and wig-makers, 126; gaiter-makers, 110; calenderers, 87; wooden-shoe makers, 16. Under wig-makers, 126; gaiter-makers, 110; calenderers, 87; wooden-shoe makers, 16. Under the somewhat pretentious division of "Science, letters, and art," we find enumerated 2,554 book-binders; 779 employed in printing, engraving, and lithography; 380 in paper-making; 93 in the manufacture of musical instruments; 91 in making various necessities for the writing-table; 25 in type-founding; 73 engaged at theaters and concerts; 78 on newspapers and reviews, and 67 editors of books and music, (actresses, singers, and newspaper editresses are classified with the followers of liberal professions.) Among 7,788 ministers to luxury with the followers of liberal professions.) Among 7,788 ministers to luxury and amusement are 256 makers of toys and playing-cards; 261 producers of works of art; 5,666 workers in gilding, jewelry, and allied callings; and 1,443 women employed in tobacco-manufactories. Of 1,589 workwomen connected with the commissariat, 258 are engaged at restaurants, taverns, and such places of entertainment; and precisely the same number are set down as bakers. The preparation of ice, chocolate, and cream occupies 210, and 78 are employed by pastry-cooks. One only figures among the millers, two among sugar-refiners, and five among the brewers. Then there are 133 finding work as preserve-makers; 11 as potted-meat makers; and 17 in the concoction of preserved vegetables. The dairywomen number 13, the "roasters" 6, water-carriers 8, and the butchers—yes, the butchers—140; while 18 strong-minded dames earn their bread in the slaughter-houses. After that we are not surprised to learn Paris boasts 9 female boat-builders, and 245 "wheelwrights, carriage-makers, farriers, and saddlers." Military equipments afford employment to 291 females; 40 help to produce fire-arms

Digitized by GOOGLE

and ammunition, and 3 to make swords and bayonets. Eight thousand seven hundred and ninety-three workwomen are employed in the manufacture of textile fabrics, and 2,859 in the production of articles of furniture; 782 of these being catalogued as cabinet-makers, 1,123 as upholaterers, 758 as bedding-makers, and 39 as looking-glass makers. Connected with building, we are astonished to see 3 architects, 8 sawyers, 46 carpenters and joiners, 8 masons and slaters, 99 marble and stone cutters, 7 chimney-makers and sweeps, and 1 plumber; then come 75 paper-hangers, 89 painters, glasiers, plasterers, and decorators, and 10 ornamental-decorators. Ceraemie manufactories afford employment to 146 women, chemical works to 376, candle-factories to 53; 19 are engaged in the making of gas, 445 in various methods of manipulating leather, 299 is metal and hardware work, 225 in turning, box-making, and other trades coming under the heading of wood, and 37 are employed in the manufacture of cast iron, steel, copper, and other metals. With the exception of the milliners, who are boarded by their employers, and receive an annual salary, embroiderers appear to be the best paid, since they can depend upon earning from 14 to 17 shillings a week all the year round; while 2 shillings a day represents the income of the ordinary good workwomen in most other trades.

THE WORKING WOMEN OF FRANCE.

A series of articles under the above caption, translated from the French of M. Jules Simon, which recently appeared in the New York Evening Post, are of such interest that copious extracts are here presented:

ARTIFICIAL FLOWERS.

The best Parisian artificial flowers may well dispute the palm in point of freshness of appearance with those which bloom in gardens. The lovely women of both worlds buy at Paris the flowers with which they dress their hair. Italy formerly stood first in the manufacture of flowers, silks, and laces; subsequently Lyons was celebrated for its flowers. At present Paris stands pre-eminent. Nearly five thousand women are engaged in this branch of trade. The most skillful are artists who study natural flowers with real enthusiasm, and imitate them with greater fidelity than the best painters. Their receipts sometimes amount to three francs for a day's work of eleven hours. A fleuriste can live very comfortably, if she is not seized with a desire to deck her own person with the wreaths she makes and exhibit them at the Mabille.

CUTTERS OF PRECIOUS STONES.

Every one understands why Paris should be the center of flower-making, but by what strange and inexplicable anomaly has the cutting of precious stones been established on the summit of one of the Jura Mountains? Diamonds are cut at Amsterdam; but rubies, sapphires, aquamarines, amethysts, and opals are all cut and polished in the heart of the mountains. These rude children of the Jura remain faithful to the occupations and customs of their fathers, and all the riches which pass through their hands do not make their cottages appear colder or their bread harder. They have lately made some advances in analogous branches of trade. The women make false stones with a skill which is unequaled. They pierce rubies as pivots for watches, and even begin to make mosaics with stones sent from Florence. Their work-tables are placed near the windows of their cottages, and there father, mother, and children work all day, when household cares, preparation for meals, cutting wood in the mountains, or the sowing of some poor piece of ground does not call them away. The women who cut rubies often earn tolerably good wages, yet, notwithstanding this, wages of one franc fifty centimes (30 cents) are the exception. The average is seventy-five centimes, (15 cents.)

STRAW-HAT BRAIDERS.

Quite an important branch of trade, and one which has to do with the feminine toilet, is the manufacture of straw hats. Nancy is one of the great centers of this industry, and, if the merchants are to be believed, they export hats even to America. Most of the men's so-called straw hats are really made of the bark of the catanier, or Bourbon palm. The Nancy manufacturer buys the bark, has it dressed and torn into long strips with a sort of metal comb, and then sends it to be braided and made up. The maker is paid fifty centimes (10 cents) for a hat. It is necessary to work all day, and to be far more skillful than the generality of workwomen, in order to finish two. Panama hats, and those made of finely-sewn plaits, are made in France, the first from the leaves of the ypyppa, which come from Panama, and the second with plaits bought at Florence, and charged with an exorbitant duty. It is this duty, and, in a few instances, the fine quality of the raw material, which explains the enormous cost of some hats. A Panama hat which cost two thousand frances was on exhibition some years ago at a Paris store. The Nancy manufacturer had sold it for sixty francs, and he had probably paid three francs to the woman who braided it.

TOY-MAKERS.

Toy-making gives employment to a large number of poor women. There are some women whose work consists in pasting colored paper on myriads of tiny toys. A very few of the best workers earn excellent wages; the others vegetate during the good season, and are subjected to long periods of forced idleness. In November and December there are not enough women to dress the dolls and ornament the bonbons. Those who work have to sit up all night and strain every nerve. To this activity succeed, without the slightest transition, long months of forced idleness.

GLASS-CUTTING.

Glass-cutting comprises four different operations: smoothing down, which is done on an iron wheel, with pure, fine, damp sand; the first polish done on a fine wheel, the second polish done on a wooden wheel, with powdered pumice-stone, dampened, and the final polish done on a cork wheel, with dry powdered tin. If glass is to be engraved, recourse is had either to a diamond point, or to a process which is quite complicated, and consists in covering all the surface with a slight varnish of wax and turpentine, drawing the design on the wax and pouring fluor-hydric acid on the parts laid bare by the burin. The business of cutting is generally intrusted to women in the factories. They do it marvellously well, as it requires only patience and skill. Unfortunately, it is a very unhealthy trade, as the necessity of bending over the wheel and having their hands in water all day, exposes them to dangerous pulmonary affections.

Women are employed, in considerable number, at the cigar trade, at which they make very fair wages.

OTHER TRADES.

Women are to be found also in stone-cutters' shops. There are some among gilders, bronze-mounters, bronze-varnishers, pewterers, engravers, manufacturers of polished-metal plates, jewelers, gold-beaters, &c. Most of the women employed in these trades are burnishers, polishers, and borers. It is not at all fatiguing work, and pays well. A skilled workwoman can earn four francs a day and more. Her wages depend on the rapidity with which she works. Many of the women do not earn more than one franc; they then become discouraged and seek some other trade. The borers put the finishing touches on carvings of copper, bronze, and even more precious metals. Fewer ornaments of bronze and copper are now made than in the early part of this century, and for three months of every year the borers work only two days in the week. Women are very successful in boring. The work, which requires assiduity, precision, and a light, skillful hand, seems to be made expressly for them. The few women who have devoted themselves to wood engraving easily earn five francs a day. In 1860, a course of instruction in this art was opened at the School of Design, and the experiment wrought excellent results.

The want of a good education or apprenticeship reduces a great number of women and young girls to trades which scarcely suffice to support them, such as basket-making, esparto work, straw-mat, broom, and feather-duster making, and stuffing chairs. The poor women who make wreaths of immortelles and shavings of ox-horns earn barely enough to buy bread with. In general, talent only is well paid. Persons who are endowed neither with talent nor physical strength, can find profitable employment

nowhere but in factories.

Women find employment also in stationers'and booksellers' shops as folders, gatherers, and stitchers. Their wages vary as they do everywhere from one franc, (20 cents) to two francs fifty centimes (45 cents) a day, but rarely fall below two francs, (40 cents.) They are beginning in printing establishments to employ women to set type. They compose very well, nothing but exactness and perseverance being generally necessary. It is always hard labor, as it obliges them to stand up all the time, and is very fatiguing to the eyes. It often requires, also, a good elementary education, which is not within the reach of all young girls.

The last-named trades are carried on in enormous workshops. This is the case, too, with glass-cutting. Every one is aware of the difference between cut and pressed glass. In order to give the glass those clean edges which so enhance its value it is necessary to subject it to the action of several grindstones; for glass is a dry, brittle substance,

which cannot be cut like wood, stone, or metals.

FACTORY-LIFE.

The women employed in the factories where woolen fabrics are made, have also a hard lot. There are always cleaners, packers, and rattacheurs, as wool necessitates divers operations of division, greasing, and again removing the grease. Nevertheless it produces less dust than cotton, and has not the same disadvantage of poisoning the air and adhering to the hair and clothes of the operatives. The odor of the oil which is applied to the wool for the purpose lubricating it, and facilitating the operations of carding and combing, is only disagreeable to visitors; the women employed do not notice it. In general wool-spinning is less troublesome and dangerous than cottonspinning. Several wool-spinning factories are remarkable for their neatness and ele-

gance. Preparations of hemp, flax, and above all of tow, emit, on the contrary, quantities of very unwholesome dust. It is impossible to card and spin them, except in very hot rooms, and with the aid of abundance of water. Few sights are more unpleasant than a badly kept flax-spinning establishment. The water floods the brick floors, and the smell of the flax in the heated atmosphere produces sometimes an intolerable stench. The greater part of the workwomen are obliged to lay seide most of their clothes, are crowded together in this pestilent atmosphere, and stand all day long perspiring, and with naked feet, the water often reaching their ankles. When, after twelve hours' hard work, they leave the factory for their homes, the wraps with which they cover themselves barely afford an adequate protection against the cold and damp.

THE WAGES.

The health of a woman has a great deal to do with the question of her receipta: the will, perhaps, still more, since energy and resolution can triumph over a weak body and exhausted powers. The most favorable estimates do not fix the mean of the female

weaver's daily receipts at more than one franc fifty centimes.

Let us, in order to make the best of it, state the average of her salary to be 1.75 france. (35 cents,) which would be 525 francs a year for 300 days of hard work. francs a day it is possible indeed to live, but to live very poorly. If 72 francs (20 centimes a day) are not deducted from the year's income for a lodging, the lodging must be a mere shed. If more than 150 francs are not deducted for washing, shoes, and clothes, the Lyons workwomen will scarcely be able to get more than what is absolutely necessary. There remain then something like 80 centimes a day for food and other expenses. Most of these women take their meals at the master weaver's. This arrangement, though not always practicable, is much the best. Although women are naturally sober, and generally less in need of strong food than men, we should remember that these women work at a fatiguing trade, which requires a certain degree of strength, if only to accomplish a good day's work. To be miserably lodged, clothed, and fed, and with all this to be obliged to work, at the very least, twelve hours a day, is the fate of a female weaver, as favorably situated as possible.

WEAVERS AND LACE-MAKERS

We should form a very mistaken idea of the trade of spinning and weaving did we suppose that it had completely done away with manual labor. The old-fashioned loom is still encountered everywhere, in cellars and cottages. After visiting one of those vast factories where five hundred looms are working together with a deafening clatter. it produces a singular effect to cross the street, descend a few steps, and suddenly find oneself in the workshop of a weaver of the old school. The cellar is lighted, as all cellars are, by a trap-door. The atmosphere is damp enough to prevent the thread from breaking, but not so damp as to injure it. Sometimes, often indeed, the loom completely fills the cellar, and the weaver is obliged to creep under the frame, and squeeze himself between the levers, in order to tie the broken threads. The large, heavy, rough-hewn posts, the warp moving with a creaking noise, the cords grating in the pulleys—the primitive simplicity of all these accessories contrasts strangely with the elegant little machine which is driven by steam with such rapidity. The old-fashioned weavers usually work alone. Sometimes they have two looms in one room, rarely more. When they spend their days thus, seated on their stools, their feet on the levers, and their hands on the battants, they might easily imagine that there have been no revolutions either in society or in trade, and that the steam-engine is still an invention

Cotton is woven by machinery in Alsace, Normandy, and the north of France. Handlooms are there the exception, and their number is daily diminishing. Some old houses have retained them because they involve no expense, and patterns can be varied on them with more facility than on power-looms. Here and there, to be sure, may be seen a hand-loom; but it is a family heritage, and the children continue their father's trade with their father's implements. The knitting-loom, such a source of revenue to country-women, does not suffice for the support of a Parisian workwoman.

This is the case also with regard to another branch of industry, lace-making, the products of which are priceless, and the labor miserably paid. At Paris, where living is expensive, lace has rarely or never been made, for the gold and silver lace manufactured in Paris ranks properly among passementeric. For the same reason, very little of the so-called Valenciennes lace is made at Valenciennes. It it difficult work, requires a leng apprenticeship, absorbs all of the maker's time, and is so miserably paid for that the working population of the north find more lucrative employment. As it takes several months, and sometimes even a year, to make a coupon three yards in length, and as it is impossible for the lace-maker to wait so long a time for her wages, it is the custom to pay by bandes, there being three bandes in a yard, and twelve in a coupon. The result of this is that the employer incurs both risk and expense, as he is obliged to furnish the thread and pay almost the whole amount due the maker a long time to furnish the thread and pay almost the whole amount due the maker a long time before he receives the work. At the present time there are but three lace-makers at Valenciennes, earning from one franc thirty centimes to one franc fifty centimes for twelve hours' work. What is known as Valenciennes lace is made extensively at

Yprés, Courtray, Ghent, Bruges, and in almost all parts of Flanders. The price of a lace-maker's cushion varies from eight to ten francs, the patterns from seventy-five centimes to one franc. Beside this the woman is obliged to provide her pins and spindles, and rarely are less than four hundred spindles and fifteen hundred pins used in

making a coupon of Valenciennes lace.

Point d'Alencon is made in a very different manner from Valenciennes. In the latter instance the same person makes the net and the flowers; but the women who make Point d'Alençon are divided into several classes—the traceuses, the réseleuses, who make the lace or net, the bourreuses, who do the heavy embroidery, the modeuses, who do the open work, and the brodeuses, who make the border destined to surround and support the pattern. An apprenticeship of three months is sufficient, and if they do not injure their hands by doing heavy work, they can attend to all their household duties. They can begin a piece of lace, leave it and take it up again, as they could knitting or embroidery. They earn on an average one franc a day.

NEEDLE-WOMEN.

It appears that twenty years ago, out of 112,000 work women mentioned by the commissioners of examination, at least 60,000 supported themselves by various kinds of needle-work. This estimate includes only those regularly hired. There are a large num-

ber of others who work alone.

The highest wages paid before the war were five francs daily for milliners and embroiderers, four francs fifty centimes for the seamstresses employed by tailors, four francs for regular seamstresses, corset-makers, and the women who work for the linge-The repriseures and the seamstresses who work for shoemakers and upholsterers earn three francs fifty centimes. On the other hand, wages sometimes fell as low as seventy-five centimes for workers on tapestry, kid gloves, and old clothes; fifty centimes for dress-makers, vest-makers, corset-makers, cap-makers, and embroiderers; forty centimes for the women employed by shoemakers and those who stitched cloth gloves, and fifteen centimes for those employed in the lingeries.

The general average of salaries earned by Parisian work women in 1847 was about one franc aixty-three centimes. Nine hundred and fifty women earned less than sixty centimes; one hundred thousand and fifty from sixty centimes to three francs; and six hundred and twenty-six more than three francs. Seamstresses who worked at home earned on an average one franc forty-two centimes, and those in the shops about two centimes. These rates have doubled since that time.

A good Parisian work-woman is, in a certain sense, an artist. It is natural that she should be much sought after and well paid. As wages have gradually risen, only women endowed with an exceptional degree of talent have profited by the change, while the increasing competition, the new commercial organization, and the dissemination of the sewing-machine have combined to lower the value of mere manual labor. Tailors who make to order pay a woman from four to six francs for making a vest. She is obliged to furnish her own sewing-silk, &c., the expense amounting to about fifty centimes, and, if a good worker, she can make a vest a day. The merchants, however, who furnish ready-made clothing to the Parisian shops pay a woman only one franc fifty centimes to two france fifty centimes for the same labor. There, then, may be two women, both following the same trade, one of whom will earn five france fifty centimes a day, and the other only one franc twenty-five centimes. The exporting merchants pay their women from seventy-five centimes to one franc twenty-five centimes; the thread and other materials which must be supplied will cost, say, twenty If they can make three plain vests in two days, they will have a profit of about eighty-five centimes a day.

Ladies' cloaks and mantillas are always given by large houses to women who superintend the work done by their hired hands, and who themselves do everything requiring taste and discrimination. The workwomen do nothing but sew. They earn two francs or two francs fifty centimes for twelve hours' work, out of which one hour is

allotted for rest and meals.

Wholesale ready-made clothing establishments manage things very differently. The house will order, for example, three dozen paletots at one shop. These paletots cost two francs apiece, of which the mistress of the shop deducts fifty centimes. The woman who sews spends fifteen centimes on her thread, and her profits amount to only one franc thirty-five centimes. By working from 7 in the morning till 8 in the evening, and scarcely taking time for her meals, a skillful workwoman can make three paletots in two days. To accomplish this she must sew steadily for thirteen hours without one instant's pause or rest. To this gloomy picture we must add cold feet in winter, and six hours' work by dim candle-light. It is under such circumstances that a seamstress

who is more than ordinarily clever can earn two francs.

Linen drapery, or lingerie, comprises a great variety of articles, from sheets and the aprons worn by valets de chambre to ladies' morning-caps finished in the most dainty style. A clever workwoman, who is able to cut and finish a fine cap, can earn from five to six francs a day. Generally, these are women who have small shops, and make

this their peculiar branch of trade.

Among the regular workwomen, a few of the best earn three francs, and almost all earn two francs, or two francs fifty centimes, for thirteen hours' work. The easiest work falls below this estimate; for example, eighty centimes are paid for one dozan fichs bodies, and a very good seamstress can make two dozen in thirteen hours. Sheets, towels, and napkins rarely bring the needlewoman more than one franc a day, or seventy-five centimes when she works for large establishments. They are the re-

source of most women when work is slack.

Upholsterers employ a great many seamstresses. The commissioners counted two thousand, and, with the increase of population and the rapid increase of luxurious habits, undoubtedly a much larger number are now engaged in this trade. They invariably receive one franc seventy-five centimes a day, unless they are doubleuses, in which case they receive two france, as they are obliged to stand up all the time. Their day's work lasts in winter from 8 in the morning till half past 6 in the evening, with an hour's intermission; and in summer from 7 in the morning till half-past 6 in the evening. Extra work is paid at the rate of twenty-five centimes until midnight, and fifty centimes from midnight until 6 in the morning.

GLOVE-MAKERS.

Not less than 12,000 women are employed in the glove-trade in the department of the Loire alone. In the Grenoble factory there are 1,200 who cut the gloves, making on an average four hundred and fifty dozen a year. A single house at Chaumont

(Haute Marne) employs 2,051 stitchers.

There are three separate kinds of work in glove-making—cutting, stitching, and finishing. Men usually do the cutting; but lately they have employed at the Grenoble ishing. Men usuary to the cutting; but takely they have employed at the Greatone manufactories four or five hundred women, who place the leather upon the iron hand, cut it with the aid of a balaucier, and prepare it for sewing. It is not very hard work, and the women receive twenty centimes a day. They can earn from forty-five to seventy francs a month. This depends, of course, upon their skill, and the time they have to give to the work. The stitchers are paid for one dozen single-buttoned ladies. gloves four francs fifty centimes, and for two-buttoned gloves four francs seventy-five centimes. The mistress deducts fifty centimes, and the workwoman is obliged to furnish the silk, at a cost of about forty centimes; and three francs thirty centimes remain for one dozen pairs, or thirty centimes a pair. A good worker can make at most four pairs a day, but the majority of women do not make more than two and a half.

Glove-stitching requires the most exquisite neatness. The stained gloves are not

only left on the workwoman's hands, but she is obliged to pay for the material. Four pairs a day would amount to one franc twenty centimes. In the Haute Vienne, where gloves are made of lambskin, in l'Aveyron, in the Haute Marne, and even in l'Isere, the price of a dozen often falls as low as three francs. The workwoman's receipts are

then reduced almost to nothing.

The following extract from the Paris correspondence of the Chicago Tribune, supposed to be from the pen of the editor, Mr. Medill, affords additional information of an interesting character in regard to the employment of women in France: ·

Women seem almost to monopolize every avocation in the cities for which they possess the requisite physical strength. They constitute the great bulk of the visible shop-keeping class. Male clerks are scarce in France; the women having taken their places. The hotels and boarding-houses are managed by females. All the lighter mechanical trades are largely filled with women, who manufacture most of the clothing, head-gear, slippers, dolls, toys, and a thousand articles of commerce, with which the French supply the markets of the world. In the country, all French women work out of doors, on the farms, side by side with their male relatives. It would be a cafe estimate to state that half the productive industry of France is the result of female

But that in which the French more particularly excel is economy. They live upon just about one-half what the Americans do. The wife in every French family knows to a nicety what quantity of each kind of food is the least that will suffice to make a comfortable meal, and not a particle more than that is ever cooked or served. Servants are never permitted to waste or steal food. The lady of the house looks after her marketing, her kitchen, and her pantry, with sharp eyes and unflagging care.

In the matter of clothing, also, the same economy prevails, and yet they all seem to be neatly, cleanly, and comfortably dressed. There is no vast element of indigent, ragged, miserable paupers, living on public charity. Every one appears to be self-sup-

porting.

CONDITION OF LABORERS' DWELLINGS.

M. Jules Simon, from whose interesting account of labor in France copious extracts have been presented on the preceding pages, has also investigated the condition of the working-classes. In regard to their wretched abodes, the collection of rents, and the hours of labor, he says:

It is not an uncommon thing to find workmen who have inhabited the same room for a number of years, not because they are comfortable, but simply because they are there, and have no idea of looking elsewhere for a home. The most striking examples of this indifference is in the case of two old people who lived some years ago in a small house in the Rue du Miline, in the parish of St. Germain. When interviewed the husband was eighty-three and the wife eighty-two years old. They had been married sixty-three years, and had lived in this lodging fifty-seven years, almost suffocated with smoke when they made a fire, chilled by the wind which whistled through the badly-joined panels of the door, and overflowed by the water of the drain. This Quartier de la Veilliere is a gloomy abode. It seems to be asleep, and is a sickening sight, for it is old without being venerable. Among other proofs of abject misery there is a ground-floor lodging there, comprising two small rooms, badly paved with small stones, and the inner room, having no windows, is in constant darkness. It also joins a bone depository, belonging to the neighboring house, and which diffuses so horrible an odor that it is impossible to bear it for more than a few moments. The man who, with his wife, inhabits this wretched dwelling, is employed in a neighboring factory; they have a daughter twenty years old, and five other children of tender years. Amiens is, notwithstanding all this, a fair, smiling city, with superb boulevards, long and well-built streets, a magnificent promenade, and one of the finest cathedrals in the world. It only remains for the inhabitants to believe that misery does not exist at all, that the workmen have food and fuel, and that no old man is in want of a bed on which to repose his wearied limbs. The contrast is, perhaps, more striking at Rheims, because trade is more animated there. That marvelous cathedral, those galleries in the open air which call to mind the covered bridges at Lucerne, the Rheims Mountain, which lifts its smiling

THE HOMES OF FAMINE AND RUIN.

Yet there stands a row of houses built at the foot of the ancient ramparts, the floors of which are washed away by floods of rain in the winter; there are lodgings, too, in the Cour Jenetus, the Cour St. Joseph, the Place St. Miaise, the Cemetery of la Madeleine, and the Rue du Barbatre, more desolate and abandoned than dungeons; long lines of rooms where the water drips through the dilapidated roofs, where space, air, and light are wanting, yet where people live, buried in cellars, perched in garrets, crowded, pressed, crammed one against the other in damp and choking alleys, the fearful abodes of famine, sickness, and debauchery. There still remains in the Cour No. 136, on the Boulevard Coris, a closet under a staircase, some two yards long by one and a half wide; it is impossible to stand upright in it, even at the highest part of the staircase. There is no window, and in order to have a little light and air it is necessary to leave the deor open. It is no longer anything but a bake-house, but a paralytic woman once lived there, if it could be called living, two years and a half.

With the single exception of Mulhouse, equally wretched abodes may be found in every manufacturing town throughout France.

COLLECTING RENTS.

Some landlords collect their rents themselves, and have no other business. One round is scarcely completed before they have to begin another, for every one, of course, will readily perceive that all rents are not paid at the first demand, and that it is necessary to return on Monday, Tuesday, and sometimes on Wednesday. A landlord who is resolved to be paid at any hazard allows of no arrears. It is possible with great difficulty to get 1 franc or 1 franc 50 centimes at a time, but 4 or 5 francs are an impossibility. The woman who cannot pay her rent on Monday is obliged to take her children and seek admittance at some other door. When there are no vacant lodgings to be had the tenants refuse to move, and it is hard enough to get them to go away. The most severe method consists in removing the door and windows. A few years ago there was a landlord at Lille who left his house in the morning drawing a little

hand-car. When a tenant refused to pay he took away his door and windows with his own hands. This worthy individual always returned home at night with large receipts, and yet he did not die a millionaire.

HOURS OF LABOR.

In 1836 the workman's day was fifteen hours long at Mulhouse, Dornach, and Lille, and sixteen at Bischerville. A report made before the Industrial Society at Mulhouse in 1837 stated that it was eighteen hours long in many French manufactories. Adults are now limited by law to twelve hours' labor per day. Adding to this the hour and a half usually allowed for rest and meals, it makes the absence of a mother from her family thirteen and a half hours. This is in case, we suppose, her house is near the factory, which it rarely is. Generally, it takes an hour to go and return, which makes altogether an absence of fourteen or fifteen hours for the mother, and of solitude for the children. It is clear that, under such conditions, the room must be neglected; it is neither washed nor swept, nor put in order. Yet no one can have the heart to reproach for this the unhappy creature who, when she returns from the shop, has barely strength enough to prepare suppore and put her children to hed.

strength enough to prepare supper and put her children to bed.

It is, then, impossible for a woman employed in a factory to perform her duty to her children. During her absence the visitor will not unfrequently find the children gathered around the fireless stove, sad and motionless. Their weakness rather than their mother's injunctions keeps them at home. The first idea which occurs to us on seeing them is that they have never smiled. There is another difficulty about schooling. It is necessary to be rich in order to go to the free school. A child of six years can wind; at eight he can enter a manufactory. Supposing that there are two or three children between the ages of six and twelve years, how is it possible to support them on the wages of one man? They must do their week's work as well as their father and mother. With what impatience do the peasants await the age fixed for entering the factory! Is it because they undervalue education? No, it is because they dread starvation.

LABOR IN FRENCH PRISONS.

According to M. Simon, there are three classes of prisons in France, the central prisons, the department prisons, and the houses of correction. In the first are confined all women condemned to hard labor, as are also some men condemned to a like punishment; all persons condemned to solitary confinement, and all persons condemned to more than one year of imprisonment. The prisoners usually remain about three years. There are twenty-five of this kind of prisons, and they are the only ones where the work is properly regulated, or is of any importance. There are not less than fifty-four trades carried on in these central prisons. A contractor-general buys the hands of the prisoners, and lets them to subcontractors. The tariff of wages fixed by the government, and accepted by the contractor, is precisely the same as that of free workmen. The contractors supply food and clothing for the prisoners, and a debit and credit account is kept between the State and the contractor-general, an account which, on the side of the State, always ends in debit. The prisoner is lodged, clothed, fed, warmed, and has his washing done, gratuitously. He has no family—at least he may be considered as having none, since he cannot support it. He is never in want of work. If he is ill he is not obliged to pay for medical attendance. Finally, it is out of his power to spend either time or money in the pursuit of pleasure. If, therefore, he be as well paid as a . free laborer he ought to save a great deal of money. He really does, since he receives a certain number of tenths, not of the real price of the day's work paid by the subcontractor, but of the price named in the tariff, and accepted by the contractor-general as his base of operation and as equivalent to the day's wages of a free laborer. This sum is always reduced by one-fifth, which is deducted by the contractor-general in payment of the materials and tools with which he furnishes the prisoner.

PRODUCTION OF IRON AND STEEL IN 1873.

The following statement of the production of iron, and of iron and steel rails in France, during the year 1873, will be read with interest:

The total make of pig-iron in France in 1873 was 1,381,000 tons, being only 17,000 tons less than that of 1869; the largest that was ever reached having been 1,398,000. Compared with 1872, the increase has not been less than 200,695 tons. The total out-put of manufactured iron in 1873 amounted to 906,745 tons against 883,079 tons in 1872, showing an increase of 23,666 tons. There is a falling off, however, of 126,000 tons compared with the extraordinary make of 1869. The total production of steel during the year reached 167,677 tons against 138,552 tons in 1872, or an increase of 29,125 tons. Since 1867 the steel manufacture in France has increased tenfold, and the upward movement is likely to continue. The sum total of iron and steel rails which the sundry railway companies ordered from the home works during 1873 is 182,815 tons, of which 124,717 tons were of iron and 64,095 tons of steel. The Paris-Lyon-Mediterranean Railway alone consumed during the year 32,500 tons of steel rails; the Nord, 14,625 tons; the West, 9,871 tons. Compared with 1872, the consumption of iron rails increased 20,750 tons, and that of steel rails 11,903 tons. Adding to the above figures 8,544 tons of iron rails and 2,000 tons of steel rails imported during the year, it is found that there has been a consumption, by all the French railways, of 133,261 tons iron rails and 66,008 tons of steel rails, or an aggregate of 199,359 tons.

STEEL WORKS AT LE CREUSOT.

Having, at a later period, visited the renowned steel-works of Mr. Krupp, at Essen, in Westphalia, an extended notice of which appears on subsequent pages, the author more keenly regrets that he did not extend his journey from Paris to Le Creusot, where the celebrated works of Mr. Schneider are situated. The following communication, which appeared in the American Manufacturer, of Pittsburgh, Pa., gives an interesting account of the extent and production of the works, but makes no reference to the earnings of the workmen:

I have just returned from a visit to Le Creusot, the largest works I have ever visited I spent four days there, and am under many obligations to Mr. Schneider, the owner of three-fourths of these magnificent works, for the very kindest of attention shown me during my visit. I had the pleasure of inspecting the works under the personal guidance of Mr. Schneider, who has a warm feeling for Americans, as several American iron-men can testify.

There are employed at these works 15,000 workmen, who turn out a daily product of

500 tons of iron and steel.

The building of the rolling-mills is 1,318 feet long and 360 feet wide, under a succession of spans, four in number, all of iron. They have twelve sheet and plate mills here, and are putting in the three high Lauth. They have ten blast-furnaces, which produce 500 tons of pig-iron per day. Have four converters, (Bessemer,) and make 200 tons per day. They have also the Siemens-Martin process at work. Mr. Schneider informed me that they do not have any difficulty in making a uniform article of steel. I can say I want steel soft to-morrow, hard the next day, medium the next, and am sure to get it, as he says there is no trouble with steel, but with iron there is. They use the African ore mostly. Mr. Schneider assisted a company with their mines, and in return they agreed to deliver him 130,000 tons of ore per year. This agreement is

They make all kinds of machinery, from a marine-engine down. Are building the engines for the steamer Lafayette, to run between Havre and New York. They build one hundred locomotives per annum. All the principal parts are made of steel, and have a splendid finish. Thirty large steam-hammers are constantly at work on their forgings. I saw a drill-press bore thirty-five holes at the same time. They have a steam-riveter to make boilers. The boiler is suspended over the machine, and in two blows the rivet is in its place finished. The company have iron-mines of their own, and four collieries with veins in a kind of pockets, 30 feet thick, and nearly vertical. They took out 700 000 tone lest year and expect to run over a million tone this year. They took out 700,000 tons last year, and expect to run over a million tons this year. They have eighteen locomotives and eight hundred cars for their own use, besides what they use of the railroad company. Their pumping-engine is of the Wolf system, compound; capacity, 135,000 cubic feet per stroke. Mr. Schneider is erecting an iron building 1,500 feet long and 160 feet wide, in which to manufacture steel and axless for railroad expects to make the word wheels and feet the per arrange of the strong and the strong and feet the per arrange of the strong and feet the per arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong and feet arrange of the strong ar for railways, and expects to make eighty thousand wheels and forty thousand axles for the American and Russian markets.

This company bring their water four miles now, and must go twenty for more, as they have not enough. The population of Le Creusot is about 25,000. Mr. Schneider has four schools, that he pays for himself, for the education of his workmen's children.

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION IN FRANCE.

On a previous page the value of the industrial products of Paris in 1860 was stated at 3,369,092,949 francs; the following table shows the value of products of industry in each of the eighty-nine departments of France, in a subsequent year, the aggregate amount of which reaches the sum of 9,755,030,000 francs.

Table showing the total value of industrial production in the several departments of France in the year 1871.

Departments.	Value of pro- duct.	Departments.	Value of pro- duct.
	France.		France.
Seine	1, 989, 698, 733	Sarthe	48, 902, 71
Nord	799, 834, 160	Nièvre	48, 807, 410
Rhône	600, 556, 819	Manche	48, 306, 39
Seine-Inférieure	440, 333, 034	Meuse	46, 219, 43
Bouches-du-Rhône	271, 854, 370	Deux-Sèvres	45, 793, 22
Loire	224, 338, 675	Haute-Vienne	44, 355, 85
Eure	213, 136, 049	Var	44, 260, 88
Haut-Rhin	196, 258, 280	Aveyron	43, 128, 72
Aisne	184, 935, 418	Charente	43, 337, 06
Somme	176, 525, 707	Eure-et-Loir	42, 385, 50
Marne	161, 907, 783	Indre-et-Loire	41,746,86
Loire-Inférieure	161, 040, 884	Haute-Saône	40, 606, 37
Ardennes	160, 144, 314	Vendée	39, 611, 83
Pas-de-Calais	158, 081, 790	Cher	39, 609, 85
Bae-Rhin	148, 484, 655	Jura	39, 480, 90
Ardèche	144, 259, 135	Charente-Inférieure	35, 563, 84
Ille-et-Vilaine	143, 813, 200	Morbihan	35, 512, 97
Oise	131, 329, 920	Aude	34, 931, 08
Moselle	124,000,280	Allier	32, 667, 84
Gironde	122, 432, 060	Haute-Marne	32, 364, 38
Isòre	116, 235, 728	Yonne	31, 701, 98
Gard	115, 608, 116	Gers	30, 896, 53
Seine-et-Oise	109, 640, 500	Vienne	28, 603, 92
Vosges	104, 172, 915	Mayenne	26, 720, 52
Vaucluse	101, 780, 500	Loir-et-Cher	26, 516, 22
Haute-Garonne	99, 241, 062	Landes	26, 115, 07
Calvados	97, 361, 820	Haute-Loire	25, 726, 27
Hérault	94, 458, 470	Tarn-et-Garonne	25, 544, 940
Seine-et-Marne	85, 782, 550	Côtes-du-Nord	24, 832, 33
Orne	82, 061, 623	Ariége	22, 906, 650
Saone-et-Loire	78, 104, 635	Lot	20, 223, 960
Finistère	76, 326, 020	Basses-Pyrénées	19, 583, 936
Cote d'Or	75, 019, 620	Hautes-Pyrénées	19, 174, 619
Maine-et-Loire	71, 300, 800	Pyrénées-Orientales	15, 984, 975
Aube	66, 920, 950	Alpes-Maritimes	15, 675, 110
Doubs	65, 618, 510	Corse	14, 147, 300
Drôme	65, 438, 010	Basses-Alpes	14, 019, 480
Tarn	60, 164, 337	Creuse	13,742,300
Lot-et-Garonne	57, 170, 944	Hautes-Alpes	11, 828, 96
Ain	52,677,470	Savoie	9, 351, 220
Puy-de-Dôme	52, 424, 952	Haute-Savoie	6, 963, 700
Indre	50, 038, 208	Lozère	6, 087, 675
Meurthe	49, 833, 456	Corrèze	5,713,940
Loiret	49, 197, 500	Cantal	3, 567, 458
Dordogne	48, 958, 818	Vanual	0,000,100
~v.uvguo	20,000,010	11 •	

Total value of product in francs, 9,755,030,000. Total value in dollars, 1,900,461,805.*

Total value of products of industry in the United States of America in 1860, \$1,885,861,676, gold; in 1870 \$4,232,325,442, currency.

^{*} Computing the franc, in this instance only, at 19.3 cents, gold.

MANUFACTORIES IN THE BOUCHES-DU-RHÔNE.

In the department of the Bouches-du-Rhône there were in 1872, as stated by Mr. Consul Osterhaus, the following manufacturing establishments:

Manufactories of soap, 37; oil, 54; tobacco, 1; matches, 12; awnings, 3; billiards, 4; corks, 12; candles, 5; bricks, 2; caramel, 2; cards, 3; book-binding, 10; hats, 15; shoes, 17; shirts, 10; wax, 5; safes, 4; cream of tartar, 1; vegetable hair, 6; ink, 4; manure, 6; tin in sheets, 2; crockery, 3; paper, 9; metal founderies, 13; Italian pâtes, 4; pianos, 3; pipes, 3; shot, 5; pens, 1; saddles and carriages, 2; semoule, 1; sirups, 3; silks, 6; sulphur, 4; water-proof cloth, 2; sugar, 2; bags and bagging, 4; linen, 7; tubes and pipes, 3; coral, 1; vermuth, 5; glassware, 3; vinegar, 1; wooden shoes, 1; vermicelli, 3; ceruse, 1; molds, 7; cotton, 1; lime, 5; machines, 1; capers, 1; brooms, 2; Indian goods, 3; almond candy, 1; pottery, 4; liquors, 1; chemicals, 5; resin, 1; brandy, 1; cords, 1; woolen-factory, 1; and sausages, 3.

PROPORTION OF THE INDUSTRIAL TO OTHER CLASSES.

The following table gives the absolute and relative number of persons who, in 1866, were supported directly or indirectly by the occupations and professions mentioned:

Employments.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Proportion to 10,000 inhabit- ants.
Agriculture	9,737,295	9, 860, 820	19, 598, 115	5, 194
Industry	5,574,818	5, 384, 273	10, 959, 091	2,879
Commerce	737,675	779, 483	1,517,158	399
Professions connected with agricul-	101,010	1, 200	-,021,200	1
ture, industry, and commerce	607, 491	488, 296	1,095,787	287
Various professions	89, 885	108,754	198, 639	52
Liberal professions, and persons	1 33,555		1 200,000	1
living on their own means	1,782,089	1,825,206	3, 607, 295	948
Various occupations	288, 077	276, 264	564, 341	147
Professions unknown	196,749	329, 889	526, 638	139
			2.30, 000	
Total equaling the population	19, 014, 079	19, 052, 985	38, 067, 064	10,000

It will be noticed from the above table that there were supported by various industrial occupations, exclusive of agriculture, 10,959,091 persons, or nearly 27 per cent. of the whole population.

PRICES OF FARM AND MECHANICAL LABOR IN 1873.

The following rates of wages paid for farm-laborers and for skilled workmen in the places mentioned were furnished by the consuls of the United States:

Table showing the rates of wages paid for farm and mechanical labor in the Department of Loire Inférieure, and in Nice, Lyons, and Marseilles, in 1873.

	Department of Loire Inféri- eure.	Nice.		Lyons.	Marsoilles.
Occupation.	Daily wages, without board.	Daily wages, without board.*	Monthly wages, with board.	Daily wages, without board.	Daily wages.
FARM-LABORERS.	•				
Experienced hands in summer	\$ 0 4 0	\$ 0 57	\$11 40	\$ 9 60	\$0 \$5
winter	30	57	11 40		
Ordinary hands in sum- mer	25	42	6 90		90
Ordinary hands in Win-	90	42	6 90		
Common laborers at other		42			
than farm-work	90 30	42 38	6 90 5 70	\$4 to \$5 per mo.	18
SKILLED WORKMEN.	. 30	30	3.0	44 to 45 ber mo.	
Blacksmiths		76		1 00	89
Brick layers or masons	50 to 80	90 76 to 95		\$0 80 to 100	1 00
Cabinet-makers		76		80 to 1 00	190
Coopers		76		80 to 100	1 20
Miners		1 52		1 00 to 1 25	80
Machinists		2 28 to 3 04			89
Painters	70 to 1 00	57		80 to 1 00	80 80
Plasterers	60 to 100	95 66		80 to 1 00 80 to 1 00	\$0 160 to 1 29
Stone-cutters	60 to 100	66		1 00 to 1 25	180 to 1 00
Tailors	60 to 1 00	57 to 95		50 to 80	1 29
Tanners	40 to 80	95		80 to 1 00	170 to 1 00
Tinsmiths		76	J	80 to 100	189 to 1 10
Wheelwrights	40 to 80	85		80 to 100	

^{*} Price of board for workmen during month of October, 1873, \$1.75 per week; for workwomen, \$1.55. † On piece-work.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, HOUSE-RENT, ETC.

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, also of board and house-rent, in the manufacturing towns of Lyons, Nice, Marseilles, and Nantes, France.

·	Retail prices in 1874.				
Articles.	Lyons.	Nice.	Marseilles.	Nantes.	
PROVISIONS.					
Flour, wheat, superfineper barrel.	9 80 9 00		4 c. per lb.	l <u>-</u>	
extra family do rye do Corn meal per pound Beef, fresh, roasting-pieces do soup-pieces do	04 18 18	\$ 0 19 09	4 o per lb. 3 c. per lb. 50 16 16		
soup-pieces do corned do veal, fore-quarters do hind-quarters do Veal-cutlets do	18 18 18	19 19	21		
Veal-cutlets	18 18 18 18	24 24 19 24	253		
chops	18 20	24 19 24	92 19		
becondododododododododododododododododododo	18 18	30 30 30	20		
Lard	10 10 10 20	24 19 15	22 25 09 25	\$ 0 i	
Cheesedol	30 25 27	\$0 35 to 40 30 11 ct. per lb.	28 22 1 ct. per lb.	9 9	
Rice per pound Beans per quart Milk do Eggs per dozen	07 08 09 24	05 06 to 08 05 06 18	05 07 23		
GROCERIES, ETC.				1	
Tea, Colong, or other good blackper pound. Coffee, Rio, greendo roasteddo Gugar, good browndo	80 24 28	95 to 1 20 43 50	1 00 38 50	1 9	
yellow Cdodo	20 20 16 18	14 16 18	14 15 16		
Molasees per gallon. Birup do Bosap, common per pound. Search do	09 07 04 10	11 09	06 06 08		
wood, hardper cord.	\$4 60 to 6 00	\$8 50 to 10 00 5 00 4 50	6 20	8 (
pine	•••••	95	1 12	1 (
DOMESTIC DRY-GOODS, ETC. Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yard.	10	24	15		
Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yard bleached, 4-4, standard qualitydo Sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard qualitydo bleached, 9-8, standard qualitydo	15 23 28	28 to 47 28 38	16 25 30		
Cotton flannel, medium quality do Tickings, good quality do Mouseline de laines do Satinets, medium quality do	31 25 50	28 to 47 45 to 1 20	25 to 40 25		
per pair.	4 00	1 92 to 2 30	4 40		
HOUSE RENT. Four-roomed tenementsper month. Six-roomed tenementsdo		2 28 to 3 20 3 10 to 4 10	5 00 7 00	\$25 to \$4	
BOARD.	•••••				
For men. (mechanics or other workmen)per week		1 75 to 2 20	2 80		

^{*}Per annum.

EXPENDITURES OF WORKMEN'S FAMILIES.

The circular requesting statements of the weekly outlay by the families of laboring men for provisions and other necessary articles of subsistence, and for house-rent, clothing, &c., met with but few responses from France; there being but one from Nice and two from Marseilles.

NICE.

Average weekly expenditures of a family consisting of two adults and three children.

Bread Fresh meats Butter Cheese Sugar Milk Coffee	\$2 50 65 15 16 18 18 19	Fruits, (green or dried)	\$0 15 25 25 25 25 1 00 35
Fish	. 10 35 18 35	Clothing per year	7 23 50 46 1 90

MARSEILLES.

Mr. Consul Price, in transmitting a statement of the weekly earnings and expenditures of the families of two laboring men in Marseilles, makes the following explanation:

The following table represents, as exactly as possible, the average wages and expenses of a family of working people of two classes, between which there exists a hardly appreciable difference. It results from these figures that the laborer earning the least wages saves the most at the end of the year, because he is more sober. Spirituous liquors do not figure in the table of expenses because they are not consumed in the family, but only at the saloon or café. The item of light is insignificant, for the reason that the hearth-fire suffices to light the living-room, and the laborer goes to bed early and rarely lights a lamp. The item of combustibles can only be estimated; for, in general, the laborers collect and gather up in the factories the débris of wood, charcoal, and coke, which serves them for fuel.

Average weekly earnings and expenditures of the families of two laboring men, each family consisting of two adults and two children.

Earnings:				
You was week	Ņο.	1.	No. 2	
Man per week	ΦO	30 90	\$4 ±1 91	
1115 WIIO		<i>5</i> 0		_
Total weekly earnings	4	20	5 70	0
Expenditures:		=		=
Bread, 23 pounds	\$1	00	\$1.00	0
Wine, 6 quarts	•	35	42	
Fresh meats, 21 pounds		30	80	
Lard and oil		16	20	
Cheese		20	12	-
Sugar		10	14	
Milk		07	15	
Coffee		0 5	10	
Soap and starch		19	30	-
Salt and pepper		03	06	-
Potatoes and other vegetables		21	2	
Light		04	09	
Tobacso, spirits, &c		14	20	
Rent		20	30	
Educational and religious purposes		06	16	B -
Total expenses per week	3	10	4 35	2

Poonit .

52 weeks' expenses, at \$3.10		at \$4.52	\$224 64 50 00
52 weeks' earnings, at \$4.20	185 20 218 40	at \$5.70	274 64 296 40
Balance, saved in one year	33 20		21 74

EDUCATION AND CRIME IN MARSEILLES.

In reference to education and to penal offenses in Marseilles, Mr. Consul Osterhaus writes as follows:

Education.—There is, perhaps, no better way of giving a proximate idea of the educational advantages and condition of this people than by giving the statistics of population, number of schools of primary instruction, and the number of scholars. There are in this department three arrondissements, which, according to the census of 1872, contain a population as follows: Arrondissement of Marseilles, 352,280; of Aix, 114,038; of Arles, 88,407. This number is composed as follows:

Of boys and unmarried men	157, 352
Of married men	106, 612
Of girls	132, 245
Of girls	107, 618
Of widows	
······································	
(Pote)	554 705

Of this number 514,169 are French and 40,556 are foreigners.

Of this number 514,169 are French and 40,556 are foreigners.
From the report of the superintendent of primary instruction, it appears that there are in this department 742 primary schools, divided as follows: 171 public schools for boys, 131 public schools for girls, 128 free schools for boys, 287 free schools for girls, and 21 mixed schools of all kinds. The 171 public schools for boys receive together 23,340 children. One hundred and twenty-three schools, containing 11,473 scholars, are directed by lay-teachers; and 48 schools, with 11,867 scholars, are sectarian. The 131 public schools for girls receive together 14,976 scholars, of which 2,229 are taught by lay-teachers, and 12,547 are under the direction of sectarian teachers. The whole number of scholars who frequent the primary schools of the department is 59,478, and classified as follows:

	Scholars.
Public schools for boys	23, 340
Public schools for girls	14, 976
Free schools for boys	
Free schools for girls	
Mixed schools	1,409

The Protestant and Jewish sects have several schools in the department, and in sufficient number to respond to the needs of those different sects for religious teaching.

Penal offenses —During the year 1872 the courts of Aix have rendered 1,160 decisions; the court of assizes of the department has tried 136 prisoners, of whom 34 have been acquitted, 54 condemned to infamous penalties, and 48 sentenced to correctional punishment. The tribunal correctional of Marseilles has, in 1870, judged 2,692 prisoners, of whom 321 were acquitted; and the correctional tribunals of Aix and Tarascon have tried 729 prigoners.

Total in 1871 . . .

Total in 1870.....

LABOR IN GERMANY.

If, instead of a report on the cost and condition of labor, this volume were a history of the various industries of Europe, it would be interesting to ascertain the origin and to trace the development of the principal manufactures of those states which now compose the German Empire.

The woolen goods of Rhenish Prussia and Saxony, the linens of Silesia and Westphalia, the cottons of Alsace and Berlin, the leather of the Rhine country, the steel of Essen, the bronzes of Berlin and Munich, the toys of Nuremberg and Sonneberg, the carved work of the Hartz Mountains, the philosophical instruments of Berlin and Cassel, to say nothing of the numerous peculiar industries of Berlin, Chemnitz, Frankfort, Stuttgart, Cologne, and Elberfeld—all of which find extensive markets in the United States—would form rich subjects for historical investigation, and the publication of the results prove highly instructive. On some other person with more leisure, and with equal sympathy for the industrial classes, must this pleasant work be devolved.

IMPORTS FROM GERMANY.

The products of German industry, which comprise the principal imports from that country during the last two fiscal years, as well as the total annual value of our imports since 1868, are shown in the following table:

Articles.	Value of i	Value of imports.		
	1874.	1873.		
Cloth and cassimeres.	\$ 3, 216, 305	\$4,758,363		
	1,016,384	1, 360, 576		
Dress-goods	2,011,025	2, 635, 365		
Silk manufactures	5, 644, 936	13, 118, 480		
Cotton hosiery	2,964,863	3,660,602		
Other manufactures of cotton	3, 263, 436	4, 451, 022		
Fancy goods	1,520,910	1,909,751		
Leather, and manufactures of, except gloves	1, 360, 724	2, 154, 940		
Gloves	990, 261	1, 469, 620		
Buttons	841,013	1, 149, 123		
Jewelry and watches	1, 210, 835	2, 618, 692		
Precious stones	380, 249	692, 980		
Furs, dressed	585, 816	931, 009		
Glass and glassware	1,588,623	1, 962, 956		
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	1, 478, 877	1, 836, 158		
Pig-lead	896, 478	962, 736		
Books, pamphlets, maps, &c	851, 536	916, 0 07		
Chemicals	1,011,062	1, 158, 155		
Wines, spirits, and cordials	252, 262	449, 203		
All other merchandise	12, 824, 257	13, 206, 015		
Total imports of merchandise	43, 909, 852	61, 401, 750		

25, 093, 635

27,015.321 25,087,987

IMMIGRATION INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM GERMANY.

Unlike France, from which we receive the products of the labor of her skilled artisans, but not the artisans themselves. Germany has contributed not only her workmanship, but her workmen. Our annual receipts of her products, as appears from the foregoing statement, average in value over \$33,000,000, while of her sons and daughters, embracing a large number of skilled workmen as well as men of talent and enterprise, we received in a single year, 1854, the large number of 206.054. whose material value at the average stated in another work* by the author of this report. viz. \$800, reaches nearly \$165,000,000.

The immigration into this country from Germany during the fifty-four

years, from 1820 to 1874, was as follows:

1820-'30 1831-'40 1841-'50 1851-'60 1861-'70, (closing with December) 1871 1872	152, 454 434, 626 951, 667 822, 007 107, 201 155, 595 133, 141
Aggregate	56, 927

This large addition to our population in a little over half a century has furnished, at the rate above indicated, an increment to our material

wealth of \$2,257,077,600.

The census of 1870 shows that of the various nationalities which compose our foreign-born population no less than 1,690,533 were natives of Germany; while of the cities of New York, Chicago, Saint Louis, and Cincinuati from 16 to 20 per cent. of the whole population were of German birth. New York City contained in 1870 more native Germans than the two manufacturing towns of Barmen and Chemnitz; Saint Louis more than the city of Brunswick, and Chicago more than Metz.t

^{*}Special Report on Immigration, accompanying Information for Immigrants, by Edward Young, Ph. D. Government Printing-Office, Washington, 1871.

†The large German population of several cities of the United States, as compared with the whole population of cities and towns of Germany, will be best illustrated by the following statement:

New York 151,206 Munich 169,612 Saint Louis 59,040 Barmen and Elderfeld 146,849 Chicago 52,316 Cologne 129,251 Philadelphia 50,746 Leipeic 102,575 Cincinnati 49,448 Frankfort-on-the-Main 90,748 Brooklyn 36,769 Bremen 82,990 Baltimore 32,276 Aix-la-Chapelle 73,722 Milwaukee 22,599 Dusseldorf 69,462 Suffalo, N. Y 22,249 Chemnitz 68,150 Newark, N. J 15,873 Brunswick 57,380 Cleveland 15,856 Essen 51,768 Naw Orleans 15,939 Matz 51,768	German population of United States cities in 1870.	Aggregate population of German cities in 1871.
	Saint Louis 59, 040 Chicago 52, 316 Philadelphia 50, 746 Cincinnati 49, 448 Brooklyn 36, 769 Baltimore 32, 276 Milwaukee 22, 599 Buffalo, N. Y 22, 249 Newark, N. J 15, 673	Barmen and Elderfeld 146, 849 Cologne 129, 251 Leipsic 102, 575 Frankfort-on-the-Main 90, 748 Bremen 82, 990 Aix-la-Chapelle 73, 722 Dusseldorf 69, 462 Chemnitz 68, 150 Brunswick 57, 380 Essen 51, 768

COST OF LABOR AND OF SUBSISTENCE IN LOWER SILESIA IN 1868.

Before presenting detailed statements showing the results of personal inquiry into the cost and conditions of labor in Germany in 1872, it may be well to submit the rates of wages existing before the advance in price which followed the termination of the Franco-German war.

A work, published by Mr. Jacobi, on the rates of wages and the material condition of the working-classes in Lower Silesia during the years 1867 and 1868, affords information of great value, especially in regard to factory-operatives at that period. From the numerous and detailed statements only a few have been selected, translations of which are here presented.

Table showing the rates of wages paid for factory and other labor in Lower Silesia during the year 1868.

(Rates	expressed	in	United	States	coin.	
Trescos	CZDI CODON	ш	Omiosor	DIMINO	COLU.	

Branches and occupations.	Wages per day.		
	Malos.	Females.	Children.
Bleachers:	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
Ordinary hands		141 to 18	
Bleachers			
Manglers			
Foremen			
Bookbinders			
Brewers	24 10 30		
Brickyards: Ordinary work	20 to 24		1
Molders	29 to 39		
Chamotte-molders	33 to 48		
On contract-work	36 to 60	14 to 20	10 to 17
Average summer wages	24 to 42	16 to 18	10 to 18
Cane-factories:			
Turners	36 to 66		
Engravers	36 to 60		
Joiners	48		
Laborers	28 to 42		
Chemical-works:		1	i
Average wages	311		
Fireworks	24 to 36	8 to 15	4 to 6
Strippers	ì	16 to 18	6 to 10
Skilled hands		24 to 40	0 20 10
Wrappers	\$1 00 \$2	18 to 24	
Rollers	24 to 72	10 00 22	
Assorters	72 to \$1 08		
Packers	36 to 48		
Foremen	\$1 50		
Distillers	8 to 36		
Earthenware, glassware, &c.:	1		
Pottery, molders	60 to 72		
on ordinary work	24 to 60	14 to 22	
Stoneware, ordinary work	18 to 24	•••••	
turners	24 to 48 24 to 42		
painters		18 to 24	
burners	30 to 42	10 10 24	
gilders	36 to 42	12 to 18	
potter-turners			
foremen			

Rates of wages paid for factory and other labor in Lower Silesia-Cont'd.

Branches and occupations.	Wages per day.		
	Males.	Females.	Children.
Glass-works, polishers	Cents.	Cents. 10 to 24	Cents.
melters	60		
painters and gilders	40 to 72	18 to 36	
skilled hands	60 to 96		
bottle-makers	48 to 60	10 4- 10	***********
ordinary handsFlour-mills:	24 to 36	12 to 18	12
Laborers	22 to 29		
Assistant millers	36 to 60		
Firemen	24 to 29		
Machinists	33		
Foremen	72		
Gas-works, laborers	24 to 36		••••
Hatters: Ordinary hands	48 to \$1	04 to 26	
Skilled hands	\$1 66 to \$2	24 to 36	
Iron-works:	\$1.00.00 \$x		
Laborers	18 to 28	l	
Locksmiths	24 to 60		
Machine-builders	60 to \$1 08		
Molders	42 to 72		12 to 20
Turners	52		
Machinists	40 to 72		
Watchmen Enamelers	48 36 to 72	1	
Cutters	60 to 72		
Lime-kilns:	00 00 .2		
Laborers, in winter	20 to 30		
summer	24 to 26		
dining:	40 / 04	1 40	
Ordinary labor	18 to 24 48 to 60	12	16 to 20
Miners	36		
Dil-refiners	18 to 42	16	
Paper-mills:	20 00 20	1 20	
Ordinary laborers	21 to 48	10 to 24	8 to 16
Cutters	24		
Holland miller	30		
Machinists	36 42 to 48	12 to 24	
Railroad-car shop:	42 10 40	12 00 24	
Smiths	40 to 72		
Locksmiths	36 to 96		
Turners	42 to \$1 08		
Screw-cutters	30 to 60		
Tinners	42 to 60		
File-cuttersWheelwrights	48 to 72 48 to 96		
Wheelwrights	42 to 66		
Painters	48 to 66		1
Upholsterers	36 to 60		
Laborers	34		
tarch-factories	18 to 36	12 to 17	
ilversmiths	60 to 84	24 to 60	12 to 1
aw-mills:	96 +- 40		1
Laborers Machinists	26 to 48 36 to 60		
Foremen	48		
pinning flax	24 to 42	12 to 30	12 to 2
cotton	20 to 42	12 to 18	9 to 1
wool	18 to 48	14 to 24	6 to 1

Rates of wages paid for factory and other labor in Lower Silesia—Cont'd.

Branches and occupations.	Wages per day.			
Diancies and occupations	Males.	Females.	Children.	
Sugar-refiners Tanners Toy-factories: Ordinary laborers Turners Sculptors Watch-factory workmen Woolen-factories: Carders Fullers Shearers. Foremen	Cents. 14 to 36 36 to 60 18 to 36 36 to 48 36 to \$1 08 24 to 72 20 to 54 29 to 36 \$1 08	Cents. 9 to 15 12 to 15 10 to 24 14 to 18 15	15	

The regular wages of workingmen average, in summer and winter, from 16.8 cents to 24 cents (gold) per day; of females, from 8.4 to 14.4 cents per day, more nearly approaching the higher rate. During the short winter days workingmen receive, for eight hours' labor, from 10 to 14.4 cents; the females, 7.2 cents; while in summer, for twelve to thirteen hours' labor the relative wages are from 19.2 to 28.8 cents, and from 14.4 to 19.2 cents, respectively. The wages of those working in the royal forests are so regulated as to average 24 cents per day for males, and 14.4 cents per day for temales; in some mountain countries the latter receive but 12 cents.

In larger cities wages rise above these rates, especially for skilled labor. Men working on railroads receive in summer from 28.8 to 36 cents per day; and women from 16.8 to 26.4 cents. In the larger cities ordinary female help in house-keeping is paid from '24 to 26.4 cents.

Work done by the piece, or by contract, is paid about one-third more than the customary wages. A common laborer expects, in contract work, from 36 to 48 cents; at railroad work, even more.

When work is scarce the wages often fall to about 16.8 cents per day for males, and

9.6 cents for females.

Labor is often paid by the hour, at from 1.4 to 3 cents for males, and 0.4 to 2 cents for females; 2.4 cents per hour are the wages of an able field laborer in the mountains.

During the summer especially, opportunities for work are offered to children, who receive from 6.11 to 7.2 cents per day, and in winter about 4.8 cents.

Wherever the work rises above mere manual labor in a trade or factory, the daily wages of men are from 30 to 43 cents, and often rise to 60 cents. Miners at tunneling are frequently paid 72 cents, (1 thaler;) in the district of Görlitz, a brick-maker, sided by his wife, averages 80 cents per day; in the district of Jauer from \$5.76 to \$7.30 per week. Skilled workmen of large experience receive from \$360 to \$432 per annum. The wages of the molders and enamelers in iron-founderies, of the locksmiths and joiners in machine-works, in piano factories, amount to from 72 cents to \$1.08 per day; the same in manufactories of glass, silver-ware, and watches, and hat-factories. The highest wages paid to a very skillful joiner in a piano-forte factory were \$12.24 per week.

Wages for female labor are more uniform throughout; 18 cents per day can be earned

by a skillful hand; 24 cents per day very rarely.

Juvenile laborers in factories begin with wages of 48 cents per week, for 10 hours' work daily, and rise to 72 cents per week. The law prohibits the employment of children under twelve years of age; from twelve to fourteen years it permits 6 hours, and from fourteen to sixteen years, 10 hours daily.

The general average of daily wages is as follows: Males, for 12 hours' work per day, in the country, 19.2 cents; in cities, 24 cents; harder labor, 30 cents; in cities, 36

cents; skilled labor, 60 cents.

The wages of master-workmen, overseers, &c., are not included in the above average,

but are at least \$172 per annum.

In regard to the time of work, laborers in factories are employed 11 to 12 hours per day, (exclusive of time for meals;) where work is continued day and night, the hours for the day are from 6 to 12 a. m., and 1 to 7 p. m.; for the night, from 7 p. m. to 6 a. m., with \(\frac{1}{2} \) hour recess; in a few districts 10 hours constitute a day's work. In many cloth-factories and wool-spinneries, males and females work 12 to 13 hours, and some even 16 hours per day. As an example, a cloth-factory employs firemen and machinists 16 hours, spinners and dyers 14 hours, all others 12 hours, exclusive of time for meals.

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In glass-works, the nature of the work requires from 16 to 18 hours for melters, 13 to 15 hours for blowers; but then one party rests while the other works.

The wages of journeymen in the following trades, including board and lodging, are

Bakers		ow 1	
Butchers			72
Smiths		1	08
Tinners			52 16
Wheelwrights	· • • •	2	16
Saddlers			72
Locksmiths			52 52
Shoemakers			44
Fresco-painters		3	42
Cabinet-makers			
CIOMI-MONTCIS, 1	44 (w z	10

From the reports of the chambers of commerce of Germany the following labor statistics are collected:

In the coal miner of Physick Pressio average deith magnet of 2 661 leberger with

families of 8,572 persons, males	80	64
Iron-foundery, (Duisburg,) average wages per day, founders		
Other skilled workmen		54
Laborers		43
Machinists and locksmiths		58
In two iron-founderies, same district, average daily wages, respectively 58 a	nd	65
Iron-bridge establishment		55
Safe-factory, average yearly earnings	182	80
Zinc establishments, average wages, first-class hands		94
second-class hands		72
other laborers		53
Cotton-factories, average wages per hand, including children		41
Cotton-spinning, average wages per hand, (mostly young persons)		36

Average weekly wages paid in the coal-mines of Plauen, (Saxony): To miners, \$3.10; to laborers, \$1.98; and to boys, 40 cents.

WAGES AND COST OF LIVING IN DIFFERENT DISTRICTS OF LOWER SILESIA.

1. District of Bolkenhain.

The annual expenses of a family of about five persons, (three children,) belonging to the working class, were as follows:

Provisions, (per day, 14.4 to 16.8 cents,) per year \$60 00 Rent, (8 thaiers) 576 Fuel 576 Fuel 576 Fuel 576 Fuel 77 20 Rent, (576 Clothing, linen, &c. 14 40 Furniture, tools, &c. 720 Rent, (572; church, 12; commune, 36 \$120 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; commune, 36 \$120 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; commune, 36 \$120 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; commune, 36 \$120 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; commune, 36 \$120 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; commune, 36 \$120 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; commune, 36 \$120 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; commune, 36 \$120 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; commune, 36 \$120 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; commune, 36 \$120 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; commune, 36 Rent State, 0.72; church, 12; church, 12; church, 12; chur

Potel 94 66

The expenses of a laborer's family being 24 to 26.4 cents per day, the earnings should be 28 to 30.8 cents per day, which the head of the family cannot earn. While his earnings are from 17 to 19 cents, the wife earns 8 to 10 cents, and the children must help as soon as old enough. Miners in this district have 24 to 29 cents daily wages; factorymen from 19 to 29 cents; mechanics receive 48 to 54 cents per week, besides board; male house-servants \$17 to \$30, and females \$12 per annum, exclusive of beard and lodging.

2. District of Landshut.

Expenses of a family:	In the country.	In a city.
Rent, per annum		\$10 72
Provisions, (per week, 90 cents,) per annu-	m 46 80 (per week,	\$ 1.08) 56 10
Fuel and light, per annum	14 40	16 42
Taxes, &c., per annum	3 60	4 32
Clothing, &c., per annum		
Other expenses, per annum	.: 7 20	8 57
m	20, 40	100 19

The income of laborers' (weavers') families does not generally reach these amounts. Many are permitted to gather their wood from the royal forests, and spend little for clothing, which they beg from charitable neighbors. A weaver earns here from 48 to 72 cents, \$1 and \$1.50 per week; most weavers have two looms in operation, and together with their wives earn from \$1.50 to \$2.16 per week. The average earnings of weavers are given at 96 cents per week, or about \$50 per annum.

3. District of Hirschberg.

The lowest cost of living for a laborer's family is given at \$64.80 to \$72 per annum, of which are expended for provisions, \$43.30; for clothing, \$17; taxes, \$3.16; fuel, \$3.60; rent, \$4, &c. In the summer the wages for 12 hours' daily work, for males, are from 15 to 39 cents; for females, 5 to 17 cents per day; in winter from 3 to 7 cents less. A male farm-hand receives \$12 to \$22 per year; a boy, \$9 to \$14; a maid-servant, \$12 to \$18 per annum with board.

The annual expenses of a laborer's family, living in a comfortable manner, without

luxuries, would be nearly double the amount actually expended above.

The following is an estimate:	
Rent, (one room, alcove and bed-room)	\$8 64
Fuel and light	14 40
Provisions, (breakfast, coffee; at noon, potatoes, dumpling-10 cents; evening,	
bread, a little brandy—5 cents; supper, soup, bread, vegetables—6 cents)	75 00
Clothing, (husband, \$6.48; wife, \$5.76; children, \$7.20, soap, 72 cents)	20 16
Taxes, &c	2 16
Schooling of children, (2) cents per week per child)	3 60
School-books	72
To lay by for sickness, &c	8 58
Unforeseen expenses	8 58

4. District of Schönau.

The ordinary yearly wages, in addition to board, paid to servants in this rural district, were as follows: Man-servant, \$14.40 to \$21.60; boys, \$8.64 to \$12.96; maid-servants, \$8.64 to \$17.28; child's nurses, \$5.76 to \$12.96.

During the harvest the daily wages for fourteen hours' work are as follows: Mowers, from 19.2 to 28.8 cents; laborers, (males,) from 19.2 to 24 cents; females, from 14.4 to

In other seasons males receive, for ten hours' daily labor, from 14.4 to 19.2 cents, and females 12 to 14.4 cents per day; and in winter males receive 12 cents, and females 7.4 to 9.6 cents. A laborer in the cities receives from 24 to 28.8 cents per day; the "fellows" (journeymen) of trades receive from 60 cents to \$1.20 per week, and board.

A laborer's family of five persons requires for its subsistence during the year the following amount: For provisions, \$72 to \$85.72; rent of one room and three bedrooms, \$4.32; clothing, &c., \$10.80; fuel, &c., \$3.60; taxes, &c., \$3.60. Total, \$108.04.

5. District of Goldberg.

The cost of living of a laborer's family (husband, wife, and two children) in this district is thus given: Provisions, \$75.60; rent, \$4.32; fuel, \$7.20; clothing, \$10.02; furniture, tools, &c., 72 cents; taxes, &c., \$2.28. Total, \$100.14. In less expensive times provisions have been estimated at \$20 less.

In the rural portion men receive 21.6 cents, women 14.4 cents for a day's work; this

average includes higher wages for skilled labor.

On a farm a man-servant receives \$17.20 per year, in addition to board, &c., which may be estimated at \$43.20; a maid-servant receives \$14.40, besides board.

Laborers in stone-quarries earn from 24 to 43.2 cents per day; in cloth factories, 1.8 to 2.2 cents per hour, while the daily wages of carpenters are from 33.6 to 38.4 cents; masons, 33.6 to 45.6 cents; roof-slaters, 33.6 to 45.6.

Shoemakers and tailors receive from 9 to 10 cents, besides their board and lodging, which is valued at 12 cents.

6. District of Löwenberg.

The yearly expenses of a family with three children are estimated at from \$93.60 to \$108, namely:

	City.	Country.
Rent	\$10 60	\$4 39
Provisions, (\$1.20 per week)	62 40	55 73
Fuel and lights	12 66	10 80
Taxes, school, &c	3 60	3 60
Clothing, &c	12 85	12 85
Other expenses	5 76	5 76
Total	107 87	93 05

Wages are as follows:

Men, day-laborers, from 14.4 to 28.8 cents per day; women, 12 to 18 cents per day; men, with board, 9.6 to 14.4 cents per day; women, with board, 7.2 to 12 cents per day. From ten to fourteen hours constitute a day's labor; more hours and harder work secure higher wages.

Male servants per year, \$14.40 to \$36, and board; female, per year, \$8.57 to \$21.60, and

Journeymen in trades obtain the following:

Wages per week with board and	In c	ities.	In the country.		
lodging.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	
Smiths	\$ 0 54 54 54 54 54	\$0 72 72 60 72 72	\$0 42 42 42 30 42	\$0 72 72 72 60 72	

7. City of Greifenberg.

The subsistence of a workingman's family, consisting of five-man, wife, and three children—is thus given :

INCOME.

A mason receives 33.6 cents per day, regular work, thirty-two weeks in the year. Weaving or other work, four months, at 48 to 60 cents per week, say	\$64	52 00 20
Total	79	72
A day-laborer receives 24 cents per day, or \$1.44 per week, regular work, forty weeks	\$57	60
During the rest of the year he and his wife may earn	14	40
Total	72	00

A carpenter earns a little more than a mason, his chances for winter-labor being better. A weaver, working at home, makes less than the day-laborer; those in the factory earn per year, \$72.

EXPENSES OF A PAMILY.

Rent, \$8.64; clothing, \$14.40, (shoes being a large item;) light, \$1.44; fuel, \$5.04; repairing tools, 72 cents; taxes, \$1.44; school for three children, \$1.44. Total, \$33.12. Provisions.—The meals consist of potatoes and bread, their means not being sufficient to allow meat: Potatoes, twenty bushels, \$10.08; bread, (6 cents per day,) \$21.90; coffee, (chiccory, four pounds per week,) \$2.88; butter, (one-half pound per week,) lard, herring, salt, (24 cents per week,) \$12.48. Total, \$47.26. Aggregate expenses, \$80.38. Note.—If the work is not regular, the demands of the family must be curtailed, and

suffering often takes place.

8. District of Görlitz.

Here the condition of the laborer appears more comfortable, since work can be found throughout the year.

Masons and carpenters earn 36 to 43.4 cents per day; railroad-laborers, 26.4 to 28.8;

field-laborers, 21.6 to 28.8, and females, 14.5 to 24.

The lowest expenses for a family consisting of four or five persons are thus computed:

Provisions	\$57	60	to	\$85	72
Rent, lights, and fuel	11	52	to	21	10
Clothing	13	57	to		
Tools, &c.	1	44	to	2	88
School	1	44	to	2	88
Taxes		72	to	1	44

86 29

By careful inquiries it has been ascertained that a family can earn from \$\\$144 a year, so that some lay up small savings. For the city of Görlitz the average income of a laborer's family is estimated to \$144 a year; the expenses for four or five persons, from \$115 to \$172.80, name	at \$95
Rent, lights, and fuel. \$22 72 to Clothing, &c. 14 40 to Tools, furniture, &c. 1 44 to School 4 32 to	\$32 15 21 60 5 76 5 94
Provisions	108 25
Total	172 80
9. District of Glogau.	
Farm-laborers' income:	
Males: 6 weeks in harvest, at 30 cents per day	;
Total,50 weeks	•
Females: 6 weeks, at 12 cents per day, (5 days per week)	
14 weeks, at 9.6 cents per day	
15 weeks, at 8.4 cents per day	
Total, 50 weeks	22 02
Grand total	82 14
Expenses of a family of three children:	
16 sheffels* rye, at \$1.32	\$21 12
2 sheffels wheat, at \$1.80	
2 sheffels barley, at \$1.20	
2 sheffels millet, at \$1.44.	288
24 bags potatoes, at 38.4 cents	923
52 pounds butter, at 19.2 cents	
183 quarte milk, at 24 cents	4 40 14 40
52 pounds salt, at .024	125
Rent, \$5.76; light, \$1.52.	7 23
Fuel, (wood, \$9.72; coal, \$3.18)	13 90
Clothing	18 72 8 00
Total	
As, according to these statistics, a man and wife can earn but \$82.14 per year ciency of \$36.89 must be made up by the work of the children, or by extra late summer, especially at harvest-time.	r in the
10. District of Liegnits.	
Expenses of a family with three children:	
Provisions—bread, 1 pound of flour per head, daily potatoes, 1 bag, or 75 pounds per week, at 18 cents barley, 2 sheffels, at 96 cents.	9 36
ness. 1 sheffel. at \$1.08	108
butter, 1 to 12 pounds per week, 711 pounds per year, at 19 cents.	13 73
milk, 4 quarts daily, at 4 cents	5 84 5 56
salt, 1 pound per week, at 2.4 cents	
coffee, chiccory, sugar	4 32
wheat flour for cake on holidays beer	1 32 90
	70 84

The state of the s		
Rent for a room, a garret-room, and small space, per annum		20 34 00
1 pair of boots	5	76
wife—2 chemises 1 44 1 pair of shoes 1 20 dress, &c. 2 64		
children—6 shirts, at 36 cents each	5	28
	6	48
Soap, for washing		20
Tools, for repair of		44
Taxes—income, 72 cents; communal, 38.4 cents; school, including books, \$2.556.	_	60
Total expenses	112	14
Income of a family with two children: Husbard averages 305 days, at 21.6 cents	26	00
Every married woman receives—1 \$1 80 1 sheffel wheat 2 16 2 sheffels rye 2 16 2 sheffels barley 1 92 1 sheffel peas 1 08		
He can raise on a patch of land 10 bags potatoes, valued at And glean at harvest 3 sheffels of rye or barley For extra work through the year	2 3 8 5	96 88 06 64 76
	123	5 U

In the city of Liegnitz the average expense of a laborer's family is estimated at 141.84 per year.

WAGES IN GERMANY IN 1870.

The following information, in regard to the rates of wages paid in other parts of Germany in the year 1870, was obtained from another source:

Coal-mines in Hanover, Deister River.—Workmen employed, 502;

average annual earnings, \$135.53.

Coal-mines at Kniggenbrücke.—Workmen employed, 141; average monthly earnings, \$10.08 to \$12.24.

Turkish-carpet factory in Silesia.—Males, \$1.80 to \$2.88 per week:

females \$1.08 to \$2.16 per week.

Silk-manufactures in Crefeld .- Employed in 1867: masters, fellows. and apprentices, 20,449; total wages paid, \$2,591,387; average per capita, \$126.70. In 1870, masters, fellows, and apprentices, 28,213; total wages paid, \$3,820,711; average per capita, \$135.45.

The wages of carpenters and builders increased 15 to 20 per cent. in 1870.

Weaving in Osterode.—Weavers and spinners, per day, 30 to 36 cents;

children, per day, 12 to 18 and 24 cents.

Iron-mines near Duisburg.—Employed in 1870, 694 miners, &c.; wages, \$184,400; annual average, \$150.43. Hands, furnaces, &c., employed, 305; wages, \$56,903; average, \$186.56.

Iron-works, "Vulcan."—Melters, per day, 72 cents; job-workers, 53

cents; contract-workers, 63 cents; ordinary hands, 46 cents.

Manufactory of crucibles, retorts, &c.—Hands employed, 159: wages. \$33,409,44; average, \$210.12.

Wharves at Ruhrort.—Laborers, in summer, 72 cents per day: in

winter, 48 cents per day.

Iron works at Borbeck—Employ 237 men, at average daily wages of 53 cents.

Zinc-works at Borbeck—Employ 295 men; total wages for the year.

\$65,900.16; average, \$223.40.

Iron-works at Kupfurdrew—Employ, in mines, 226 men, at average daily wages of 57 cents; in near furnaces, 181 men, at average daily wages of 52 cents.

First-class melters, per day, 99 cents; second-class melters. per day. 76 cents; third-class melters, per day, 62 cents; firemen, per day, 99

cents; laborers, per day, 51 cents.

Salt-works at Lueneburg—Employ 120 men; total wages, \$14,356.80; average, \$119.64.

Iron-works at Lueneburg—Employ 290 men: total wages, \$40.521.60: average, \$139.73.

Gypsum-factory at Lucneburg—Employs 46 men; total wages. \$3,272.40;

average. \$71.14.

Manure-factory at Lueneburg—Employs 70 men; total wages, \$5,400; average. \$77.14.

Cooper-shop at Lueneburg—Employs 34 men; total wages, \$5,703.84;

average, \$167.76.

Coal-mines near Lauban.—Hewers, per day, 46 to 53 cents; drawers, per day, 30 to 44 cents; ordinary laborers, per day, 11 cents.

Railroad works near Lauban - Employ 175 hands; total wages, \$33,336;

average, \$190.49.

FACTORY-LABOR IN 1871.

The following statement of the rates paid for factory-labor has been prepared from the Annual Report of the Chamber of Commerce of Plauen, Saxony, for 1871:

O	•				
Occupations.	W	eok	TÀ A	rag	
Iron-founderies:					
Pattern-makers					88
Locksmiths				2	16
Laborers				1	44
. Apprentices				1	06
In the Upper Erz Mountains:					
Molders	\$ 2	88	to	5	04
Molders' apprentices		16			60
Carpenters	-	••	••		60
Polishers	9	88	to	3	60
Blacksmiths		88			
In founderies at Crimmit-schau:	•	w	w	•	••
Foreman	~	20	+-	10	90
Molders		88			
	z	00	w		60
Joiners	_			•	•-
Apprentices		16			
Smiths	Z	88	to	3	96
Iron-founderies at Reichenbach:				_	~~
Molders					60
Apprentices			to		
Other hands	1	80	to	2	16
Machine-works:					
Turners	3	60	to	8	64
Locksmiths	2	88	to	4	33
Joiners		88	to	5	04
Other mechanics		16	to	2	88
Apprentices	-	72	to	2	16
		. ~	•		

LABOR IN GERMANY.

Machine-works at Werdan: Workmen	\$ 2	16	to:	k 3	60
Machine-works at Zurckau: Locksmiths, turners, &c				4	
Other mechanics	2	42	to	2	88
Apprentices		72	to		16
Smiths					32 60
Locksmiths		70	to	3	25
Machine-works at Plauen:		12	w		
Locksmiths		88			88 60
SmithsJoiners		24 88			60 24
Apprentices	~	~	•	-	72
Laborers. Michine-works at Lower Schlema:					42
Turners Locksmiths		16 52			44 32
Joiners Blacksmiths		64		4	32 88
Apprentices					06
Machine-works at Aue: Turners, locksmiths, &c	1	80	to	2	88
Founders	2	16	to	2	88
Average					10
Some as high as				8	42 04
Other factories pay, average wagesthe best hands	2	16	to	3 5	
Clock and watch factories:				•	••
Superintending the erection of large clocks, per day \$1.80 Watch-makers	2	16	to		
Clock-makers					52 96
Case-makers Joiners				2 2	40
Sign-painters		16	to	2	88
Chain-makers Other workmen	1	80	to		44 16
Tin-ware factory: Tinsmiths	2	16	to	3	60
Silver-ware: Workmen			to		
Spoon-factories:					
Cutters, polishers, &c	1	80	to	4	
Silver-ware works at Reichenbach: Workmen	2	16	to	3	60
Boys			to		
Workmen, with board	2	52		2	
BoysGlass-works:				1	
Laborers	1	44	to	3	60
Males		46		3	
Females	_		to		
Males Females Females	3	55	to		40 25
Textile factories:	1	44 :	+~	1	
Yarn-spinning, girls (over 14 years)				3	06
Washers	2	16	to	3 2	06 10
•					

•	Textile factories:					
	At spreading-machines, (girls)				\$ 2	PR
	Spinners	\$9	49	ŧ٥		
	Pankara	•		-	ž	52
	Overseer					60
	Spinning-master					32
	Ordinary hands	1	20	to	i	80
	Females, (at combing)	_				56
	Other females.	1	06	to	ī	44
	Highest wages		88			
	Rope-makers:				-	
	Best hands	3	60	to	4	22
	Boys, (15 to 17 years of age)	_				44
L.	Cotton factories, (nower-looms:)				_	
•	Cotton-weavers	2	68	to	3	12
	Cotton-weavers, girls, maximum					46
	Cotton-weavers, males, maximum.				5	51
	Another establishment gives the average earnings of—				-	
	Males				2	64
	Females					34
	Maximum rates	4	32	to		
	Woolen-cloth weavers are generally paid according to the number of threads per inch, and ordinarily earn	_		•	-	
	threads per inch, and ordinarily earn	1	80	to	2	16
	Shearers, females	ī	44			
	Shearers, females	ī	80			
	Chain-spoolers	_	••	••	· 1	44
	Bleaching, males	2	70			
	Maximum	_		••	4	32
	Dyeing, males	2	52	to	2	88
	Cloths, cassimeres, &c.:	~		•••	_	
	Walker	3	60	to	5	04
	Rougher	2	52			
	Shearers, girls	ĩ	44	to	2	32
	Card-cleaners	ī	44	to	ĩ	68
	Boys	_		•	ī	20
	Dyers				1	68
	Embroiderers, females	5	36	to		
	Embroiderers on linen, jaconet, &c., net from \$113.76 to \$137.50 per year.	•		••		
	Drawers of designs	2	88	to	5	04
	Lace-weavers and knitters, women		25			
	Girls		72	to	1	32
	Stocking-weavers	1	08	to	1	44
	And exceptionally	ī	50	to	2	16
	Tanners, males	2	88			
	Kid-glove makers:					
	Cutters	10	80	to	21	60
	Sewers, females				2	16
	Dyers				2	88
	Dyers Glove-sewers, per dozen, 67c. to \$1.08.					
	Brush-makers:					
	Males	2	16	to	4	32
	Females	1	00	to	2	16
	Joiners and polishers	2	88	to	5	04
	Wood sawyers:					
	By hand	2	16	to	2	88
	In steam saw-mill	3	60	to	3	96
	In steam saw-mill Shoe-last-factory hands	2	16	to	8	સ
	Basket-makers	1	32	to	2	88
	Book-binders:					
	Men	2	88	to	4	32
	Women	1	44	to	2	33
	Earnings of coal-miners and turf-diggers:					
	Coal-miners, average earnings per year, in 1862\$121 60	1				
		:				
	" " " " 1871 187 92					
	Turf-diggers, per 1,000, from 60 to 70 cents.					
	Turf-cutters, per 1,000, from 18 to 20 cents.					

FACTORY LABOR IN 1872.

In the months of August and September, 1872, the author of this report personally visited the principal manufacturing towns in Germany, especially those in Saxony and Rhenish Prussia, for the purpose of obtaining information in regard to the cost of labor, the condition of the workmen and their families, and the cost of provisions and other articles of domestic consumption. In the prosecution of the inquiry he was aided by the United States consuls, and particularly by the agents of a well-known mercantile firm in New York,* who, at the request of their principals, obtained from the manufacturers from whom they make extensive purchases, statements of the prices paid in each establishment for the various kinds of labor. In submitting the information thus obtained by himself and others, the author expresses his conviction that the utmost confidence can be placed in the accuracy of the figures contained in the following statements:

L-RATES OF WAGES IN GERMANY.

Statements showing the rates of wages paid by manufacturing establishments in Germany in the year 1872.

[Prussian thaler computed at 72 cents United States gold coin.]

[Prussian thater computed at 73 cents United States gold coin.]								
Occupations.	Men. Women.		Children.					
COTTON MANUFACTORIES.								
Manufacture of white cotton goods and em- broideries in Plauen, Saxony.								
Machine-loom, weavers, (12 hours per day)	Per week. \$2 88 to \$3 06	Per week.	Per week.					
Machine-loom, spoolers, (12 hours per day)								
day)		\$1 68 to \$1 80						
Cleaners and winders Finishers Weavers, (chiefly piece-work)	4 32 to 5 76	2 16 to 2 42						
Machine-embroiderers paid by the num- ber of stitches			1					
chines Quilters Mull-weavers		1 50 to 2 16	l					
Auerbach, Saxony.								
Quilters	,	1 44 to 2 16 1 44 to 1 80						
timers)	2 88 to 5 04		72 to 84					
Eibenstock, Saxony.								
Machine-embroiderers	l		72 to 96					

Rates of wages paid by manufacturing establishments in Germany-Cont'd.

Occupations.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Employés working mostly at home: Sewers or embroiderers. Ironers, quilters, &c Machine-embroiderers Lace-makers. Corset-sewers, cutters Glove-cutters Leather-dyers.	\$0 72 to \$0 96 48 to 54	24 to 30 72 to 1 08 29 to 36 24 to 30 36 to 42	•••••••••
Ribbon-quilters Embroiderers of table-covers, &c Sewers of kid gloves Cutters of kid gloves Fancy-box joiners. Assistants	1 08 to 1 44 48 to 60	24 to 36 36 to 60	
Bacrenwalde, Saxony. Lace-factory	2 16	1 44 to 2 16 1 80 to 2 16 1 44 to 2 16	
Silk-velvet factory: Weavers	2 88 to 3 24	2 88 to 3 24	
Rheydt, Prussia. Silk-velvet factory: Weavers Warpers Spoolers. Dressers Day-laborers (Hours of labor, 60 per week.) Viersen, Prussia.	3 60 to 4 68 2 16 to 3 24 2 52 to 3 24 1 44 to 2 16		1 32 to 1 80
Silk-velvet factory: Weavers	3 60 to 5 04 2 88 to 3 24 2 88,to 3 60	2 88 to 3 24 1 44 to 1 68	14410 163
Piece-silks: Dyers	3 24 to 4 32	1 44 to 1 80	1 44 to 1 80

Occupations.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Piece-silks—Continued. Warpers Weavers, on ordinary taffeta silk Weavers, on medium taffeta silk Weavers, heavy taffeta silk Weavers, satin, cotton woof Weavers, Turquoise, cotton woof Weavers, dressers (Hours of labor, 10 to 12 per day.)	3 60 \$3 60 to \$4 32 2 88 to 3 60 3 60 to 4 32 2 88 to 3 60	Per week.	
Rheydt, Prussia. Piece-silks: Weavers, silk	2 88 to 3 60 2 88 to 4 32	1 15 to 1 68 1 80 to 2 16	
Annaberg, Saxony. Fringe-factory: Weavers working on looms, fine work	1	2 16 1 68 to 2 16	1
Fringe-factory: Silk-fringe weavers	2 16 to 2 88 1 44 to 2 16	1 80 to 2 16	
Half silk, and silk fringes, loom-work Half silk, and silk fringes, handwork Half silk, and cotton trimmings, &c. Woolen lace Silk guipure-lace (Hours of labor, 12 per day.) Hohenstein, Saxony.	1 80 to 2 52 1 44 to 2 16 1 08 to 1 80 1 20 to 1 44	1 44 to 2 16	
Cotton hosiery: Workmen at Paget machine Edgers Workers on round looms Formers	2 83 to 3 60	1 20 to 1 44 1 08 to 1 44	

Occupations.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Cotton hosiery—Continued. Finishers Press-hands Packers Hands on sewing-machines (Hours of labor, 10 to 10‡ per day.)	Per week. \$2 52 to \$2 88 \$2 88	Per week. \$0 96 to \$1 20 1 20 to 1 44	Per week.
Lichtenstein, Saxony. Yarn-spoolers	2 88 to 3 60 2 16 to 2 52 3 24 to 3 60 4 32 2 88 to 5 04 5 76 2 88 3 60		
Apolda, Saxony. Manufacture of woolen hosiery: Smooth work on round looms, according to power of machine, per zollpfund* Catching machine, round loom Chain, power-loom Articles of English yarn, up to No. 14. Articles of fine yarn, according as the pattern is more or less difficult Articles of, on covering machines Articles of stitching Articles of catching machines, (hand	06 to 14 04 to 08 06 to 36 94 12 to 1 08 24 to 72 36 to 1 08		•••••
loom) Stocking-weavers, according to ability and kind of work. Hands on machines Packers and other common laborers Sewers (Hours of labor, 10 per day.) Limbach, Saxony.	12 to 29 2 88 to 5 04 2 16 to 2 88	1 80 to 2 88	
Round-loom makers	2 88 to 3 60 2 88 to 3 60	1 44 to 1 80 1 80 to 2 16	
Weavers, middling goods	2 10 2 88 3 60		

^{*} Zollpfund=1.102 pound, United States.

Occupations.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Hohenstein, Saxony. Weavers, average	Per week. \$1 80 to \$3 24	Per week.	Per week.
Schönau, Saxony. Hands on machines Finishers Press-hands Finishers (Hours of labor, 11 per day; overwork paid per hour at the same rate.)	4 32 3 24		
Hand-looms for merinos	2 42 3 84 1 98 1 98	2 16 to 2 88	
Reichenbach, Saxony. Flannel-factory: Wool-assorters Wool-washers Attendants at carding-machines Men at spinning machines Boys at spinning-machines Workers at hand-looms Fullers and finishers Dyers Nappers Press-hands Packers Drying-machine hands Workmasters (Hours of labor, 11 per day.)	2 40 2 28 2 16 to 3 60 2 16 to 2 28 2 16	1 20 1 44 to 1 80	1 20
Gera, Saxony. Woolen cloth: Finishers	2 16 to 4 32		

Rates of wages paid by manufacturing establishments in Germany—Cont'd.

Occupations.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Glauchau, Saxony.	Per week.	Per week.	Per week.
Machine-weaving: Weavers Spooling Shearing Putting in beams Turning in (Hours of labor, 11 per day.)	3 94	\$1 66 1 44	\$1 66 1 32 1 03
Linden, Hanover. Cotton-velvet factory: Weavers	\$3 60 to 4 32 2 88 to 3 60	\$2 16 to 2 88	
Cloth-factory: Wool carders and pickers. Wool-spinners. Weavers on power-looms. Weavers on hand-looms. Warpers. Pressers. Spoolers. Firemen. Machinists. Duren, Rhenish Prussia.	2 16 to 3 24 2 16 2 88 to 4 32 2 52 2 16 to 3 24 2 88 5 04		
Cloth-factory: Wool-assorters Washers Dyers Carders Fine spinners Fullers Shearers Weavers Schwiebus, Saxony.	1 30 to 1 58 2 88 to 3 60 2 16 to 2 60 2 30 to 2 60 2 30 to 2 60 2 30 to 2 60 2 88 to 3 60 2 88 to 3 98		
Cloth-factory: Wool-assorters, (9 hours per day) Wool-pickers, (9 hours per day) Wool-shearers, (13 hours per day) Wool-pressers, (13 hours per day) Wool-dyers, (13 hours per day) Weavers, masters, (13 hours per day) Machinists, (13 hours per day) Luckenwalde.	2 16 2 16	84 84 1 38	
Cloth-factory: Dyers, males, per day, (13 hours) Wool-assorters, females, per day, (13 hours) Knotters, per piece of 30 yards Chain-shearers, for 100 pieces yarn. Spinners, girls, per day, (13 hours). Fine spinners, per 1,000, from 36 cents to 48 cents; per week	39 to 42	18 to 19	9,6 to 12 9 96,4

Occupations.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Cloth-factory: Weavers, according to work and rates Roughers, (13 hours per day,) per week Shearers, girls, (13 hours per day,) per week Fullers, per week	Per week. \$3 60 to \$4 32 1 92 to 2 04 3 60 to 4 32	Per week.	Per week.
Görlits, Silesia. Cloth-factory: Wool-sorters Wool washing and drying Cleaners Carders Knotters Spinners, (contract work) Weavers Fullers and washers Nappers Shearers Dressers Dyers Spongers Card-setters	2 64 3 60 to 4 32 2 40 to 3 76 2 40 to 2 88 2 52 to 2 88 2 52 to 2 88 2 52 to 2 88 2 52 to 2 76	\$1 14 1 68 1 20 1 68	
Sagan, Silesia. Master-workmen Cloth-factories: Spinning— Wool-sorters Washers Warpers Carders Fine-spinners Weavers Weavers Fullers Fullers Pressers Pressers Pressers Fasteners Card-setters, dyers, and heaters, from 41 cents to 48 cents per day.	2 16 to 2 88 1 44 to 1 68 2 16 to 2 88 2 88 to 3 60 2 88 to 3 68 2 16 to 2 52 2 54 to 2 88 3 60 4 32	\$1 26 to 1 44 1 14 to 1 44 1 14 to 1 44 1 14 to 1 44 1 80 to 2 52 2 16 to 2 52 1 44 to 1 80 2 16 to 2 58	1 14 to 1 44
Leipzic. Merchant-tailoring establishment: Making waistocat, 72 cents to \$1.08. Making pantaloons, 84 cents to \$1.08. Making coat, \$3.60. Making frock-coat, \$4.32. Repairing, per hour, 7½ cents.	4 32 to 5 04 4 32 to 5 04		

Occupations.	Men.		7			W	om	en.		Children.	
DULKEN, PRUSSIA.											
	\$ 3	24	to	\$ 5	04			• • • •			
Warpers			to	2	58	\$2	16	to	≥ 8	8	\$1 44 to \$1 80
Dressers	3	24	to	4	32						
PIRNA, SAXONY.											
Weavers					32			•••			
Spoolers		•••	• • •	••	••••	2	16	to	25	2	
PETERSWALDE, BOHEMIA.						l					
Weavers			to	4	14	i	98	to	2 3	4	

CLOTH-FACTORIES, GROSSENHAIN, SAXONY.

Wool-assorters, per day, 38.4, 43.2, and 48 cents; wool-dyers, per day, 36 cents; overwork per hour, 2.6 cents. Spinners: from 1½ to 3 hanks per pound, per 100 hanks, 29 cents; from 6½ to 6 hanks per pound, per 100 hanks, 21.6 cents; from 6½ to 2 hanks per pound, per 100 hanks, 24 cents; cleaners per hour, 2.6 cents; warpers per day, 25.2 cents; overwork, per hour, 2.6 cents; carders (girls) per hour, 1.6 cents; spinners (boys) per day, 12 cents.

Satin-faced-cloth weavers—machine looms: 5,000 threads per hank, 1.2 cents: 6,000 Satin-faced-cloth weavers—machine looms: 5,000 threads per hank, 1.2 cents; 6,000 threads per hank, 1.4 cents; 7,000 threads per hank, 1.6 cents; 8,000 threads per hank, 1.8 to 2 cents; crossweaving 5,000 threads per hank, 1 cent; 6,000 threads per hank, 1.2 cents; 7,000 threads per hank, 1 cent. White-cloth weavers, per hank, ½ cent; colored-cloth weavers, per hank, ½ cent.

Fullers, carders, ahearers, hands at the press: Fullers per day, 31.2 to 33.6 cents, for over-hours, 2.6 to 2.8 cents; card-fitters per day, 30 cents; over-hours, 2.6 cents; hands on machine, per week, \$3.24.

Wages of foremen vary greatly, according to ability.

Cloth factory of Schwiebus, Saxony.	
Male	s. Females.
Washers \$1 3	2
Dyers and spongers	6
Preseman	6
Machinist	2
Fireman 2 1	6
Fullers, (13 hours per day)\$1 80 to 2 0	4
Wool-whelpers, (13 hours per day)	
Wool sorters and pickers, (9 hours)	. \$0 84
Wool washers and dryers	. 84
Wool-carders	1 50
On self-actors	
Shearers, (13 hours)	
Nappers	
	-
Chain spoolers, (females,) per chain of 120 meters (min, 130 yards)	10 cents.
Chain shearers, (females,) per chain of 120 meters.	12 cents.
Chain gluers, (males.) per chain of 120 meters	12 cents.

The overseers of the various factory branches receive, for six working-days, from \$2.88 to \$4.32.

Power-loom weavers, (females,) per 24 meters

FRINGE-MAKING-SCHLETTAU, SAXONY.

The Messrs. Greifenhagen & Co. having their manufacturing done at the homes of the operatives, pay them by the piece and not by the day. For the manufacture of every article several kinds of work-people are required. Therefore, if the skilled laborer will obtain proportionate wages, several must work together in preparing and finishing one and the same design or piece, as for gimps, loops, cloak-trimmings, ornaments. &c.

The lowest wages are paid to those who stitch the design to the prepared paper, viz, $\frac{1}{5}$ cents to $1\frac{1}{5}$ cents per hour, while those who take off such design earn from $1\frac{2}{5}$ to $1\frac{3}{5}$ cents per hour. For finer and more complicated designs, from $\frac{1}{5}$ to $\frac{3}{5}$ of a cent additional are demanded. While there are laborers of more or less skill, the average earnings for ten working-hours are: for adults, from 16.8 to 28.8 cents; and for children from 9.6 to 11.4 cents.

When business is brisk and labor scarce, much higher wages are paid for these articles, which are nearly altogether manufactured at the

houses of villagers.

It has been found impracticable to fabricate these articles in factories, where regular wages could be paid, for two reasons: First, the articles being dependent upon fashion, the demand for them is very irregular; and secondly, few skilled women could be induced to work at establishments to the neglect of their domestic duties.

Weavers of fringes, gimps, &c., are also paid by the piece or meter, and earn, according to skill and industry, from \$1.44 to \$2 per week,

of ten hours per day.

The preparatory and incidental labor, which is chiefly manual, is paid

at from 14 to 2 cents per hour.

Makers of hand and loom curtain-band holders, having become greatly reduced in number on account of the previously very low wages, now command from \$2.16 to \$2.88 per week.

The manufacture of this article also requires much preparatory and incidental labor, for which from \$1.03 to \$2.16 is paid per week, of ten

hours per day.

The lowest wages, viz, \(\frac{2}{3}\) to \(\frac{3}{3}\) cents per hour of persevering labor, is paid for the twisting of the bullion fringes, usually performed by children or other unskilled persons.

Occupations.	Mon.	Women.	Children.
Linens, table-linen, Gross Schoenau, Saxony: Weaver, narrow goods	Per week. \$1 08 to \$3 24 1 80 to 4 32	Per week.	Per week.
Weaver, wide goods			
Manglers	1 44 to 2 16	1 44 to 2 16	
Weavers, narrow goods Weavers, wide goods Bleachers	1 44 to 3 60	1 25 to 1 60 1 80 to 1 68	
Manglers	1 15 to 1 68	100 10 100	

Occupations.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Fancy ticking, Gross Schænau, Saxony: Weavers	Per week. \$1 44 to \$1 80	Per week.	Per week.
Spoolers		\$96 to \$1 08	
Treaders	96 to 1 08		
Dyers	1 80 to 2 16		
Dressers	1 68 to 2 16		
Overseer, dyeing department	3 60 to 3 94		
Overseer, dressing department.	2 88 to 3 24		
(Hours of labor, 12 per day.)			
Striped drill, Sebritz, Saxony:			
Weavers, on power-looms	2 16 to 2 88	2 16 to 2 88	
Spoolers		1 08 to 1 44	
Treaders	1 08 to ·1 44		
Overseer	3 60 to 4 32		
(Hours of labor, 11 per day.)			
Jacquards, Oberlangenbielau, Si- lesia:			
Weavers, mechanical	2 52 to 2 88		•
(Working hours, 12 per day.)			
Weavers, hand	1 44 to 3 60		
Spoolers		72 to 1 08	
Dressers	2 16 to 2 88		
(Hours of labor, 15 per day.)		1	
Carpets, Schmiedeberg, Silesia :		1	
Spinners	2 88	1 44	
Spinners	1 92		
Weavers, on hand-looms	2 16 to 2 88		
Weavers, on power-looms	1 44 to 1 80		
Knotters		1 44 to 2 16	
(Hours of labor, 12 per day.)			
Leather goods, Freiberg, Saxony:			
Pocketbook-makers	2 52 to 5 76		
Cabinet-makers	2 88 to 4 32		
Steel-workers	2 64 to 5 04		
Harness-makers	3 24 to 3 60		
Polishers	2 88 to 4 68		
Day laborers	96 to 1 68		•••••
(Hours of labor, 11 per day.)			
Leather goods, Offenbach-on-the-			
Main:	0.004 = 00		
Pocketbook-makers	3 60 to 7 20		
Book-binders	3 60 to 5 04		
Girdlers	3 60 to 5 04	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Steel-workers	3 96 to 5 04	•••••	
Steel-polisher	3 96 to 4 86	•••••	•••••
(6 days of 11 hours each.)			
Oil-cloths, Crefeld, Prussia:	5 40		
Printers	5 40	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Blackeners	3 60 to 5 04		••••
Day laborers	3 36	3 36	
(6 days of 12 to 13 hours each.)			
Glass beads, Bayreuth, Bayaria:		1 69 40 1 00	en en +- e1 n2
Women and children	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	1 62 to 1 80	\$0 60 to \$1 08
Families with many children earn 2, 40 to 2, 88.		·	
6 days of 11 hours each.)			

PAPER-MILL, BAUTZEN, SAXONY.

Machinists, \$4.68; paper-outters, \$3.60; grinders, \$3.24; firemen, \$3.12; rag-outters, \$2.88; bleachers, \$2.86; laborers, \$2.16 to \$2.52; packers, \$3.12. Children: Assorters of rage; \$1.44; assorters of papers, \$1.44. Hours of labor, 84, per week.

GOLD AND SILVER FRINGES, LACES, ETC., FREIBERG, SAXONY.

Goldsmiths, per week, \$1.80 to \$2.76; 12 hours per day. Wire-drawers, per week, \$2.88 to \$5.76; work at home. Fringe-makers, per week, \$2.64 to \$3.60; work at home. Spinners and embroiderers, (girls,) 72 cents to \$1.44; 12 hours per day. Lace-makers, (women,) 25 cents to 84 cents; work at home.

MACHINE-SHOP, SACHSENHAUSEN.

	Per week.	Piecework.
Machine-locksmiths	\$ 3 24	\$6 48
Building-locksmiths	3 24	6 48
Turners in iron	3 24	6 48
Turners in brass	3 24	6 48
Turners in wood	3 24	4 86
Tinmen	3 24	5 67
Iron-founders	3 24	4 86
Joiners.	3 24	4 86

	Per	month.
Engineers	\$24 30	to \$28 35
Master-workmen	32 40	to 40 50
Master-fitter	20 25	to 28 35
Foreman	40 50	to 48 60

CHIEF MANUFACTURING TOWNS OF GERMANY.

Having in the preceding pages presented statements showing the rates of wages paid for factory-labor in many of the smaller manufacturing towns of Prussia and Saxony, classified by industries, it is now proposed to continue to give similar statements, classified by towns, selecting such as are engaged in the fabrication of articles which, to a considerable extent, find a market in the United States.

BARMEN AND ELBERFELD.

These towns are in fact but one, there being no natural boundary between them, and the stranger who passes along the principal street of this seat of industrial activity is unable to discover where the one terminates and the other commences. The United States consulate being in Barmen, the consular district bears that name.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The following statement, furnished by Mr. Consul Hoechster, will show the kind as well as the value of goods which find a market in this country in a single year:

Statistical statement showing the description and value of merchandise exported to the United States from the consular district of Barmen during the year ended September 30, 1873.

——————————————————————————————————————	,		
Cotton goods, (braids, trimmings, galloons, &c.)	72	4, (155 081 739
Dress and piece goods of silk, half-silk, satins, taffetas	15 21	6, { 4, {	576 508
Buttons and button-stuffs	70	1,4	737 489 066
Sveet, Iron, brass, and nardware and cuttery Dyes and chemicals Miscellaneous	13	6, 1	102 414
Total		<u>.</u>	_
Shipped by way of— Bremen	\$2,98	4, 5	=== 255
Hamburg Antwerp Rotterdam	17 16	0, 1 0, 1	603 779 391
Liverpool and London			763 076

WAGES IN MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS.

The following statements show the weekly earnings of operatives employed in various industries in the consular district of Barmen, Prussia:

Occupations.		M	[en	١.		Women	n.	Children.
Silk and ribbons, Barmen	\$ 3	96	te	\$ 4	32	\$2 52 to	12 88	\$1 68 to \$1 80
Ribbon and silk weavers having their own looms	7	20	to	10	80			
Cotton-braids and trimmings, 10 hours per day	3	60	to	4	32	2 16 to	2 88	1 44 to 1 80
average weekly earnings are Fancy dress-buttons, weavers, 10	5	76	to	8	64		•••••	
hours per day	3	60	to	7	20	2 16 to	4 32	
Weavers of grenadines, satins, &c. Furniture stuffs, (Elberfeld:)	3	96	to	4	14	2 64 to	2 88	1 68 to 1 80
Weavers of worsted damask	4	58	to	5	04			
Weavers of silk damask					76			
Weavers of worsted brocade					48	4		
						j		1 3

Woolen mills, Barmen, average weekly wages for 11 hours of labor.

Occupations.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Wool-sorters Wool-washers. Wool-dyers Overseers. Pickers Carders. Spinners Warpers and beamers. Reelers Overseers. Assistants Weavers Burlers Overseers. Fullers Dressers or giggers Finishers. Press-tenders Drawers. Brushers Packers Overseers Assistants Engineers Mechanics Laborers Foreman	\$3 60 to 3 96 2 52 4 32 4 68 to 7 20 3 24 to 3 60 1 92 to 2 16 4 32 to 4 68 2 52 2 52 2 83 60 to 3 96 3 60 to 3 96 2 52 2 52 2 52 2 52 2 52 2 52 2 52 2	\$1 80 2 04	2 04

ROLLING-MILLS,	
Forge-masters	\$10 80
Assistants	6 48
Foremen of strikers	5 40
Strillorm	1 39

Puddle-masters	88	64 to \$9	36
Puddlers		5	40
Workmen for blooming and looping		6	48
Looping-rollers		8	64
Preparatory rollers		5	76
Rollers		5	04
Drawers and stretchers			32
Welders		12	96
Assistants		7	20
Foremen of finishing rollers		10	80
Assistants		5 76 to 7	20
Hammer-smiths		8	64
Assistants		5	40
Turners and blacksmiths		_ 8	64
Machinists		5	76
Laborers and firemen		4	32

Hours of labor, 12 per day.

Note.—The cost of puddling iron is 75 cents per 10 centner = 1102.3 pounds; of steel,

84 cents per 10 centner.

The coal is about fifteen English miles distant, and costs \$4.14 per centner; the ore is from 8 to 10 miles off.

IRON-FOUNDERIES AND MACHINE-SHOPS.	
•	Per week.
Iron-molders	\$7 20 to \$8 64
Machinists, best	
Machinists, ordinary	5 04 to 6 48
Helpers	4 32
Riveters	5 76 to 6 48
Helpers	
Flangers	
Helpers	4 32 to 5 04
Blacksmiths	5 76 to 8 64
Helpers	4 32 to 5 04
Pattern-makers and carpenters	5 40 to 6 12
Townson	5 04 to 8 64'
Turners	4 20 4 5 76
Fitters	
Laborers	4 32
Hours of labor, 12 per day.	

FACTORY-LABOR IN 1867.

The following valuable and interesting information in regard to the rates of wages in the factories and industrial establishments of Barmen was collected and drawn up with evident practical knowledge by a resident manufacturer, and embodied in a statistical report, published by order of the town council of Barmen. Although the rates of wages in 1867 were much lower than they have been since the war, yet, as they are given in great detail, are presented here:

Statement showing the rates of weekly wages in the town of Barmen during the year 1867.

Trades.	Classification of workmen.	Weekly wages.	Hours of work per day,
Turkey-red yarn-dyers	Journeymen	\$3 24 1 80	11
Color-dyers	Journeymen		11 11
-	Workwomen	\$1 89 to 2 16 5 04	11 11 11
Staff-printing works	Apprentices	2 16 3 12	11 to 111
Piece-dyers	Apprentices	1 62 3 12	11 to 111
Piece-dyers Bleaching works	Journeymen	3 24	11 to 111 11 to 111

Statement showing the rates of weekly wages in the town of Barmen, &c .- Continued.

Trades.	Classification of workmen.	Weekly wages.	Hours of work per day.
Cnitting-yarn and sowing-thread	Workmen, (at piecework)	\$4 39	11
•	Workmen Workwomen, (at piecework) Workwomen	2 16 1 80	11 11
nik-goods manufactory	Jacquard-workers, (piecework)	1 80 182 88 to 4 33	11 Uncertain
Canalla textile fabrics	Treadle-workers, (piecework). Workwomen, (piecework) Workmen	1 44 to 2 88 2 16 3 60	11 to 11 11 to 11
astings, textile	do	2 88 2 59	11
otton-mill	Girls	2 16	11 19
ilk and woolen ribbon, cord, and heald man- ufactures.	Master ribbon-weavers: Common sorts, (piecework).	5 76 8 6 4	
ilk and woolen ribbon and cord manufac-	Better sorts, (piecework) Workmen Female reel-workers	2 52 to 3 60 2 52	13
turers.	Workmen	9 16 to 9 88 1 80 to 9 16	10
	loom, (piecework.)	3 96	15
ndia-rubber manufactories	Boys Power-loom weavers:	72 to 1 44	(")
	Journeymen, (piecewerk)	3 60 to 7 92	1
	Winders: Men, (piecework) Women, (piecework)	2 52 to 3 06 2 16	1
	Boys, (piecework) Factory-hands:		(1)
•	In binding-room		1
	Reel-workers, women Out-workers	9 16 5 76 to 11 59	
	Hand-winders	1 44 to 2 88	
loap and candle manufactories	Workwomen.	2 88 1 68	
Chemical works	At the reverberating-furnace. At the pyrites-furnace.	3 96	
	At other processes Handicraftsmen Drivers	3 60 to 3 96	1 .
Iron, steel, and hardware manufactories	HelpersSmiths	3 06 2 88 to 3 60	
	Average workmen	2 88 1 08 to 2 16	
ron-founderies	Molders Journeymen	2 64	
Boiler and machine makers	Turners Boiler-makers		i
	Smiths Hammerers Apprentices	3 24	I
Percussion-cap manufactories	Workmen	3 96	î .
Sutton-manufactories	Boys and girls, (piecework) Boys and girls from 17 to 20	79 to 1 08 1 44 to 2 04	(*)
	years of age, (piecework.) Cutters, (piecework) Stampers, polishers, &c., (piece-	2 40 to 3 19 3 24 to 4 39	
Plating-works	work.) Turners, (piecework)	4 32 to 5 76	
Whip-manufactories	Boys and girls Workmen Boys and girls		1
Piano-manufactory and organ-building	Workmen	9 70	1 ''
	Organ-buildersOther workman	4 90 3 60	
Lithographic establishments Letter-press printing-offices	Workmen	3 60	1
Bookbinding	Printers	28 88	1
masons, bunuers, brickmakers, plasterers	Journeymen masons	9.56	1
	Carpenters	3 60	

^{*} As regards boys and girls, or "juvenile operatives," the hours of labor are limited in conformity with the regulations laid down by the industrial code, Gewerbe-Ordinung. Digitized by Google

MECHANICAL AND FARM LABOR IN 1873.

The daily wages of mechanics in Barmen and vicinity in the year 1873 were as follows:

Blacksmiths, bricklayers or masons, carpenters, miners, machinists, painters, tailors, tanners, and tinsmiths, 96 cents and upward; cabinetmakers and coopers from 72 cents to 84 cents; stone-cutters and wheelwrights, \$1.08; tailors receive, with board, \$1.44 per week.

Agricultural laborers, ordinary hands, receive \$86.40, and experi-

enced hands \$108, yearly, with board.

The price of board, per week, ranged from \$2.52 to \$2.88 for workmen. and \$2.16 to \$2.52 for workwomen.

In a letter, transmitting the above statistics of labor. Mr. Consul Hoechster, under date of October 17, 1873, writes:

Since my last year's report on the same subject, there has been no change in the condition of the laboring classes in this consular district. In some instances strikes occurred during the last summer, and employers were obliged to raise the wages of occurred during the last summer, and employers were obliged to raise the wages of their workmen about 25 per cent., especially in the hardware and cutlery trade, but owing to the dullness of business in autumn the wages went down again, and are now about the same as last year. As business gradually grew worse many of the factories were obliged to dismiss a part of their workmen. Some of them left for other places, but the greater part found employment as common laborers on street improvements, and principally on the street railways which were built this year in the cities of Barrana and Blackers. men and Elberfeld.

DÜSSELDORF.

This old town, more celebrated for the fine arts than for manufactures, having a school of painting and a school of architecture, exports to the United States woolen cloths and a variety of other articles, the products of the mills and factories in the neighborhood. The following table shows the value and kind of the principal articles which find a market in the United States:

Statement showing the description and value of merchandise exported to the United States from the consular district of Düsseldorf in the year ended September 30, 1873.

Artioles.	Value.
Voolen cloths	\$863, 50
lardware and cutlery	140.57
Il paintings aromo-lithographs and engravings rtists' colors and materials	43, 69 2, 35
Itists' colors and materials	3, 50
fibbons, bands, braids, and trimmings	
liscellaneous	92, 36 15, 43
Total	

PRICES OF FACTORY AND OTHER LABOR.

In transmitting the following rates of wages Mr. Lewis, United States consular agent, makes the following observations in regard to the rise in the price of labor over that of former years:

MY DEAR SIR: In reply to your circular I beg to submit the following answers to your inquiries, remarking that the prices here given are exceptional and are in many instances double what they were at this time last year. That these prices will be mainsained is doubtful, but it is the opinion of the owners of these works that they may somewhat recede, but not to the standard of former years. The causes have been chiefly owing to the great advance in the price of all necessaries of life and also in house-rent, and the consequent rise in the price of all kinds of labor, and as this is the great question of the day here, until that question is settled on a permanent basis, these great fluctuations will continue. All the raw material is at least 50 per cent. higher than it was at this time last year, and in some articles, such as pig-iron and coal, the advance has been 100 per cent. The wages of the work-people have not, I find, advanced in the same ratio, the advance being on the average not more than 37 per cent.

IRON FURNACES.

Cost of pig-iron per ton October, 1872	\$4	3 20
Cost of pig-iron per ton in 1870-71	2	1 60
Cost of coal at works, per ton, 1872		4 23
Cost of coal at works, per ton, in 1870-771	\$2 52 to	288

Daily wages of skilled workmen: Smelters, 84 cents; furnace-feeders, 72 cents; mixers or puddlers, 66 cents; coke puddlers, 60 cents; slag carriers, 68 cents; enginemen, 66 cents; firemen, 60 cents; laborers, 60 cents; emiths and fitters, 70 cents; model-makers, 77 cents; carpenters, 68 cents; masons, 96 cents; ore and limestone puddlers, 70 cents; limestone breakers, 96 cents; coke burners, 84 cents.

Hours of labor from 6 a. m. to 6 p. m., and the reverse, the labor being continued through the night. Out of this one hour is allowed for dinner and one-half hour for breakfast, and the same at 4 o'clock, making in all 10 clear hours of labor. A certain portion of the labor of these works must be carried on on Sundays as well as on weekdays, and these men obtain an advance price for Sunday-work.

IRON-FOUNDERIES AND MACHINE-SHOPS.

Machinists and turners, (best workmen)	\$0	96 to \$	08 per day.
Machinists and turners, second class	•	68 to	72 per day.
Machinists and turners, inferior			55 per day.
Boiler-makers			44 per day.
Assistants or riveters		68 to	72 per day.
Helpers or laborers			68 per day.

WOOLEN MANUFACTORIES.

The working hours are from 6 o'clock in the morning until 7 in the evening, with the same time for meals as in the founderies, viz: one hour for dinner, and balf an hour each for breakfast, and coffee at 4 o'clock. The prices of the different kinds of labor are as follows:

Wool-sorters from 84 cents to 96 cents per day; wool-washers from 86 to 96 cents per day; girls for carding from 24 to 29 cents per day; women from 34 to 38 cents per day; spinners generally work by the piece and earn from \$1.08 to \$1.20 per day; children from 14 to 15 years of age from 24 cents to 27 cents per day; children from 15 to 29 years of age from 41 cents to 46 cents per day.

Much of the above work is also done by the piece, and the earnings depend on the industry of the workmen.

MECHANICAL LABOR.

Carpenters, first class, earn from \$1.08 to \$1.20 per day. Time of work from 7 in the morning to 7 in the evening, in summer; half hour allowed for breakfast and at 4 clock, and one hour for dinner.

allowed for breakfast and at 4 o'clock, and one hour for dinner.

Cabinet-makers, 84 cents per day. Time of labor as above. Masons from 96 cents to \$1.08 per day. Time of work in summer from 6 in the morning until 7 in the evening. In winter from 7 in the morning until dark. Work here can be carried on the greater part of the winter; the average loss of time from very cold weather, when such work cannot be done, would not be more than one month.

Ornamental plasterers			3 1	44 per day. 72 per day.
Plasterers	1	08 to	1	32 per day.
House painters and grainers		84 to	1	08 per day. 20 per day.
Gas-fitters and housesmiths		72 to	1	20 per day.
Shoemakers, first class		84 to		96 per day-
Shoemakers, second class		72 to		84 per day.
Tailors		60 to		96 per day. 84 per day. 84 per day.
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AGRICULTURAL LABOR.

Laborers in this district are seldom employed by the year. When such is the case they receive from \$2.88 to \$4.32 per month, with board, and sleep on the farm where they are employed, usually over the stables. Married people are seldom or never hired in this manner; they rent or buy a small cottage and small plat of ground which they cultivate, usually keeping a goat or cow; if the latter, it is employed in plowing and hauling the little two-wheeled cart of the proprietor.

AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, PRUSSIA.

This town, where Charlemagne was born, lived, and is entombed; where till 1558 the German emperors were crowned; where the treaties of 1668 and 1748 were held, celebrated also for its sulphur baths, is a center of Rhenish industry, among which the cloth manufacture is the most extensive. Indeed, a reference to the following statement will show that woolen cloths comprise 74 per cent. of the value of exports from this district to the United States:

Exports from Aix-la-Chapelle to the United States during the year 1872.

Articles.	Value.
oolen cloth	\$2,038,13
me and lead	182 2
ms and needles	67. 39
Total.	l

FACTORY AND MECHANICAL LABOR.

The following tables show the rates of wages paid for factory and other kinds of labor in Aix-la-Chapelle and vicinity:

CT OFTE PACTORIES

CLOTH-FACTORIES.					
		1	Per '	Wee	k.
Wool-glossers	\$1	80	to	\$ 2	16
Wool-assorters	•			2	16
Wool-dressers	1	86	to	2	16
Wool-spinners		60		4	32
Wool-weavers		60		5	76
Pallers	_	••	••	-	88
Carders				2	88
Wool-pickers	1	80	to	2	16
Shearers				2	88
Dyers				2	88
Firemen				4	32
Press-hands	2	88	to	3	60
Loom-cutter	-			2	88
Spooler				ĩ	80
Gluer				3	60
Card-setter				5	40
Burlers				2	
Spinners' foreman	5	76	to	7	
Weavers' foreman		04		5	
Carders' foreman		32		5	04
Spoolers' foreman	-		••	4	
Fallers' foreman	4	32	to	5	76
Shearers' foreman	4	32	to	5	04
Dyers' foreman	5	04	to	5	76
Foremen at the press	4	32	to	5	04
Spinners of worsted yarns	4	32	to	5	04
Master weavers of worsteds	-	>		Ž.	20
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MACHINE-WORKS.

MACHINE-WORKS.			
Per	day.		Piece- work.
Machine-mounters \$0	96		1 20
	72	•	96
AdjustersTurners	72		96
	67		90 86
Borers	72		96
Clay-molders	60		90 80
Sand-molders			96
Coal-miners, at piecework	84		90
Coal-dumpers, at piecework	72	Per da	_
34 11 1			•
Machinists			1 08
Blacksmiths	•		72
Locksmiths	••		96
Carpenters		67 to	86
Cabinet-makers			72
Masons		72 to	83
Painters			60
Plasterers			83.
Shoemakers	••		79
Harness and saddle makers	• •		60
Agricultural labor	••		48
•			-
CARRIAGE-MAKERS.			
CARRIAGE-MAKERS.		Pe	r day.
		Pe	. •
Body-makers	••••		0 92
Body-makers		•••••	0 92 1 06
Body-makersTrimmersVarnishers	•••••	•••••	1 08 1 72
Body-makers	•••••	•••••	0 92 1 06
Body-makersTrimmersVarnishers	•••••	•••••	1 08 1 72
Body-makers	•••••	• • • • •	1 08 1 72
Body-makers	•••••	•••••	1 08 72 66
Body-makers. Trimmers. Varnishers. Blacksmithe. GLOVE-MAKERS.	•••••		1 06 72 66
Body-makers Trimmers Varnishers Blacksmithe GLOVE-MAKERS. Cutters Tanners.	•••••		1 08 72 66 1043 72
Body-makers. Trimmers Varnishers Blacksmithe GLOVE-MAKERS. Cutters. Tanners Dyers. Workwomen			1 08 72 66 10 43 72 72
Body-makers Trimmers Varnishers Blacksmiths GLOVE-MAKERS. Cutters Tanners Dyers			1 08 72 66 72 66 10 43 72 72 86
Body-makers. Trimmers Varnishers Blacksmiths Cutters. Tanners Dyers Workwomen Workwomen on fine work			1 08 72 66 72 66 10 43 72 72 86
Body-makers. Trimmers Varnishers Blacksmiths Cutters. Tanners Dyers Workwomen Workwomen on fine work			10 92 1 08 72 66 10 43 72 72 86 1 44
Body-makers. Trimmers Varnishers Blacksmiths GLOVE-MAKERS. Cutters. Tanners Dyers Workwomen Workwomen Workwomen on fine work Hours of labor, 66 per week.	•••••	Per	10 92 1 08 72 66 10 43 72 72 86 1 44
Body-makers. Trimmers Varnishers. Blacksmiths GLOVE-MAKERS. Cutters. Tanners Dyers. Workwomen Workwomen on fine work Hours of labor, 66 per week.	•••••	Per	1 08 72 66 10 43 72 72 86 1 44
Body-makers. Trimmers Varnishers Blacksmiths GLOVE-MAKERS. Cutters. Tanners Dyers. Workwomen Workwomen Workwomen on fine work Hours of labor, 66 per week. NEEDLE MANUFACTURE. Whetters. Cutters.	•••••	Per	1092 108 72 66 1043 72 72 86 144 week. 1694 396
Body-makers. Trimmers Varnishers Blacksmiths GLOVE-MAKERS. Cutters. Tanners Dyers Workwomen Workwomen Workwomen on fine work Hours of labor, 66 per week. NEEDLE MANUFACTURE. Whetters Cutters Blue-dyers.		Per	1 08 72 66 10 43 72 86 1 44 week. 16 94 3 96 4 68
Body-makers. Trimmers Varnishers Blacksmiths GLOVE-MAKERS. Cutters. Tanners Dyers. Workwomen Workwomen on fine work Hours of labor, 66 per week. NEEDLE MANUFACTURE. Whetters. Cutters. Blue-dyers. Polishers.		Per	1 08 72 66 10 43 72 72 72 86 1 44 week. 16 94 3 68 3 65
Body-makers. Trimmers Varnishers Blacksmiths GLOVE-MAKERS. Cutters. Tanners Dyers. Workwomen Workwomen Workwomen on fine work Hours of labor, 66 per week. NEEDLE MANUFACTURE. Whetters. Cutters.		Per	1 08 72 66 10 43 72 86 1 44 week. 16 94 3 96 4 68

COLOGNE, PRUSSIA.

Although this old Boman town is now more celebrated for its cathedral, its perfumed water, and the two bridges over the Rhine—the one of boats for ordinary travel, and the other the railway bridge, a fine specimen of modern engineering—than for its industrial establishments, yet in its vicinity there are mills and factories which produce goods for the American market, as the following statement will show:

Statement showing the exports from Cologne to the United States in the year 1872.

Articles.	Value.
elvets and ribbons	
6894	149 17
utlery Yool, manufactures of fiscellaneous	79.1
Total	

Weekly wages of mechanics.

Trades.	Wages.	Hours per day.	
Blacksmiths Carpenters Carpenters, on piecework Coopers Masons Masons, on piecework Masons, on piecework Masons, on piecework Masons, on piecework Masons, on piecework Masons, on piecework	4 32 5 04 6 48 to 7 20 6 48 and up- wards. 4 32 to 5 76	11 9 11 11 11 9 to 10	
Plasterers Shoemakers	5 76 to 8 64 2 88 to 4 32 1 44 to 2 16	8	

On piecework larger earnings are obtained. Tanners, tinsmiths, and wheelwrights, \$5.76 and upward; bakers, \$4.32 to \$8.64—12 to 13 hours.

Laborers in sugar and other factories earn from \$2.64 to \$3.60 per week—working 11 hours per day.

Women are generally paid 36 cents, and girls 24 to 28 cents per day of 10 to 11 hours.

Experienced farm-laborers per day, without board, 72 cents; ordinary farm-laborers, with board, 43 to 48 cents; common laborers, without board, 60 cents; female servants, per month, \$2.16 to \$3.60.

NOTE.—Workmen's families pay rent for one room, from \$1.44 to \$2.16 per month; and for two rooms, from \$2.88 to \$4.32. No family occupies more than two rooms.

Children are required by law to attend school until 14 years of age.

School fee, 12 groschen (29 cents) per month.

There has been but little change in the rates paid for mechanical and farm labor in the district of Cologne, since the visit of the author in 1872. Mr. Hölscher, United States consular agent, transmitted the following figures expressive of the daily wages of the above classes during the year 1873:

Blacksmiths, bricklayers, or masons, carpenters, machinists, and tailors, 1½ thalers per day, (\$1.08;) stone-cutters, \$1.20; cabinet-makers, \$1.44; plasterers, \$1.80; hod-carriers, tanners, tinsmiths, and wheelwrights, 96 cents; painters, 84 cents; coopers and shoemakers, 72 cents; and miners, from 84 cents to \$1.44; farm-laborers, from 43 to 48 cents, with board, in summer; and from 34 to 38 cents in winter. Laborers, at other than farm-work, earned 60 cents per day without board.

Female servants obtained from \$2.16 to \$3.60 per month with board. Price of board per week, from \$1.68 to \$2.52 for workmen; and \$1.44 for workwomen.

BERLIN.

This famed capital of Prussia, and now, also, of the German Empire, affords employment to thousands of work-people in the iron, woolen, leather, and various other industries for which she is celebrated.

The manufactures which find a market in the United States are indicated in the following statement of exports from that consular district:

Value of goods, wares, and merchandise exported to the United States from the Berlin consular district during the year ended September 30, 1873.

Articles.	Value.
Foolen cloth and cloakings	*\$1, 202, 7
oolen shawls	68.6
eady-made ladies' dresses, cloaks, woolen, &c	490, 6
Vorsted varn	41.4
Vorsted yarn	292.3
otton goods	85, 9
nen goods	331,5
lk goods	
askot wares	
annfactures of leather, wood, iron, sinc	962.0
ancy paper, cards, and paper boxes	140.8
noka lithographa printa paintinga &s	231.2
ooks, lithographs, prints, paintings, &c heincals, spothecaries' utensils licutific apparatus, surgical, optical, musical	150, 1
ientific apparetus surgical antical musical	54.8
eather gloves	195. (
nitation jet, (ornaments of black glass)	66.0
lass and porcelain wares.	51, 3
iquors, wine, sirup, &c.	
ead and machinery	409.9
au anu macmuury	900.6
iscellaneous goods	300,0
Total	4, 490, 9

^{*} The thaler computed at 72 cents.

FACTORY LABOR.

The following rates of wages were paid in 1872 by the proprietors of cloth and other factories in or near Berlin:

	por .		Per week.							
Occupations.		Hours Men.		Women.	Children.					
hawl-factory:										
Spoolers		10		\$2 16 to \$2 52						
Warpers		LO	\$4 78 to \$5 76							
Weavers on hand-looms		LO	4 32 to 5 76		[
Weavers on power-looms		10		2 52 to 2 88						
Washers		LO	3 94							
Dyers		10	3 94							
Gluers		10	3 60							
Carders		10	9 88 to 3 94							
Fullers		10	3 60 to 4 39	1 80 to 2 16						
Shearers		10		1 80 to 2 16						
Pressers		10	5 04 to 5 76							
Beaters		10	5 76							
Burlers		10		2 16 to 3 24						
Laborers		10	2 88 to 3 24							
Fringe-makers	1	10		9 52						
adies' cloaks:			!	l	l					
Seamstresses, (cloaks)	10 to 1			2 16 to 5 04						
Seamstresses, (costumers)				1 80 to 5 76						
Cutters out			4 68 to 7 90							
Ironers			······	4 39						
Embroiderers	10 to 1	13	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	3 60 to 7 20						
ancy silk trimmings:	. ا		l 	1						
Makers of fringe, gimps, &c.		10	5 04 to 8 64	1 80 to 4 39	\$1 722 20 Ar					
Uverseers	,	10	*28 20 to 36 00		· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •					
old and silver trimmings:			1	l	l					
Fringe-makers	10 to 1	13	4 39 to 5 04							
Platers.			4 68 to 6 48							
Wire-drawers	10 to 1		5 76 to 6 84	·····						
Spinners	10 10 1	13	5 40 to 7 20	1.1.00.4.0.50	·····					
Spinners on power-looms	10 10	13	[·····	1 80 to 2 53						
Hand-made goods	1 10 10 1	12	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1 x 10 to x 88						

^{*} Per month.

LABOR IN GERMANY.

MECHANICAL LABOR.

Rates paid for mechanical labor in Berlin.

_ Occupations.	Per day.*	Occupations.	Per day.
Skilled workmen: Basket-makers Blackamiths Brewers Carpenters Carvers Cigar-makers, males Cigar-makers, females Coopers Coopers Coppersmiths Engineers, steam Factory-hands, men Factory-hands, women Factory-hands, children Glove-makers Joiners Locksmiths Machinists Masons Millers	\$0 66 73 73 1 20 72 72 72 72 73 60 60 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73	Skilled workmen—Continued. Nail-makers. Paper-makers. (fancy.) men Paper-makers. (fancy.) women. Piano-makers Ready-made garments, makers of, women. Roofers Saddlers. Saleamen or clorks Seamstresses Shoemakers. Stokers. Tailors. Tanners. Turners. Weavers Laborers: In city	\$0 66

^{*} Hours of labor, from 6 a. m. to 7 p. m.

WAGES IN IRON-WORKS.

The largest and most celebrated establishment in Germany for the manufacture of all kinds of engines and machinery is that of Mr. Borsig, in Berlin. Want of time prevented a personal call at his works, which are open to the public on payment of a small fee; and it was deemed highly important to obtain the rates of weekly wages for the various kinds of skilled labor employed in the works. A request by our consul at Berlin for the desired information elicited a polite but evasive note from the proprietor,* which was equivalent to a refusal; while an application to the Statistical Bureau of Prussia proved equally unsuccessful. But the difficulties that beset this search after knowledge served to stimulate to increased exertion, which resulted in complete success, for Mr. Kreismann shortly afterward obtained from the German Amalgamated Engineers' Society the following official statement of the wages received by the members of this union, not only in the works of Mr. Borsig, but in all other establishments of a similar character.

Mr. H. Kreismann, Consul of the United States of America, Berlin. A. BORSIG.

^{*} Under date of Berlin, October 22, 1873, Mr. Borsig writes:

SIR: In reply to the communication of the 18th inst., I regret to be unable to furnish the statistics desired, as, in my works, no such tables of rates of wages as the blanks inclosed call for are made up. I, therefore, return them herewith.

Respectfully.

Statement showing the average rate of wages paid, in 1873, to persons employed in the iron-founderies and machine-shops in the city of Berlin, Prussia.

Occupations.	No. of persons.	Average week- ly wages, (in United States gold coin.)			
Iron-molders.	1, 900	87 90 to 88 64			
Machinists, best		7 90			
Machinists, ordinary		5 76 to 7 90			
Machinists, inferior	850	4 39 to 5 76			
Helpers		9 88 to 4 38			
Boiler-makers		6 48 to 7 90			
Helpers		4 32 to 6 48			
Riveters		5 76 to 7 90			
Holders-on		4 39 to 5 %			
Flangers		7 90 to 8 64			
Helpers		3 60 to 4 39			
Blacksmiths	. 1 800	7 20 to 8 64			
Relpers	1,900	3 60 to 5 04			
Foremen		8 64 to 10 80			
Engineers	700	5 76			
Pattern-makers and carpenters	900	5 76 to 7 20			
Assistants.		3 60 to 5 04			
Laborers, carters, &c.		2 88 to 4 39			
Apprentices		72 to 2 16			
MiDwrights	300	7 20 to 10 08			
Assistants	400	5 76 to 6 48			
Brass-founders	150	7 90 to 8 64			
Fitters		3 60 to 5 64			
Turners	500	6 48 to 8 64			

Hours of labor per week, 60.

Products: Locomotives, machine castings, columns, tubes, pipes, machines, steam-engines and took, steam-boilers, pipes, agricultural machines, implements, railroad-cars.

RUD. RAUSCH, Secretary of the Berlin branch of the German Amalgamated Engineers' Society.

BERLIN, November 15, 1873.

The value of the foregoing table is enhanced by the fact that of the 16,800 employes whose weekly earnings are therein given, the number engaged in each of the various subdivisions of labor is stated, thus affording data for an accurate computation of the average earnings of skilled and of unskilled laborers engaged in the various iron-works of Berlin.

The average weekly wages of the 10,100 skilled workmen is \$6.88; of the 4,500 helpers and assistants, \$4.38; of the laborers and carters, \$3.60; and of the 200 apprentices, \$1.44—computed in United States gold coin.

BUILDING-TRADES.

The influx of material wealth, after the termination of the war with France, gave a marked impetus to new enterprises, largely advanced the price of real estate, and induced the erection of a large number of buildings in Berlin.

Real estate advanced as rapidly, and changed hands as frequently, as in some of our western cities in previous years. The owner of a corner property in the celebrated Unter der Linden, not far from the Brandenburg gate, was, at one time, offered only 100,000 thalers, which he was advised to refuse, but in a few months afterward he obtained upwards of 200,000 thalers.

The activity in the building-trades caused a great demand for skilled labor which rapidly advanced in price, reaching figures previously unknown in Germany.*

^{*} Since the above was written the price of real estate has declined, the demand for skilled labor has been less active, and the rates of wages have, consequently, been reduced.

The following tables show the rates existing in Berlin during the eight months ending with the month of August, 1874:

WAGES OF MASONS AND CARPENTERS IN BERLIN IN 1874.

Statement showing the number of men actually employed by the Association of Master Masons, Carpenters, and Builders, with prices paid per day of ten hours."

sons, (Carpen	itere, c		uilderi ONS:				-	day o	f ton i	hours.	•	
Month.	\$1.02.	\$1.08.	\$1.14.	\$1,90.	\$1.96.	\$1.32.	\$1.38.	\$1.44.	\$1.50.	\$1.56.	\$1.62.	\$1.68.	\$1.80.
January February March April May Jane Jane August		1 1	4 9 5	15 14 98 55 34 41 38 35	11 19 17 20 18 17 23 26	28 31 33 55 46 42 46 44	21 19 15 14 14 14 11 19	64 79 98 108 119 117 113 108	91 13 13 19 10 11 7	14 23 16 14 15 16 21 22	7 10 6 5 5 4 7	26 19 20 20 25 23 21 29	28 30 16 14 16 19 18 15
PERCENTA	GE OF	MAS	TER	MASO	NS E	MPLO	YED .	AT E	ACH (F AB	OVE	RATE	8.
January February March Arch May June July August		0. 83	1. 64 0. 79 0. 37 1. 65	6. 20 5. 50 1. 49 17. 35 11. 22 13. 49 12. 46 11, 59	10. 44 6. 39 6. 60 5. 59 7. 54	11. 57 19. 90 6. 34 17. 35 15. 51 13. 81 15. 08 14. 57	3.61	26. 45 31. 10 36. 52 34. 07 36. 97 38. 49 37. 05 35. 74	8. 67 5. 19 4. 85 3. 75 3. 30 3. 69 9. 29 1. 33	5. 78 9. 06 6. 40 4. 42 4. 95 5. 96 6. 89 7. 29	2.89 3.94 2.24 1.58 1.65 1.31 2.29 2.32	10. 74 7. 48 7. 45 6. 32 8. 25 7. 57 6. 89 9. 60	11. 58 11. 81 6. 40 4. 42 5. 28 6. 25 5. 90 4. 97
		Ċ.	ARPE	NTER	8-M	astri	s wo	RKME	N.				
January February March April May June July August		3	8 8 8 11 8 3	96 94 95 97 36 99 43	25 19 23 37 33 33 36 26	25 25 26 46 29 30 21 23	5 9 9 14 9 7 13 8	32 39 43 44 49 46 50	5 4 4 8 3 3 3 2	10 10 11 8 12 10 13 13	3 3 4 1 3 2 2	19 11 7 6 8 7 8	11 11 8 9 8 10 , 8
PERCENTAGE	OF M	ASTE	R CA	RPEN	TERS	EMP	LOYE	D AT	EAC	H OF	A BO∀	E RA'	TES.
January February March April May June July August		1.58	4.84 5.12 4.48 5.79 4.55 1.60	16. 04 15. 38 15. 94 14. 22 19. 22 16. 48 22. 87	15. 49 12. 11 14. 02 21. 51 17. 37 17. 65 14. 78 14. 36	15. 49 16. 12 15. 85 26. 74 15. 26 16. 04 11. 93 12. 23	3. 09 5. 77 5. 49 8. 14 4. 74 3. 74 7. 38 4. 25	19. 75 20. 51 23. 78 25. 00 23. 16 26. 21 26. 13 26. 60	3. 09 9. 56 9. 44 4. 66 1. 58 1. 61 1. 13 1. 60	6. 17 6. 41 6. 71 4. 66 6. 32 5. 35 7. 39 6. 91	1. 95 1. 92 9. 44 0. 58 1. 58 1. 08 1. 13 1. 07		6. 79 7. 05 4. 88 5. 29 4. 20 5. 35 4. 55 5. 38
			J	OUR	EYM	EN M	ASON	8.					
Month.		Und'r \$0.96.	\$0.96 .	\$1.02.	\$1.08.	\$1.14.	\$1.90.	\$1.96.	\$1.32	\$1.38.	\$1.44	\$1.50 .	\$1.56,°
January February March April May June July	•••••	34 2 2	45 45 90 163 11 14 16	124 164 438 414 141 73 49	439 499 1, 034 1, 711 1, 985 1, 917 1, 709	611 648 262 252 334 769 1,094	250 140 83 30 84 139 167	15 10 7 19	10 13 5	5 4 8			9

^{*}In the original tables the prices are stated by the hour at one-tenth of the rates in the above statements. For a working day of nine hours, as in England, the respective rates would be: .918, .972, 1.026, 1.08, 1.134, 1.188, 1.242, 1.296, 1.35, 1.35, 1.458, 1.512, and 1.62 per day.

46 1,560 1,112

136

16

Statement showing the number of men actually employed, Ac.—Continued.

PERCENTAGE OF JOURNEYMEN MASONS EMPLOYED AT EACH OF ABOVE RATES. L

T T

1 1

January February March April My June July August	1. 73 0. 08 0. 08 0. 03	3. 01 2. 98 4. 58 6. 34 0. 42 0. 48 0. 52 0. 57	10. 77 22. 35 16. 10 5. 50	28. 93 32. 30 52. 64 66. 52 77. 07 65. 43 55. 79 54. 11	42.5 13.3 9.7	4 9. 19 4 4. 92 9 1. 17 5 3. 28 5 4. 75 9 5. 44	0. 95 0. 99 0. 50 0. 27 0. 40 0. 45 0. 25	0. 68 0. 85 0. 25 0. 22 0. 20 0. 19 0. 11	0. 34 0. 26 0. 40 0. 03 0. 03	0.06 0.11 0.96 0.35	0.08	0.19
		JOU	RNEY	ME	T CA	RPENT	ERS.					
January February March April May Jupe July August	9 7 2	31 77 50 36 35 18 9	165 197 173 169 131 116 75 68	421 380 422 582 639 747 841 900	33 35 35 43 41 45 50	9 169 9 179 0 232 2 203 7 186 4 215	54 67 54 34 39 39 48 47	23 32 18 25 21 26 21	7 8 7 10 2 3 3	2 2 2 3 5 3	3 3 3	1
PERCENTAGE OF JOU	RNEY	MEN	CARP	ENT	ERS	EMPLO	YED .	AT E	сно	F ABO	VE R.	ATES.
January February March April May June July August	0. 70 0. 47 0. 13 0. 06	2. 37 6. 39 3. 99 2. 42 2. 34 1. 16 0. 52 0. 56	12, 60 10, 55 13, 56 11, 34 8, 74 7, 40 4, 35 6, 83	32, 26 31, 56 33, 06 39, 07 42, 66 46, 21 48, 69 50, 64	28. 8 3 97. 5 1 29. 6 9 29. 1	14.03 15.57 13.55 0 12.00 8 12.45	4. 12 5. 56 4. 23 2. 28 2. 61 2. 50 2. 78 2. 65	1. 68 9. 66 1. 40 1. 67 1. 35 1. 51 1. 18	0. 54 0. 66 0. 54 0. 67 0. 12 0. 17 0. 17	0. 17 0. 14 0. 13 0. 19 0. 29	0.92 0.95 0.23	0.07
	.,		REC	APIT	TULA	TION.						
				1]	MAST	er v	ORK	MEN.		
						MASO2	NB.			CARPE	NTERS.	
Mon	th.			-	Number employed.	Total dally wages.	Average wages per	day.	Number employed.	Total daily wages.		Average wages per day.
January February March April May June July August		• • • • • •			242 254 258 317 303 304 305 302	\$285 19 336 96 376 56 496 94 430 56 434 16 435 60 438 00	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	17. 8 32. 6 45. 9 34. 4 42. 1 42. 8 42. 8 43. 2	169 156 164 172 190 187 176 188	\$180 196 296 941 259 254 949 258	56 90 92 20 88	\$1 11.5 1 26.0 1 38.3 1 40.6 1 36.4 1 36.3 1 37.8 1 37.5
							J O	URNE	YME	N.		
January February March April May June July August				1 1 1 2	, 493 , 523 , 964 , 572 , 559	\$1,337 04 1,524 24 1,673 26 2,751 84 2,804 40 3,011 04	1 1 1	00. 0 85. 2	1, 309 1, 204 1, 276 1, 490 1, 498 1, 590	\$1, 172 1, 213 1, 491 1, 654 1, 667 1, 774	26 26 56	00 89.6 1 00.7 1 11.4 1 11.0 1 11.3 1 11.6

CHEMNITZ, SAXONY.

The town of Chemnitz is situated in the most extensive manufacturing district of Germany, fully three-fourths of the inhabitants of which may be classed as work-people. The extent and value of the imports into the United States from that district are shown by the following table:

Statement showing the value of exports to the United States from the consular district of Chemnitz during the two years ending September 30, 1873 and 1874.

	Va.	Value.			
Articles.	1873.	1874.			
Dotton hosiery	\$2, 622, 363	\$1, 907, 957			
Damaaka	41, 674	25, 975			
Dress-goods	10,328	55, 307			
Dress-trimmings	353, 335	126, 496			
Embroideries	104, 279	74, 139			
Fancy goods	22, 384	60, 106			
ilioves	455, 666	549, 609			
Laces, (cotton and silk)	1 190, 227	265, 009			
Eusical instruments	144, 789	51, 906			
Miscellaneous	12,637	21, 625			
Tovs	47,880	29, 163			
Voolen shawls and yarn	9, 454	6, 243			
Total .	4, 015, 009	3, 073, 521			

MECHANICAL AND FACTORY LABOR.

Before presenting the rates of factory labor obtained during a visit to this enterprising district in 1872, the following statements of the earnings of mechanics, factory hands, and others in preceding years are given. They were obtained in the respective years indicated, and published in the reports of the Chamber of Commerce of Chemnitz:

Table showing the average weekly rates paid for labor in the district of Chemnitz, Saxony, in the respective years 1860, and from 1864 to 1868, inclusive.

	Malco.							Females.					
Trades.	1860.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1860.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1968.	
Artificial-flower makers. Bakers Barbers Basket-makers Barrel-makers Beer-brewers Belt-makers, workers in	1 08 1 17 1 80 3 24	\$3 60 1 44 72 2 52 3 60	\$2 52 2 40 2 16 48 1 92 3 60 2 16	\$2 52 2 40 2 16 48 1 92 3 60 2 88	\$2 59 9 59 9 59 9 59 1 44 2 16 3 60 2 88	2 52 2 88 1 44 2 16 3 60 3 24	\$1 08	\$1 08 1 08	\$0 96 0 87	0 96 0 87	\$0 96 0 87	\$0 96 0 87	
bronze Bleachets Book binders Brass-Jounders Brush-makers Bricklayers Brick-makers Button-makers Button-makers Card-makers, (playing) Card-ms kers, (carding) Carpenters	2 04 2 52 1 80 2 52 2 52 1 92 1 08 2 88 2 16 2 16 2 64	1 44 2 52 2 52 3 24 2 16 2 52 2 52 2 52 1 20 3 72 2 88 2 76	2 88 2 52 2 40 3 13 72 2 88 3 94 2 16 2 88 2 52 2 16 2 70	2 88 3 40 72 2 88 3 24 2 33 2 16 2 88 2 52 2 16 2 79	2 88 2 64 72 2 88 3 60 2 33 2 88 2 88 2 88 2 88 2 88 2 88	4 32 2 88 2 88 4 56 72 2 88 3 60 2 88 2 88 2 88 2 88 2 88 2 88 2 88 2 8	1 20 1 08	1 44 1 44	1 08	1 44	1 08	1 44	
Cartoon-makers	3 24	3 24 2 78	2 52 2 16	2 52 2 16	3 24 2 16	3 24 2 40	1 20 90	1 44 1 08	1 08 72	1 08 72	1 20 48	1 20 8 16	

Table showing the average weekly rates paid for labor in the district of Chemnits, &c.-Confd.

	Males.							Females.					
Trades.	1860.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1860.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	
Chair-framers	8 2 16	92 16	\$2 52	\$2 52	\$2 88	\$2 88			•				
Chemical-manufacturers .	1 69	1 98 1 92	2 40	2 40	2 40	2 40	\$0 72	\$ 0 96					
Chimney-sweeps	1 92	1 92	72	3 24	72 3 24	72		·:-::-	::::::	ء نهدا	::::::	l:::::	
Cloth-finishers	9 04	9 37 9 40	3 94 2 88	3 24 2 68	3 12	3 24 3 60	90 72	1 08	* \$ 0 96 84	* \$ 0 96 84			
Cloth-shearers	9 37 9 04 1 80	2 52	2 88	2 88	2 88	2 88						l	
Cloth-printers	3 24	2 16	3 94	3 24		3 60	1 44	1 62	*48			*4	
Comb-inakers	1 08 9 16	1 20	1 44	1 44	1 44	1 44		[ļ	
Coopers	2 40	2 88	3 60	3 60	3 60	3 60							
Tation animana	0 18	2 88	2 88			3 60	1 08	1 90	1 08			10	
Crockery-ware artists Crockery-ware workmen.	4 39	5 04 2 88	4 32	5 04	5 04	5 04					•••••		
Day-laborers	1 68	1 92	2 04	2 07	2 16	2 34							
Distillers	3 18	3 18	1 44	1 44	1 44	1 44							
Dyers of silk and wool	1 44 3 96 2 16 1 92	1 80	2 88	2 88	2 88	X 88							
Engravers	3 96	2 88 2 88	3 60 2 88	3 60 2 88	3 60 2 88	3 60 2 88						-	
Fringe-makers	1 92	2 16	2 16	2 16	2 16	2 40							
Furriers	1 56	1 80	2 42	2 42		3 60							
Day-moorers Day-moorers Dyers of silk and wool Engravers File-cutters Fringe-makers Fruriers Jardenere Jlaziers Jlazs-workers	1 80	2 16	1 44	1 44	1 44	1 44			- -				
JISZIOTS	1 08	1 26 2 88	2 64 2 88	9 64 9 88	2 88 2 12	2 88 2 96			·····			• • • • •	
	2 52	3 60	2 88			î 44	96	1 02	1 09	1 08	1 08	1 0	
Foldsmiths		3 12	3 24	3 94	3 24	3 24							
Junemiths	2 16	2 40	1 68			1 68			• • • • • •	• • • • • •			
Hatters Harness-makers	1 68 9 16	2 16 2 34	2 16 96	9 16 96	2 52	2 52 1 08			•••••		•••••	•••••	
Iron and steel workers:	* 10		~	~	1	. 00	l		•••••	•••••			
Iron-founders	2 52	\$ 16 3 60 3 24	}2 88		ĺ	53 12	₹ .	1					
1		[3 60]	1)	0.10		24 32 3 24	٠٠٠٠ [•	•••••	•••••	
Machine-builders Locksmiths	3 94 2 16	3 94	3 12 2 88	3 12 2 88	3 17 3 60	3 24 4 32	• • • • • • •	•••••	•••••			•••••	
Cutlers	1 20	1 44	2 16	2 16	2 16	2 40							
Nail-makers		2 52 1 20	2 40	2 40	0 40	2 40							
Blacksmiths	1 08	1 20	96	96	1 1 08	1 08		•••••	•••••	•••••		••••	
Screw-makers	3 96	3 96	2 88 4 12	2 88	3 60	4 32 4 39	• • • • • • •		•••••	•••••		•••••	
Loom-builders	2 16	2 88	2 52	9 59	2 52	2 52							
Lithographers Loom-builders Millers Milliners	2 05	2 15	1 92	1 32	1 99	1 92							
	•••••	•••••	•••••		•••••	•••••	1 96	1 44	1 44	1 44	1 80	1.4	
Carpenters	4 32	5 04											
Miners	4 68	À RR											
Drawers	2 52 2 30	9 59 9 50				•••••							
Day-laborers	2 16	3 60	72	72	96	96			•••••			•••••	
Anning: Carpenters. Miners Drawers Day-laborers Needle-makers Dictoth-makers	1 80	1 92	2 04	2 16	2 28	2 40							
	2 16	9 88	2 40	2 40	2 40	2 40							
Printers:		3 60		اموا	9	2 40							
Rova	3 60 1 06	3 60 1 04	3 24 72	3 24	3 60	3 60 96	•••••	•••••		• • • • • • •	•••••		
Compositors	1 06 1 08	1 08	96	96	96	96							
seddlers	84	96	96	96	96	96							
Saw-mill recolers	X 10	2 52 1 80	2 52 1 92	2 70 1 92	2 88	9 88 1 99			•••••	• • • • • •			
laters hoemakers	1 80 1 20	1 44	1 68	1 68	1 92 1 68	1 68		•••••	•••••	•••••			
hoemakers' tools	1 90	1 44	2 88 2 52	2 88	2 88	2 88							
hoemakers' tools loap-makers	1 80	2 12	2 52	2 52		2 88							
stocking-weavers, (ma- chine)	3 96	3 96	3 96		l	E 04							
CDIDO)	2 16	2 64	2 64			5 04 3 60	*****		• • • • • • •		•••••		
stone-masons	3 36	3.34	5 76		6 48	7 20							
tone-quarrymen	1 98	2 16	2 16	2 16	2 16	2 16							
Callors	1 20 1 08	9 16 1 68 1 20	2 88 1 08	2 88 1 08	2 88 1 08	2 88 1 44			•••		•••••	•••••	
Canners	96	1 08	96	96	1 08	1 08							
Capestry-makers	9 59	2 88	2 40	28 40	2 40	2 40							
Watchmakers	1 08	1 08	2 16	2 16	2 40	2 88					e		
Wheelwrights	2 16	2 52	2 28 1 44	2 40 1 68	2 52 1 68	2 28 1 68	60	48	48	امد	60		
Wire-cloth makers	2 52	2 88	2 16	2 16	2 16	2 16	œ	45	46	46	•		
Weavers, (silk)	9 16 9 88	2 16 3 24	2 16 2 52	2 16	2 40	2 40 2 83							
Wool-combers				2 52	2 70		1 09	1 03	1 08	1 08	1 00	1 39	

Table showing the average weekly rates of labor paid in the district of Chemnits, Saxony, in the year 1871.

	ano ;	year 1071.			
Trades.	CLASS I.—Chemuitz, about 70,000 inhabitants.	Class II.—Towns with 10,000 to 23,000 inhablitants: Glanchan, Meerane, Annaberg, Döebeln.	Ciass III.—Towns with 5,000 to 10,000 inabitants: Frankenberg, Buchholz, Rochlitz, Mittweida, Hainichen, Borns, Penig, &c.	CLASS IV.—Towns with less than 5,000 inhab- trants: Lichtenstein, Pegan, Geyer, Ernst- thal, Lengeleid, Thun, Taucha, Koetha, Zoeb- lita, &c.	
Artificial-flower makers, fe- males Barbers Bakers Brewers Bleachers	\$1 44 to \$1 87 *84 *1 32 to 1 68 2 88 2 88 to 3 60 1 92 to 154	\$2 16 2 16 3 60 \$2 52 to 2 88	*\$0 60 to \$1 20 2 52 2 16 to 4 32 2 52 to 2 88	*\$1 08 to \$1 44 1 80 to 2 88 1 44 to 4 32 2 52 to 3 60	
Bookbinders Basket-makers Brass-founders Brick-layers, (see tile-layers) Brouse-makers	3 96 to 4 39 3 06	2 64 to 3 24 *1 44 to 1 80	{ 1 44 to 2 16 96 to 1 68 *1 08 to 1 56 2 88 to 3 60	} 2 52 to 4 32 1 08 to 1 20 1 80 to 2 16 *86 to 1 80	
Brush-makers Butchers Butchers Cabinet-makers Calico-printers	2 76 to 2 88 *1 08 3 60 4 08 2 88 to 3 60 1 68 to 4 92 2 88 to 3 24	3 24 2 88 to 3 60	*90 to 1 80 2 52 to 3 60	*96 1 44 to 2 88 1 68 to 2 88 1 80 to 2 88	
Carpenters	†54 3 36 3 60	3 36 to 3 60 2 59	2 34 to 4 32 2 88 to 4 68 129 *1 44	2 52 to 4 33 2 16	
China manufacture: Day-laborers. Cigar-makers	•1 20	2 16 to 2 88 } 2 88 to 1 44	2 04 to 2 88 1 26 to 5 04 1 08 to 3 60 124 to 1 08 2 16 to 4 32 *1 08	1 15 to 2 16 1 08 to 4 32 136	
Confectioners Coopers Crotchet and netting work Crinoline-makers Distillers, brandy	*1 20	3 60 *1 80 1 08 to 173 5 40 to 1 80 2 88 2 2 52 to 2 88	1 80 to 2 52 73 to 1 20 136 to 73 *73 to 2 52	2 88 *1 08 to 1 20 *2 52	
Dyers in silk and wool Engravers Farriers or horseshoers. File-makers Fringe-manufacturers Furriers	4 32 *1 98 5 76	3 24 to 4 32 3 60 2 16 2 52 3 24	3 98 to 4 32 3 96 2 16 to 3 24 2 16 to 2 88 1 44 to 1 80 1 44 to 3 24	\$ 16 to 5 04 2 88 to 3 60 *1 80	
Fullers and wool-washers Gardeners	2 16 2 70 to 4 32 1 44 to 1 80	3 16 to 2 88 2 88 2 52 to 4 32 1 44 to 172	*1 26 { 1.80 to 5.76 } 1.62 2.88 to 3.60 { 60 to 1.80 }	2 16 to 2 52 2 63 to 3 60 2 16 to 3 60 72 *1 08 to 1 80 }	
Gold and silver workers Grinding and polishing estab- lishments Gunsmiths Hair-dressers Harmonicon-makers	5 76 3 60 to 4 50 2 88			*1 68 to 2 16	
Harness-makers Hatters Hose-manufacturers Iron-founders	2 88 3 60 to 3 96 1 20 to 1 80 3 24 143 to 48 3 36 to 5 04	2 88 2 16 to 2 88 3 60 to 4 32	1 44 3 06 to 3 24 2 88 to 4 68	*96 to 1 44	
Lithographers, males	3 60 to 5 76 36 to 1 80 4 50 d and lodging.	3 94 to 4 39 3 94 9 34 † 0	3 60 to 1 44 2 70 to 5 04 hildren's wages.	9 40 to 4 32 72 to 1 32	

Table showing the average weekly rates of labor paid in the district of Chemnits, &c.-Cont'd.

,	CLASS I.—Chemnitz, about 70,000 inhabitants.	CLASS II.—Towns with 1000 to 23,000 inhabitants: Glanchan, Meeran, Annaberg, Döeb. ein.	CLASS III.—Towns with 5,000 to 10,000 inhabitants: Frankenborg, Buchhols, Roch litz, Mittweida, Halnioben, Borna, Penlg, &c.	CLASS IV.—Towns with less than 5,000 inhabitants: Lichtenstein, Pegan, Goyor, Errst. thal. Leagefold, Thum, Taucha, Roetha, Zoebite, &c.
Machine building: Machine smiths. Machine wood-workers Other workers Macons Match-manufacturers, males	\$4 20 \$2 64 to 3 36 2 76 to 2 94 3 12 to 3 96	\$4 32 \$3 60 to 5 04 \$16 to 2 88 \$8 to 3 96	\$2 16 to \$5 76 2 52 to 4 32 3 00 to 4 32 2 52 to 4 32	\$3 16 to \$3 \$4
Mechanicians and opticians Millers	4 32 6 00	2 88 to 3 36		1 44 to 4 %
Metal	2 16 to 2 28 2 16 to 5 96	2 16 *72 to 96 } 2 88 to 4 68	1 44 to 2 16 1 15 to 1 30 1 44 to 2 16 1 15 to 1 30 4 32 to 6 48 72 to 1 80	72 to 2 32 72 to 2 32 *1 90 to 144 1 90 to 4 32
Point-lace workers, females		1 44	3 24 10 0 40	\$ 96 to 1 59
Oil-cloth manufacture Paper manufacture Paylors Potters, general work Portfolios, leather and fancy goods Pattern-drawer	5 76	3 94 to 4 39	2 16 to 2 68 2 16 to 2 88 1 20 to 1 44	1 78 to 2 16 2 16 to 5 94 1 80 to 2 88 1 80 to 4 38 5 04 to 2 88
Photographers		3 60	2 5% to 3 94	
manufacture Playing-card manufacture . { Powder-mills Printers or type-setters Printers, boys and girls Purse, glove, and cap makers. Quarrymen Ribbon-manufacture Roofing-factories Rope-makers Saddlers	3 60 to 4 33 *1 80 5 40 72 to 1 44 3 24 to 3 42	3 96 to 4 68 1 06 to 1 44 2 88 3 60	1 08 to 2 16 2 59 to 3 24 2 16 to 4 39	2 58 to 3 69 2 59 to 1 66 2 52 to 4 32
Ribon-manuscture Roofing-factories Rope-makers Saddlers Saw-mills Screw-manufacture Sculptors	3 24	1 08 to 1 20 9 88 2 88 to 3 94	-1 44 -1 44	2 88 to 66 1 68 to 2 53 2 16 to 3 46 1 44 to 2 16
Shoe-makers	2 40 2 52	2 16 to 2 52 2 88		
Smiths: Copper-smiths Cutlery-smiths Boiler-smiths Tochnical instruments. Nail-smiths Blacksmiths Soap-boilers	5 16 4 32	2 88 to 4 32 *1 08 to 1 44 	2 34 to 2 88 2 16 to 3 94	1 98 to 3 69 1 98 to 3 69
Spinning: Cotton	1 80 to 4 32 1 62 to 2 34 554 to 72	}	{ 396 to 180	}
Loose yarn	3 24 to 1 69 †36 to 48 2 16 to 2 88 1 44 to 1 68	}	{ 2 52 to 3 36	3
Flax spinning	†42 to 48)	1 68 9 88 to 1 20	\$ 9 88 to 4 39

^{*} Besides board and lodging-

† Children's wages.

Table showing the average weekly rates of labor paid in the district of Chemnitz, &c.-Cont'd.

	Class I.—Chemnitz, about 70,000 inhabitants.	CLASS II.—Towns with 10,000 to 23,000 inhabitants: Glanchau, Meerand, Annaberg, Döebeln,	Crass III.—Towns with 5,000 to 10,000 thab itants: Frankenberg, Buchbolz, Rochlitz, Mittweida, Hainiohen, Borna, Penig, &c.	GLASS IV.—Towns with less than 5,000 inhablants. Lichtenstein, Pegau, Geyer, Ernstthal, Lengefeld, Trum, Taucha, Roetha, Zoeblitz, &c.
Stocking-weavers:				
,	\$1 44 to \$1 80	>	\$1 08 to \$2 16	\$1 44 to \$2 88
Hand	154 to 72	}	96	11 08
Machine	2 16 to 5 76		\$ 2 16 to 5 76 \$ 1 44 to 2 88	} 108 to 180
Stocking-frame builders	4 32		2 88 to 3 60	1 80 to 2 88
Stone onerring	1	\$3 60		
Stone-cutters	3 24 to 7 20	\$4 32 to 7 90	3 60 to 4 50 4 32	3 60 to 5 76
Stone-workers, serpentine Stone-setter	3 96 to 5 76	3 24 to 4 32	2 88 to 3 60	2 16 to 5 04
Straw.hat manufactura		1 44		1 08
Strings for musical instru-				6'044- 444
ments	***************************************			2 34 to 1 44 1 98
Succory factory. Steam-engine firemen Tailors Tanners Tile or brick layers Tile makers Tile makers	3 94		1 80 to 3 12	
Tailors	8 96	2 16 to 3 60	1 80 to 3 12 2 16 to 3 60	1 68 to 4 39
Tanners	3 24 to 3 60	2 88	2 70 to 3 60	9 16 to 3 96
Tile or brick layers	E 704- 7 00	2 16 to 3 24	4 32 to 5 04	
Tin foundame	3 70 70 7 30	••••••	2 88 to 5 76 1 08	9 88 to 3 96
		2 52	2 52 to 3 24	2 52
Turners in motel		2 52	l	
Turners in wood	2 88 to 3 12		2 52 to 3 60	1 44
Umbrella-makers	2 76 to 1 80			
Upholsterers & trunk-makers Walking-stick or cane-manu-		2 88 to 4 68		1 80
facturers	5 40	3 24	2 68 to 3 60	1 98 to 2 52
Watch and clock makers	1 69 to 3 24	0.004- 1.44	200000	1 0000 2 02
		. 4 32 to 1 92		
Weaving-chair makers	3 24			
Weaving silk-weaver Hand-weavers :	·····	2 40	2 88 to 4 32	
On damask	2 16	1	2 16 to 2 88	1 80 to 2 16
On piqué			2 16 to 2 52	1 44 to 9 88
On quilts and carpets	J.	2 16 to 3 60	{ 1.80 to 3.60	} 1 44 to 2 40
-			1 44 to 143 1 08 to 2 40	1 3
On fustian and lining }			1 56] {
Wheelwrights	4 09	2 64	2 16 to 2 88	1 80 to 2 88
Wire-cloth weavers	2 59			
wheelwrights Wire-doth weavers Wood-polishing Weod-work, boxes and cases Wood-work, wooden toys				1 68 to 2 88
Wood work, Dones and cases.			0.50 40.004	2 83
Wood-work, wooden toys Wood-card manufacture	3 60 to 1 00		2 52 to 3 24 2 52	
		l	(168 to 360	}
Woolen-cloth weavers		······	1 1 14	}
Woolen cloth shearers		·	2 88	
Wool-printing	3 94 to 4 68 124 to 36	} 3 24 to 3 60	2 52 to 3 60	
	1 1 1 1 1 2 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	7.76		(4)
-		·		

^{*} Besides board and lodging.

[†] Children's wages.

WAGES IN SAXONY IN 1870.

Basket making in Zwenkau, Saxony.—In 27 factories, with 73 skilled laborers and 30 apprentices, good workmen earn per week 4 thalers = \$2.88; three of the above factories manufacture exclusively children's cradle baskets.

Chair-makers in Waldheim, Saxony.—Chair-makers, per week, from \$2.16 to \$2.88; polishers, per week, from \$3.60 to \$4.32; packers. per

week, from \$1.44 to 1.80.

Casks and barrel-factory in Döbeln, Saxony.—Coopers, per week, from \$4.32 to \$7.20; finisher of small casks and barrels, per week, from \$2.16 to \$4.32.

Day-laborers in cooper-shops, for 12 working-hours, receive 40 cents;

unskilled laborers, 30 cents.

Straw-plaiting in Zwenkau, Saxony.—This industry is chiefly carried on by women and children, besides their housework and school-hours: such of the men as are occupied during the summer-months in brickkilns, &c., plait straw in the winter. The earnings for men per day are not less than 18 cents; women, 10 cents; children, while attending schools, 4 cents.

Paper and pasteboard manufacture, Chemnitz, Saxony.-Wages vary

from 96 cents to \$3.60 per week.

Pasteboard boxes and other articles of pasteboard, Buchholz, Saxony. Men, per week, from \$2.52 to \$4.32; women, \$1.20 to \$1.80; children, 36 cents to 39 cents.

The above industry consists of the manufacture of boxes for chocolate. candies, soaps, perfumeries, gloves, hose and half-hose, trimmings, labels, envelopes, tickets, &c.

Playing-card factories at Chemnitz, Saxony.—Wages per week for

men, \$2.16 to \$3.60; wages per week for women, 84 cents to \$1.80.

Manufacture of Chinese lanterns, &c., Zwenkau, Saxony.—Children, over 12 years of age, working from 3 to 4 hours per day, earn weekly from 36 cents to 48 cents; men, working 12 hours per day, earn daily from 36 cents to 48 cents.

Printing-offices in Chemnitz, Saxony.—Type-setters and printers, per week, \$2.88 to \$5.76; women and girls, \$1.20 to \$1.80; apprentices,

72 cents to \$1.68.

Leather-belting for machines, &c., Chemnitz, Saxony.—Men, per week, \$2.52 to \$4.32; women, \$1.20 to \$1.68.

Kid-glove sewing at Oberwiesenthal, Saxony.—Wages, for 1 dozen gloves, sewed, 54 cents.

Felt and cloth shoe factory, Waldheim, Saxony.—Men, per week, \$3.60. Cigar factory, Waldheim, Saxony.—Rollers and assorters, per week, (male and female,) \$1.20 to \$3.60; girls, 12 to 16 years of age, 72 cents to \$1.68; children, under 14 years of age, 36 cents to 72 cents.

Slate-quarries, Rochlitz, Saxony.—Daily earnings from 36 cents to 40

cents.

Earthen and stone ware manufacture, Chemnitz, Saxony.—Weekly earnings of men, \$2.16 to \$5.76; women and boys (14 to 16 years of age,) \$1.20 to \$1.44. Working-hours in summer-time, 12; in winter, 10. Cloth-weaving establishments in Meerane, Saxony.—Weekly earnings of

men, \$2.16 to \$3.60; weekly earnings of women, \$1.62; weekly earnings of children, 36 cents to 48 cents.

Plush-weaving, Frohburg, Saxony.—Men, \$1.44 to \$1.80.

CITY LOCAL-EXPRESS COMPANIES IN SAXONY.

Place.	Name of company.	Year of organiza- tion.	No. of expressmen.	Wages per week.
Annaberg Chemnits	Express	1862 1861	90 60	\$1.80, without percentage. \$2.16 to \$2.70.
Do	Expressmen's Institution, (yellow marks of distinction)	1868	50	\$1.80 to \$2.52.
Do	United Expressmen Institution, (white marks of distinction)	1868	25	\$1.68.
Dőbeln	Expressmen's Institution	1862	3	These expressmen work for their own account and pay a weekly amount of 18 cents
Waldheim . Leisnig	Expressmen's Institution	1862 1867	3 5	for the loan of tools, &c. \$1.92.
Leisnig Mittweida.	Express Company	1867 1861	5 6	\$1.92, \$1.44 to \$2.16.

The above consists mainly in unskilled labor of every kind, garden work, transportation and packing of furniture and other articles, carrying of circulars, cards, bills, &c., &c.

PRICES OF FACTORY-LABOR IN CHEMNITZ IN 1872.

The statements presented in the preceding six pages show the rates paid for mechanical and other labor in the district of Chemnitz during the year 1860, and in the years from 1864 to 1868, inclusive; also the weekly wages which obtained in the year 1871, classified according to the population of the respective towns, which tables, as well as the given statement of wages in Saxony in 1870, have been translated from the reports of the Chemnitz chamber of commerce. It will be observed that the rates in the latter years exhibit a considerable increase over those of 1860.

The rates which prevailed in 1872, when the author visited this district, and which are presented in the following pages, showed a decided advance over those of 1871:

Occupation.	per		Per week.	
	Hours labor day.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Hosiery factories:* Stocking weavers, according to skill and industry. Ordinary hands Superintendent of factory. Machinists Locksmiths. Spoolers, weavers, &c	10 10 10 10 10	1 44 to 2 16 5 04 to 8 64 3 60 to 5 04 3 60 to 5 04		
Edging-machine workers Hydranile-press men Finishers, assorters, stampers Spoolers Weavers, on piecework Cuters, on piecework Sewers, on piecework Formers, on piecework Finishers Master-finishers Finishers Master-finishers	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	2 88 to 5 04 4 44 4 68 to 6 48	2 40 2 04 1 08 to 1 26 1 92 to 2 88	

This establishment, beside the fixed wages, pays an extra percentage for good work.

Factory labor-Continued.

		 		
	Per	V V	Vages per weel	k
Occupation.	Hours labor day.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Hosiery factory—Continued				
Hosiery factory—Continued. Yormers	10		\$2 16 to \$2 88	
Dressers	10		1 56 to 1 68	
Pressers	10	\$3 60 to \$4 32	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Another factory: Stocking-weavers	10.40	3 24		
Spoolers	10. 40	3 44	1 44	
Glove-makers	10.40		2 16	
Spoolers Glove-makers Glove embroiderers and quilters	10.40		9.88	
Glove and stocking formers	10.40		1 62 to 2 16	
Cotton-glove finishers	10.40		1 08 to 1 80	
Cotton glove cutters Weavers of gloves on frames Weavers of gloves on frames	10.40 19		1 20 to 1 56 1 08 to 1 44	
Wasvers of cloves on frames	12		1 44 to 1 80	
Weavers of glove-cloth on power-looms Girls, at piecework Girls, ornamenting and embroidering Girls, making hand silk-points Girls, making button-holes, &c., by hand	12	1 80 to 2 52	1 11 00 1 00	
Girls, at piecework	12		1 44 to 1 80	
Girls, ornamenting and embroidering	12		1 44 to 2 16	
Girls, making hand silk-points	12		0 79 to 1 20	
Girls, making button-holes, &c., by hand	12		0 79 to 1 90	
T Girm's mineming	1.76		108 to 168	
Yarn factory: Spinners, on piecework	l	4 32	1 44 to 1 92	\$1 08 to \$1 25
			1 11 10 1 54	AT 00 MAT 20
Cotton-spinning:* Assorters, &c., per 10,000 spindles Dressers-up Turning-in on self-acting machines Twirlers. Weighers, psokers Grinders, polishers Spinners Lookemiths Weithmen and development			1 44	
Dressers-up.			1 80 to 2 16	
Turning in on self-acting machines				1 98
Twirlers		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	1 44 to 1 80	
Weighers, packers			1 80 to 2 16	
Gringers, polishers		3 24 10 3 60	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Tooksmiths		4 69 40 5 40		
Watchmen and day-laborers		9 59 to 3 94		
Carding and spinning master, machine-		20200 0 21	••••••	
builder, &c	l	17 20 to 17 92		
Machinists, gas-fitters, &c		3 06 to 3 84		
Watchmen and usy-laborers Carding and spinning master, machine- builder, &c. Machiuists, gas-fitters, &c. Manufactures of Thibets, &c.: Weaver on parks loggers				
Weavers, on power-looms	12 to 13	3 49 19 40	41 00	
Dyeing:	12 10 13	128 180	1r so	
Foreman	11	7 90		l
Assistant foreman	īī	4 39 to 5 76	•••••••	
Dyers	11	2 88 to 3 60	•••••	
Firemen	11	2 88 to 3 60	•••••	
Laborers	11	2 40 to 2 88		
At other work	11	2 16 to 2 40	1 44 to 1 80	144 to 1#
Machine-looms	11	2 28	1 90	l
Finishers	ii	3 24	1 36	
Chain-shearers.	11	2 52 to 3 24		
Hand-loom weavers	11	2 52 to 4 32		
Work-masters	11	3 24 to 6 48	••••••	
Preparatory machines	11		•••••	1 32
Machine-works:		4 50		
Borers, planers, screw-smiths	•••••	5 04		
Turners Founders and molders	•••••	5 94		
Hammersmiths		5 76		
Strikers		2 58 1		
Tinsmiths		6 79	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Coppersmiths	•••••	7 90	••••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Braziers, (kettle-makers)	••••••	6 80 9 88		
Varnishers	•••••	3 48		
Polishers		4 54		
Blacksmiths		6 48		
Grinders		4 56		
Smelters		3 94		•••••
Locksmiths		3 96		
Saddlors	•••••	3 78		
Joiners	•••••	4 32 1		

^{*}Seventy-three bours of labor produce, on the average, 13,000 pounds of stocking-yarn No. 32.

† And house-room.

† The difference between the wages of male and female labor consists, mainly, in the manufacture of finer articles, intrusted to the former.

§ Hours of labor per week, 60.



Factory labor-Continued.

•	of the por	Wages per week.			
Occupation.	Hours labor day.	Men.	Women.	Children.	
Machine-Works Association:			,		
Kettle-factory:	l	40 40 40 E 70	ļ	İ	
Braziers		8 46 to 7 40	•••••	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Strikers	l· <i>-</i> · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	9.88			
Boys		1 44			
Conner-works:					
Coppersmiths	l	3 96 to 4 32	l	l	
Coppersmiths, on piecework		5 04 to 5 76			
Assistants		2 88			
Brass-foundery:	1		l	İ	
Founders Cast-polishers		4 32 to 7 20			
Cast-polishers		2 88 to 4 32			
BoysSmith-shop:		1 02			
Smiths	1	3 60 to 4 32	 	t .	
Smiths, on piecework		5 04 to 7 20			
Strikers		3 68 8			
Turners' shop :		~∞			
Turners	1	2 88 to 3 60	1	l	
Apprentices, first to third year		36 to 1 08			
Boring-machinea:					
Borers		2 16 to 3 60			
Borers, on piecework		4 39 to 5 04			
Planing-machines:	ł				
Planers		2 16 to 3 60			
Planers, on piecework		5 76 to 7 20			
Locksmiths' shop: Machine locksmiths	!	9 9445 4 39		İ	
Machine locksuiths, on piecework		5 78 to 9 5%			
Cabinet-shop:		3 10 00 8 04			
Model-makers cornenters	i	9 60 to 4 30			
Model-makers, carpenters Model-makers, carpenters, on piecework		5 04 to 6 48			
Tinehon.	1	1			
Tinsmiths	1	3 60 to 4 32			
Tinsmiths, on piecework		5 04 to 6 48			
Assistants		1 98 to 2 88			
Wire-weaving shop:	1			l	
Weavers, (chiefly on piecework)		5 76 to 6 48			
Unakilled laborers		2 52 to 2 88		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Cabinet making embroidering machines:	ŀ	8 40 to 10 00	1	l	
Machine-works, making embroidering machines: Cabinet-makers and pattern-makers Locksmiths	1	5 04 to 10 00			
Iron-turners Pleners Borers Polishers Smiths Machine-builders, (setting up machines)		5 04 to 8 45			
Pleners	1	4 32 to 7 92			
Borers		3 60 to 5 76			
Polishers		3 60 to 5 76			
Smiths		5 76 to 8 65			
Mechine-builders, (setting up machines)		8 64 to 18 00			
Apprentices	1	1 44 to 3 60	1	1	

Although the preceding statements show the price of labor in the manufacturing establishments of Chemnitz as prepared chiefly by the respective proprietors, yet as it is believed that some of the notes of the author, taken as he visited the factories, will afford additional information on the subject, they are reproduced here:

Hartmann & Co.'s machine-works.

CHEMNITZ, SAXONY, September 16, 1872.

Accompanied by Mr. Rider, United States consul, visited the works of the Saxon Machine Company, (Hartmann & Co.,) the largest establishment of the kind in Saxony, and, except Borsig's, at Berlin, the largest in Germany. About 200 men are employed.

The following are the rates of wages or weekly earnings of the men: Molders on piecework, from 6 to 8 thalers, \$4.30 to \$5.76.

Machinists and riveters, average \$4.68.

Carpenters and wood-workers, 5 thalers, \$3.60. (These formerly worked by the piece and earned more.)

Common laborers, 4 thalers, \$2.88.

Apprentices, first year, 20 groschen per week, (48 cents;) second year, 84 cents, and an increase of 10 groschen, (24 cents,) each subsequent year. There are about 75 apprentices and 125 young men under instructions employed; 200 in all.

(Hours of labor, 10 per day.)

Coal now costs 7 thalers (\$5.04) per ton, formerly 5 thalers. It is brought from the district of Zwickau, about 60 miles.

They import part of the pig-iron used from England and Scotland. They make cotton and woolen machinery, locomotives, and a variety of other machinery.

Hössel & Co.'s damask-factory.

Visited the factory of Hössel & Co., who make damasks, velvets, reps, &c., some all wool. They employ a few men and 800 women. Wages average as follows:

Women, 23 thalers per week, \$1.98.

Men in mill, 4½ to 5 thalers, \$3.24 to \$3.60. Men dyers, 4½ to 5 thalers, \$3.24 to \$3.60.

An allowance of 1 thaler (72 cents) per month for rent is made to the married men who have been employed in this establishment for more than one year, and 20 silver groschen (48 cents) if under a year.

Many of their working-people live out of the city and bring their dinners. They are very frugal, living largely on coffee and potatoes. They had little kettles with coffee, some had bread, others potatoes, some both. They cooked their potatoes and warmed their coffee in the mill. Men with families live in two rooms, paying from 3 to 4 thalers (\$2.16 to \$2.88) per month in the city, but in the country only about 30 thalers (\$21.60) per year.

Wages of masons.—Men and women at work on an addition to the fac-

tory earn as follows:

Bricklayers, per week, 5 thalers, \$3.60.

Master masons, 6 thalers, \$4.32.

Women to mix mortar and assist the masons, earn during the building season 4 thalers, (\$2.88.) These women are chiefly from Bohemia, who return home and remain during the winter.

Nottingham Knitting Company, (Mr. Felkner, manager.) Established by Mr. Mundella, M. P., of England, who is one of the principal stockholders.

Wages of men in factory, average \$3.60 per week.

Wages of females in factory, \$1.50 to \$2.50 per week; average, \$1.44. Their principal factory is at Pausa, a small village of about 2,000 inhabitants, near Hof, and not far from Bavaria, where from 1,800 to 2,000, chiefly females, are employed. They have their knitting frames at their homes, where all the members of the family work, and earn but from 3 to 4 thalers per week, at piecework. They receive from 44 to 130 sgr, (\$1.06 to \$3.12,) per dozen. On the finest hose, selling at 8 thalers per dozen, the price paid is but 130 groschen, and as a family of ordinary size can complete but 1 dozen per week, their earnings (\$3.12) are very small. In the factory at Pausa the females earn but from 1 to 2 thalers, (72 cents to \$1.44,) per week.

H. Starke & Co., manufacturers of common cotton hosiery, employ about 300 hands.

The men earn 5 thalers per week, \$3.60.

Women to finish goods, 21 to 3 thalers, \$1.80 to \$2.16.

LEIPSIC, SAXONY.

The two annual statements of Mr. Consul Steuart, as given below, exhibit the kind and value of merchandise manufactured in this district which in the years indicated found a market in the United States.

Statement of the description and value of merchandise certified at the Leipsic consulate and exported to the United States during the years ending September 30, 1873 and 1872.

Kind of merchandise.	Val	Value.		
Allu of merchandiss.	1873.	1872.		
Woolen and half-woolen goods Furs and skins. Cotton and linen goods. Books, music and pictures Musical and other instruments Laces and trimmings Drugs Kid gloves.	376, 770 255, 833 169, 976 83, 409 90, 646	286, 565 273, 955 279, 656 99, 144 163, 57		
Human hair Toys and fancy-ware. Bristles Machinery and iron-ware Miscellaneous	55, 556 35, 447	47, 649 14, 06		
Total value in United States gold dollars	2, 929, 057	3, 448, 54		

Leipsic is celebrated for its three annual fairs, and for its extensive book-making establishments. Its book trade being the largest in the world, the following brief notice may prove interesting.

THE BOOK TRADE OF LEIPSIC.

It is a fact well known to the literary and scientific world that this city distances all others in the book trade, particularly for works in the German tongue; and not for that alone, but also in the majority of modern and dead languages.

As the American author intrusts his manuscript to a publisher in New York, Boston, or Philadelphia, so does the French writer with one in Paris, the English with one in London, and the German, and, it might almost be said, those of the rest of Europe, with the publishers of Leipsic, this being the metropolis of German letters, and only a few good

works are published at other places in the German Empire.

The sale of books forms one of the most important branches of commerce here; it alone is said to amount to two millions of dollars yearly. In fact the whole book trade of Germany is centered on the spot, and every bookseller in Germany and the adjoining countries has an agent here. Six hundred booksellers sometimes assemble at the Easter fair to settle their annual accounts and purchases, and there are 130 residents and 40 printing-offices. They have an exchange of their own called the Deutsche Buchhändler Börse, where they meet and transact business.

Among the most distinguished publishers are F. Brockhaus, editor of the far-famed Conversations-Lexicon, and Baron Tauchnitz.

The Leipsic City Directory for 1871 gives the names of 249 book-firms in a population of 106,925, smaller than that of Washington City, of which 114 are publishers, part of them having their own printing-establishments; 21 are book-commission-merchants; 21 are music publishers and dealers; 6 are antiquarians, some of them being firms of great

importance.

The celebrated Leipsic auction-sales of books and objects of art are conducted by three book-firms, at certain regular stated periods. In 1868, twelve such auctions were held, resulting in the aggregate sales of 54,200 works, comprising some 200,000 volumes, and net proceeds of \$36,000. In 1869, there were eleven auction-sales, with 60,000 works and 250,000 volumes, an aggregate sale of \$54,000. The most important sale during this year was that of the library of the late Emperor Maximilian of Mexico, which realized \$16,560, and attracted purchasers not only from England and France, but from the United States.

Besides these book-auctions, there were two autograph-auction-sales, consisting of 3,300 numbers, and six auctions of objects of art, number-

ing 15,000.

In the year 1870, in consequence of the Franco-German war, there were but seven auctions of books and six of objects of art.

Comparative statement of the works published by the German book-trade of Leipsic during the years 1868, 1869, and 1870.

Subject of works.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Encyclopedias; works of reference; science of literature	196	262	271
Theology	1.440	1,607	1, 470
National economy and law; politics and statistics	970	1, 141	1,014
Medical, surgical, veterinary sciences	528	517	415
Medical, surgical, veterinary sciences Natural sciences; chemistry and pharmacy	636	675	533
Philosophy	126	127	100
Philosophy	966	1, 131	997
Tuvenile	946	322	23:
Classics and oriental languages; antiquity and mythology	440	471	399
Modern languages. History and biography	339	335	99
History and biography	710	634	694
Geography	290	26 9	23
Geography Mathematics and astronomy	134	194	114
Mulitary science and horses	281	308	24
Commerce and industry	425	494	41
Architecture, machinery, railroads, and navigation	190	213	19
Forestry and hunting: mining and smelting	83	93	9
Forestry and hunting ; mining and smelting	280	305	351
Relies lettres	9.5%	999	73
Fine-arts; copy-books and stenography	437	435	34
Freemasonry	14	8	38
Freemasonry Miscellaneous works	381	364	38
Slavic and Hungarian works	38	62	5
Periodicals	237	335	27
Total for each year	10, 348	11, 161	9, 56
Total for three years		31, 375	

LEIPSIC FAIRS.

This quaint old city reposes in its normal inactivity, except during one of those seasons of the year when it becomes the principal mart

and exchange of Northern Europe.

Three large fairs are held here annually, one beginning the first of January, called *Neujahrs messe*; another, the second Sunday after Easter, or the *Oster messe*; and, lastly, the Michaelmas *messe* in October. Of these three, each of them lasting three weeks, the Easter fair, already referred to, is by far the most important. These fairs are visited by merchants and foreigners from the most distant parts of the globe,

sometimes to the number of its actual population. The money transactions at one time amounted to 80,000,000 of thalers annually, though of late they have fallen short of this sum.

These fairs date back to the middle ages, and for a long period have been well known throughout all Europe. Indeed, among all the multitude of foreigners who flock together every spring to transact their business in Leipsic, it is probable that many a well-educated Greek and Asiatic knows more about this one city than he does about the country to which he belongs. During the fair all the principal squares and streets of the city are filled with long lines of temporary booths, in addition to the ordinary shops, in which goods of all kinds are exposed for sale—hardware, cloths, Bohemian glass and porcelain, furs of every variety, pottery, boots and hats, artificial flowers and hair, jewelry, toys, pipes and amber-work—in short, it is one great bazaar, where no product of human industry seems to be without its mart.

Every hotel and lodging-house is filled to overflowing; the streets are thronged with strange costumes and faces. Persians and Armenians, with their peculiar manners and dress; Polish Jews, with their long black buttoned-up frocks reaching to the ankles, gaunt, wily-looking men, and excellent specimens of the typical Israelite; Tyrolese, Americans, and English, Greeks and Turks, are mingled together as in a masquerade. The real business of the fair is seldom seen by the tourist, being carried on at the exchange, or borse, as it is called, where

the merchants meet and transact their business.

Most of the countries of Europe send representatives here with their produce. Three or four hundred guests sit down daily at the tables-d'hôte of some of the principal hotels; gardens and coffee-houses are thronged; theaters are filled, and the concert and beer-gardens, as well as the circus-tents, crowded.

Reaching Leipsic a few days before the October fair, the author was nevertheless prevented, owing to previous arrangements for visiting manufacturing districts which constituted the main purpose of his visit, from remaining during its continuance. Its near approach was indicated by the booths which were in course of erection, as well as by the crowded state of the hotels, and the consequent increase of prices for accommodation.

MECHANICAL LABOR.

Rates of wages in Leipsic and vicinity in 1872.

Trades.	Time.	Wages.
Blacksmiths		\$0 41 to \$0 92
Bricklayers	do	
Carpenters	Per week	76 to 92 3 57 to 4 28
Machinists	do	
Shoemakers	do	5 00 to 5 47
Tailors Tanners	do	3 57 to 4 65 3 57 to 4 28
Tin-amiths		3 21 to 3 57 3 21 to 3 57

FARM LABOR.

Experienced hands in summer, per day, 65 cents; in winter, 60 cents. Ordinary hands in summer, 60 cents; in winter, 57 cents. Female servants, per month, \$1.70, with board.

FACTORY LABOR.

The rates of wages in many of the manufacturing towns in the consular district of Leipsic appear, on previous pages, under the heading "Factory labor in Germany." The following information in regard to a glove-factory in Altenburg was furnished in a letter from the proprietors. under date of August 20, 1872:

KID-GLOVE FACTORY, ALTENBURG, DUCHY OF SAXONY.

The number of workmen consists of 1,800 persons, men, women, and children, some 300 of whom are employed in the factories, while the remainder of them take the work to their homes.

The average weekly earnings are as follows:

Glove-makers, from 6 thalers, \$4.32, and upward.

Tanners, (kid,) 6 thalers, \$4.32. Dyers, 4 to 41 thalers, \$2.88 to \$3.24.

Day-laborers, 4 to 41 thalers, \$2.88 to \$3.24.

Sewers, (children included,) 1 to 2 thalers, \$0.72 to \$1.44.

The usual hours of labor are from 6 s. m. to 7 p. m., with an interruption of half hour for breakfast, one hour for dinner, (at noon,) and half hour for luncheon, (at 4

It is difficult to give the exact amount of the expenses either of a family or of a single person; and a general rule in regard to the expenditures of the laboring classes cannot be accurately stated, as the outlay is governed by the income, which is usually all expended.

Although France has almost monopolized the production of goat-skin gloves, in which she excels, yet Germany manufactures to a large extent the medium qualities, which, being less expensive, are more readily sold. Germany was represented at the World's Exhibition at Vienna by many of its most important glove-manufacturers. Favorable local circumstances, enabling the manufacturer to combine tanning and dyeing with the production of gloves, and the introduction of new methods for perfecting the article, has conduced to make German gloves an important There are in the German Empire towns whose prinarticle of export. cipal branch of industry is glove making, such as Altenburg, above referred to; Halberstadt, in Prussia; Erlangin, in Bavaria; Arnstadt, in Thuringia: Haynau, in Silesia; and Esslingen, in Wurtemberg.

DRESDEN, SAXONY.

The capital of the kingdom of Saxony is more celebrated for its artreasures than for manufactures. Few European capitals contain a greater number of objects calculated to gratify a refined taste. Enriched with extensive collections of paintings and statuary, with museums of antique and modern art, libraries, and public gardens, it has become a favorite resort for the wealthy of all nationalities, large numbers of whom make it their place of permanent abode. It is a favorite residence of English and American families, and among its inhabitants may be found many men of learning and talent. Dresden gives its name to the renowned porcelain ware which is made in its vicinity, chiefly at Meissen, about 28 miles distant. Although manufactories and other industrial establishments have not hitherto been erected, yet, as the United States consul at that place states in his communication, "the steamships on the river Elbe, which divides the city into two parts, the old and the new, (Altstadt and Neustadt,) and which is navigable from a point a little above Prague in Bohemia to Hamburg on the German Sea, and the iron-horse on the land, were irresistible in opening even the city of Dresden, enphemistically called 'Elbe Athens,' to the inroads of an industrial era."

DRESDEN-WARE.

China ware or percelain was originally brought from the country after which it is named, and was first made in Europe at Meissen, in 1710, by

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one Bötticher, an alchemist, who, after wasting a great deal of the gold of his patron (Augustus I, King of Poland and Elector of Saxony) in his search for the philosopher's stone, stumbled, by accident, upon a more sure method of producing the precious metals by the discovery of an art which has served to enrich his countrymen. This manufactory, so celebrated in the time of Augustus II, was annihilated in the "seven-years' war," being then plundered and its workmen and models carried away by Frederick the Great. It continued to enjoy royal patronage at a heavy expense to the private purse of the Saxon sovereign, but the king has lately ceded it to the government. It is now carried on for profit, and cheapness being the object, it now produces a revenue, but the articles made are very inferior to those of former times.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

That the market in the United States for the productions of the Dresden consular district is by no means extensive, will be shown by the following table:

Statement showing the exports to the United States from the Dresden consular district during the year ended September 30, 1873.

Description.	Value.	Description.	Value.
Drugs Rarthen ware and lava goods Glass ware. Glores Hosiery Laces, embroideries, and trimmings Linen and half-linen goods.	391, 388 75, 689 150, 455 104, 209	Musical instruments and merchandise Photographic paper and paper goods. Porcelain Toys and ornaments Watch-movements Woolen and half-woolen goods Sundries Total	44, 243 95, 529 28, 295 17, 970

The following information was furnished by Mr. Brentano, United States consul at Dresden, and although not classified under distinct headings, in uniformity with similar data from other manufacturing districts, yet it is deemed best in this instance to insert the report entire:

LABOR IN THE MANUFACTURING DISTRICTS OF SAXONY AND BOHEMIA.

Annaberg and the surrounding mountainous country, including Buchholz, carries on chiefly the manufacture of laces, gimps, guipures, fringes, gloves, &c.

Laces are made by women and girls in villages surrounding the beforenamed towns; good workers and such as have experience make from 2½ to 3 thalers (\$1.80 to \$2.16) a week, working fourteen hours a day; girls and old women do not exceed 1 to 1½ thalers (\$0.72 to \$1.08) a week.

Board is cheaper in the country than in town; working girls pay about 3 thaler (48 cents) a week; a family of five expends about 3 thalers, (\$2.16.)

Children in the country are obliged to attend school as regularly as those in town, but only three to four hours a day, and up to their four-

teenth year.

Fringes, &c., are chiefly made in town, by men, women, and children, and they mostly work in their dwellings. The working-hours for men are from 7 to 12 a. m. and from 1 to 7 p. m., (eleven hours,) and they earn from 3 to 4 thalers (\$2.16 to \$2.88) a week. Women and children do the lighter part of this work; they labor fourteen hours a day and earn from 2 to 3 thalers (\$1.44 to \$2.16) a week. A family consisting of five members, (man, wife, and three children,) if diligent, can make about 7 thalers (\$5.04) a week.

Children attend school regularly five hours a day, from their sixth to their fourteenth year, inclusive.

Embroiderers, (girls,) who work in stores ten hours a day, earn

from 2 to 21 thalers (\$1.44 to \$1.80) a week.

Board and lodging for an unmarried laboring-man ranges from 11 to 2 thalers, (\$1.08 to \$1.44;) for a girl, 1 thaler (72 cents) a week. A family consisting of five members generally uses up the earnings of a week,

i. e., 7 thalers, (\$5.04.)

Gloves.—A good glove-knitter, working twelve hours a day, may earn 7 to 8 thalers (\$5.04 to \$5.76) a week; girls working in the factory ten hours a day make 2½ to 3 thalers (\$1.80 to \$2.16) a week. Girls who sew at home and work twelve hours a day earn 1½ to 2 thalers (\$1.08 to \$1.44) a week. Children are not employed in glove-making.

Markneukirchen, as well as the villages and small towns around it, form a district in the southwest corner of Saxony, where a specialty is made of the manufacturing of musical instruments of various descrip-

tions.

There are only men employed in these manufactories. They work eleven hours a day, and earn during that time from 22½ groschen to 1 thaler, (54 to 72 cents,) i. e., 4½ to 6 thalers (\$3.24 to \$4.32) a week.

The expenses of a married laborer for rent may be estimated at 30 to 40 thalers (\$21.60 to \$28.80) a year. Unmarried workingmen pay from

2½ to 3½ thalers (\$1.80 to \$2.52) for board and lodging a week.

Children are obliged to attend school from the seventh to their fourteenth year, but there are advantages offered for further improvement. Olbernhau, Zschoppau, Waldkirchen, &c., is a district in Saxony where,

chiefly, toys are manufactured.

Men working in these toy factories, either by the piece or by the hour, (twelve hours a day,) earn from 3 to 5 thalers (\$2.26 to \$3.60) a week.

Women and girls working on the same conditions make from 2 to 3

thalers (\$1.44 to \$2.16) a week.

Children work eight hours a day—the remaining four hours being devoted to their school—and receive 1 thaler (72 cents) a week. They cease attending school when fourteen years old.

Board and lodging for an unmarried man ranges from 1.20 to 1.25 thalers (\$1.24 to \$1.32) a week; for an unmarried woman or girl, from 1.05

to 1.10, (84 to 96 cents.)

Freiberg, a town of about 20,000 inhabitants, 1,200 feet above the level of the sea, known for its excellent Mining Academy, has also one of the largest manufactories of gold and silver laces, trimmings, fringes,

sandal laces, &c., in Saxony, probably in all Germany.

Here, as well as in all other manufacturing districts of Saxony, most of the work is done by the laborers in their dwellings; in this instance chiefly that of wire-drawing, fringe-making and lace-making. The latter work is usually performed by married women and their grown daughters, and as they have also to perform their household duties, it is difficult to give a certain number of hours for their working time.

The wages of employés in this branch of manufacturing are as follows:

1. Men who work in the manufactory 12 hours a day receive from

2.15 to 3.25 thalers (\$1.80 to \$2.76) a week.

2. Wire-drawers working at home make from 4 to 8 thalers (\$2.88 to \$5.76) a week.

3. Fringe-makers who also work in their dwellings earn from 3.20 to

5 thalers (\$2.64 to \$3.60) a week.

4. Girls who either spin or embroider work on machines in the manufactory, 12 hours a day, earn from 1 to 2 thalers (\$0.72 to \$1.44) a week.

5. Lace-makers, (married women,) working in their homes, earn from 1 to 11 thalers (\$0.24 to \$0.84) a week.

In regard to board and lodging it may be said that girls usually live

with their parents and pay nothing, their earnings being so little.

Unmarried men pay annually for rent from 15 to 20 thalers, (\$10.80 to \$14.40.) Generally the expenses for living may be considered the same as stated in the districts of Markneukirchen and Annaberg.

The glass-manufacturing district of Northern Bohemia.

Workmen in this branch of manufacturing are divided into two classes, viz: class A, those who live in their own dwellings and do the polishing, painting, gilding, and the lower kind of engraving; and class B, those who work in establishments or ateliers. The former do not keep certain hours, but work as they please, and earn, according to the demand for labor, from 9 to 15 florins (\$3:60 to \$6) a week, while the latter adhere to a working time of 8 hours a day, and receive a fixed pay, which varies, according to their abilities, from 12 to 20 florins (\$4.80 to \$8) a week.

Women are only employed for polishing the glass and gilding, and for packing the goods, and earn from 3 to 5 florins (\$1.20 to \$2) per

week

Children are not employed until they are fourteen years of age, and, consequently, free from school duties. After that time they are apprenticed as painters or engravers, these being the easiest employments. They are obliged to serve four years, unless the apprentice has the means to pay to his master board and lodging for the first year; in that event he serves only three years.

There is a great difference in the habits and in the social standing and enlightenment of these work people, which, in fact, is indicated by

the kind of labor which they perform.

The people belonging to class A are, if I may term it so, a rough class, and have to subsist on 6 florins (\$2.40) per week for each family.

Those belonging to class B, among whom are found real artists, and who also live (not work) in their own dwellings, cannot support their families upon less than from 15 to 20 florins (\$6 to \$8) a week.

Unmarried men of class B pay from 6 to 10 florins (\$2.40 to \$4) a week for board and lodging.

MECHANICAL AND FARM LABOR.

Statement showing the wages of skilled and other workmen in Dresden, Saxony.

Occupations.	Per day.	Per week.
Skilled workmen: Blacksmiths Bricklayers or masons Cabinet-makers Carpentors Coopers Machinists Painters Shoemakers Tailors Tin-smiths	72 to 96 72 72 60 to 84 54 to 72 78	\$3 60 to \$5 04 3 60 to 5 04 4 33 to 5 76 4 33 4 32 to 5 76 3 60 to 5 04 3 60 to 5 04 3 94 to 4 33 4 33 4 33 2 88 to 4 33
Farm-hands: Experienced hands	94	Per month. 7 20 5 40 2 16 to 3 60

FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAIN.

Frankfort, formerly a free town, was the seat of the German Diet down to the year 1866, when it was annexed to Prussia. It lies on the right bank of the Main, and is connected by a stone bridge with the suburb of Sachsenhausen on the left bank. In 1871 it had 90,748 inhabitants, of whom 3,000 were Jews. Many of the houses in the new town, especially in the principal street, called Zeil, in the Neue Mainzer and Taunus-Strasse, and on the quays facing the Main, inhabited by rich merchants, bankers, or diplomatists, are palaces. Nothing is more pleasing here than the belt of boulevard gardens, replacing the ramparts and studded with handsome detached villas.

The old town, on the other hand, with its narrow streets and quaint wooden buildings, with gables overhanging their basement-stories, forms a complete contrast to the new. Many of the houses are of great antiquity, especially in the quarter around the cathedral and Römerberg, and preserve all the characteristics of "the ancient imperial free city."

Frankfort has long been the financial metropolis of continental Europe; the cradle of the Rothschilds. In the Jews' quarter the old house, so long occupied by the family, and where the grandmother of the present Baron Rothschild died in a recent year, was standing in 1872.

Exports to the United States.

The following statement shows the exports to the United States from the consular district of Frankfort on-the-Main for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1873:

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Leather, hides, and skins Hares' and hatters' fur Jewelry, precious and imitation stones. Wine, brandy, beer, and cider Linen, woolen, and cotton goods Human hair and hair works Leather goods Stilk and silk goods Fancy goods Iron, hardware, iron goods, and machines China and glass ware Pipes Drugs, chemicals, and dyes. Glue Kid gloves Stationery, paper, books, prints, &c Cement	183, 036 57 186, 599 28 139, 166 46 173, 171 79 97, 323 08 8, 457 98 37, 635 59 3, 299 53 16, 516 53 24, 642 40 42, 924 38 9, 964 45 34, 857 71	Sundries	8, 959 3, 621 2, 338 1, 497 10, 741 64, 141 7, 443 5, 499 5, 548 10, 390 31, 490 2, 617 16, 693 1, 497

RATES OF WAGES IN 1874.

The advance in the prices paid for labor in Frankfort and vicinity, especially in building trades, is thus stated by Hon. W. Prentiss Webster, United States consul-general:

There has been a great advance in the rates of labor and a corresponding increase in the prices of rent and provisions. There is now going on in nearly every city of Germany an immense and wholly unparalleled amount of building, as well as many public improvements, such as water-works, sewers, and similar undertakings. This great amount of work in cities has drawn not only the men and boys from all the villages, leaving the women to do the work in the country, but has also drawn thousands of skilled laborers from the northern part of Italy, who find employment as masons, carpenters, painters, and some as laborers. Still the supply of labor does not equal the demand.

Daily wages of skilled workmen in the building-trades.

Trades.	Wages.
Bricklayers or masons Carpenters Painters Plastorers Stone-cutters	1 1 00 to 1 20
Daily engages of farm lahorers and others	·

	With board.	Without board.
Experienced hands Summer Winter Summer Winter Summer Winter Common laborers at other than farm-work Female servants {	\$0 40 to \$0 70 30 to 50 30 to 70 2 60 to 8 00 per month.	\$0 80 to \$1 00 60 to 80 70 to 80 70 to 80

Weekly wages of skilled workmen in the city of Frankfort and in the neighboring town of Offen

[The florin computed at 40 cents, United States gold.]

Occupations.	Frankfort.				Offenbach.				
Pakera (including board)		00	4.	••	~	**			-
Bakers, (including board)	1 7						80		\$3 (
				4			89		8
Bookbinders Brasiers	1 2	00		8	80	1 3	80		6
Carpenters		20		6		1 7	90		6
Cigar-makers				4	80	1 3			4
Confectioners, (including board)	1 4			6	8	3	80		3 6
Coopers	1 7	80			90	l 5			6
Rngravera		•	w	i	90	l ă	80		7 9
Farriers.		80	to	6	00	1 3	90		4 6
Goldsmiths		40		š	00	١ -	~	•	• •
Joiners		ŏŏ		7	20		80	ŧ'n.	8 (
Kettle-makers					ÕÕ	آة	40		7 9
Leather-dressers		40	to	ğ	60	ĕ			7 9
Machinista			to	ğ	60	1 4		to	
Marble-cutters			to	ğ	60	5			7 9
Marble-polishers			to						7 9
Masons			to	ě	40				6 0
Painters, house			to		00	l -		••	6 6
Printers		80	to	6	00	5	60	to	7 9
Proof-readers		90	to	Ř	40	l			
Pump-makers		20	to	ğ	60	1			5 (
Saddlers		80	to	6	00	4	00	to	4 8
Shoemakera	. 4	20	to	6	00		ÕÕ		4 8
Blaters	. 6	00	to	7	90	آ ا		to	6 (
Stone-cutters		90	to	9	60	5	60	to	7 9
Tailors	. 4	90	to	6	00	4	00	to	6 (
Trunk-makers	.I Ā	80	to	Ó	00	1 4	00		4 8
Upholsterers	. 14	80	to	6	00	1 4		to	5 (
Waiters, (including board)	.1 7	20	to	9	60	1 4	80	to	7 9
Waiters in hotels, (including board)	. 4	00	to	8	ÕÕ	₫	80	to	6 4
Watchmakers	.1 4	80	to	6	00	4	80	to	6 4
Workmen, unakilled	1 4	90			ÃÕ	ة ا	80	to	4 8

On piecework.

STUTTGART, WÜRTEMBERG.

The manufacture of textile fabrics, chiefly of cotton and of half wool, of gold and silver articles, gloves, leather, and musical instruments, constitutes the principal industries of this famed city. The cotton-spinning manufactories employ upward of 270,000 spindles and 3,850 operatives. The number of power looms employed in weaving cotton tissues has increased since the year 1861 from 2,250 to 3,000; the number of handlooms in use is about 12,500.

The value of the annual production of cotton fabrics was estimated

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in the year 1861 at upward of \$5,000,000. Stuttgart, although by no means equal to Leipsic, yet holds a high position in the book-trade, having numerous book-selling establishments. The Stuttgart book-trade is reputed to produce annually \$1,500,000.

LABOR IN WÜRTEMBERG IN 1872.

Unable from a want of time to visit any part of this kingdom, the anthor availed himself of the proffered services of Mr. J. Oberndorf, formerly of Baltimore but now a resident of Stuttgart, to procure information in regard to the cost of labor and of provisions. The following statement not only gives the prices of both at different periods, but their absolute and relative increase. It is gratifying to learn that as compared with 1830 the advance in wages has been greater than in the necessaries of life, and the condition of the working classes has been consequently improved.

STUTTGART, September, 1873.

The feeling of security since the close of the great German-French war, and the general belief in the probability of a lasting peace, have given a great impetus to the development of industrial enterprise in Germany during the past few years, and the increased demand for labor has resulted in a considerable advance in the rates of wages. Tables given below are based on reliable information obtained during the autumn of 1872, from manufacturers, mechanics' unions, and official authorities all over Witremberg, and are compared with those given in the report of the chamber of commerce for the year 1865. They are the average wages paid to adult males:

I.— Wages in factories, (by decades.)

Industrial establishments.	1830-'39.	1840-'49.	1850-'59.	1860-'65.	1872
Cottton-spinning Cotton-weaving Wool-spinning Wool-spinning Woolen-cloth factories Chemicals Paper Wall-papers Silver-ware Jewelry Prianos Cutlery Japanned tin-ware Printing	25) 28 26] 23) 24 28 43) 40 36 27	\$0 30 27 26 28 28 27 27 27 27 47 41 43 38 46 50	\$0 33½ 33; 37 33½ 39½ 38 57 50 40 56	\$0 44 40 44 44 38 38 70 64 41 60	\$0 56 55 62 51 54 53 60 97 97 58

NOTE.—The prices in this and subsequent statements were given in florins, which have been computed at 40 cents.

II.—Daily wages of mechanics, (by decades.)

Occupations	Würtemberg.						
Occupations.	1830-'39.	1840-'49.	1850-'59.	1860-'65.	1879.	1879.	
Blacksmiths Bricklayers and masons Carpenters Coppersmiths Cutters Dyers Harnese makers House-painters Joiners Laborers on public works Locksmiths Shoemakers Stone-masons Tailors Tanners Turners Turners Turners Average for factory hands, (male adults) Average for mechanics, (male adults)	27 1 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27	\$0 27 30 20 20 20 31 42 28 24 28 24 28 23 24 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26	\$0 37 37 36 33 37 37 38 38 33 28 33 28 47 29 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31	\$0 42 59 49 42 40 42 38 66 40 34 41 34 41 39 41 36 51 43 41	\$0 51 631 611 511 51 51 51 51 52 78 53 48 88 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58	10 70 88 84 67 70 89 84 60 70 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89	

The former custom of journeymen and apprentices boarding and lodging with their employers is, as a general thing, only kept up yet in the country; in the larger cities only exceptionally. Where board and lodging are given, it is calculated at the average rate of 28 kreutzers (18; cents gold) per day.

Wages of masons and other mechanics employed in house-building, especially in the eity of Stuttgart, have increased more than that of other trades on account of the extraordinary growth of the city and the consequent demand for masons, bricklayers, carpenters, painters, &c.

At present a good stone-mason can earn about 5 florins per day in Stuttgart. is of importance to the neighboring villages, who furnish a considerable proportion of these workingmen. As a consequence agricultural pursuits are more neglected, and the tilling of the soil left more to the female part of the family, because the father, with his sons, finds employment in the stone-quarries much more profitable. The vineculture in these places suffers from the same cause.

It is to be regretted that the fondness of drink, (although generally only of beer and not of stronger beverages,) prevents the working people from saving any considerable part of their now relatively-good earnings.

The percentage of increase in the rates of wages was as follows:

L—Factories :	Classes.	In 1672 as compared with 1830-'39.	In 1872 as compared with 1860-65.
Cotton-spinning 107 Cotton-weaving 132 Wool-spinning 129 Woolen-cloth factories 92 Chemicals 97 Paper 117 Wall-papers 114 Silver-ware 65 Jewelry 143 Planoe 168 Cutlery 95 Japanned tin-ware 94 Printing 121 The average advance paid to men employed in factories 114 II.—Mechanics: 85 Tanners 88 Stone-masons 159 Bricklayers and other masons 159 Bricklayers and other masons 132 Builders and carpenters 130 House-painters 133 Ilacksmiths 110 Copperamiths 27 Tinners 137 Tailors 131 Boot and shoe makers 132 Harness-makers 133 Harness-makers 134 <t< th=""><th>T. Pastovice.</th><th>Per cent</th><th>Per cent.</th></t<>	T. Pastovice.	Per cent	Per cent.
Cotton-weaving 132 132 132 133 132 133 134 135			26
Woolen-cloth factories 123			37
Woolen-cloth factories 92			41
Chemicals 97 Paper 117 Wall-papers 118 117 Wall-papers 114 118	Woolen-cloth factories		17
Paper		. 97	21
Wall-papers 114 Silver-ware 55 Jewelry 143 Planos 168 Cutlery 95 Japanned tin-ware 94 Printing 121 The average advance paid to men employed in factories 114 II.—Mechanics: 85 Dyers 88 Stone-masons 159 Bricklayers and other masons 133 Builders and carpenters 130 House-painters 137 Locksmiths 110 Coppersmiths 142 Cutlers 37 Tinners 151 Boot and shoe makers 132 Harness-makers 131 Joiners 124 Turners 124 Turners 124		117	37
Silver-ware			25
Plance 168 Cutlery 95 Japanned tin-ware 94 Printing 121 The average advance paid to men employed in factories 114 II.—Mechanics: 85 Dyers 85 Tanners 88- Stone-masons 159 Bricklayers and other masons 130 Builders and carpenters 130 House-painters 113 Blackmiths 137 Locksmiths 110 Coppersmiths 142 Cutlers 37 Tinners 151 Boot and shoe makers 132 Harness-makers 132 Harness-makers 124 Turners 124		85	14
Cutlery 95 Japanned tin-ware 94 Printing 94 The average advance paid to men employed in factories 114 II.—Mechanics: 85 Dyers 85 Tanners 88 Stone-masons 159 Bricklayers and other masons 133 Builders and carpenters 130 House-painters 113 Elacksmiths 110 Copersmiths 142 Cutlers 37 Tinners 137 Tailors 151 Boot and shoe makers 151 Bot and shoe makers 132 Harness-makers 131 Joiners 124 Turners 124			52
Japanned tin-ware. 94 Printing			59
Printing			18
The average advance paid to men employed in factories			17
II - Mechanics :	Printing	131	46
Dyers	The average advance paid to men employed in factories	114	31
Dyers	II.—Mechanica:		
Stone-masons			21
Bricklayers and other masons 138 Builders and carpenters 130 House-painters 113 Blacksmiths 137 Locksmiths 140 Coppersmiths 142 Cutlers 97 Tinners 137 Tailors 151 Boot and shoe makers 132 Harness-makers 131 Joiners 124 Turners 119	Tapners	88 -	30
Builders and carpenters 130 House-painters 113 Blacksmiths 110 Coppersmiths 110 Coppersmiths 142 Cutlers 177 Tinners 157 Tailors 151 Boot and shoe makers 151 Boot and shoe makers 132 Harness-makers 131 Joiners 124 Turners 119			53
House-painters	Bricklayers and other masons		22
Blacksmiths			26
Locksmiths			18
Coppersmiths. 142 Cutlers 97 Tinners 137 Tailors 151 Boot and shoe makers 132 Harness-makers 131 Joiners 124 Turners 119			45
Cutlers			34
Tinners 137 Tailors 151 Boot and shoe makers 132 Harness-makers 131 Joiners 124 Turners 119			46 28
Tailors 151 Boot and shoe makers 132 Harness-makers 131 Joiners 124 Turners 119			28 52
Boot and shoe makers			50 50
Harness-makers 131 Joiners 124 Turners 119			41
Joiners 124 Turners 119			46
Turners			38
			46
		194.	37
	•		
III.—Day-laborers on public works	III.—Day-laborers on public works	133	37

But this advance has not entirely contributed to improve the condition of the weeking classes, as on the other hand the prices of the necessaries of life have advanced a similar ratio. The price of dwellings in Stattgart has advanced within the last trayears from 50 to 75 per cent. In the country the advance has been comparatively small. Now, let us see the advance in the price of bread, meat, beer, and firewood:

Years.	the h	e prices this 1; poundred- he latter 1475 Gen	er cent. le weight in being c	Average prices per pound e-			
	Spelt.	Grain.	Rye.	Barley.	Beef.	Pork.	Vest
1833-'49	\$1 33 1 73 2 21‡	\$1 85\\\2 47\\3 11	\$1 29 1 79 2 25‡	\$1 372 1 66 2 06	\$0 05.8 9.03 14.67	\$0 05.47 9.07 14.67	\$0 05 7,93 14

Advance in 1872.

Years.	On spelt.	On grain.	On rye.	On barley.	On beef.	On pork.	On veal.
1872 compared with 1833-'42 1872 compared with 1856-'65	66	Per cent. 67 26	Per cent. 75 26	Per cent. 50 24	Per cent. 153 61	Per cent 16g 62	Per act. 180

	Average advance in the price of—		
Years.	Breadstuffs.	Меат.	
From 1833-'42 until 1872	Per cent. 65 26	Per cent. 167 66	

The prices of beer and of fire-wood were as follows:

Years.	ppen beer 44 liter.	l cord wood = 141 württ. cubic feet = 31.386 württ. cubic meters.		
·	1 scho	Hickory.	Pine.	
1830-'39	\$0 01.17 1.67 2.27	\$6 90 9 40 11 60	\$3 90 6 40 6 90	

This makes the average advance in 1872:

Years.	On beer.	On hickory wood.	On pine wood.	On pine and hickory wood to- gether.
Compared with 1833-'42	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
	94	68	31	50
	36	23	6	15

The advanced prices of fire-wood have caused the consumption of coal and coke to assume much larger proportions. These are preferred by all whose first object is

coopony, as they are much cheaper than wood, and many of the old-fashioned woodstoves now take the place of coal-stoves even in the country.

If we put together, for purposes of comparison, the ADVANCE of wages and of the price of bread, meat, beer, and wood, we obtain the following result:

•					
Years.	Wages of me- chanics and in factories.	Breadstuffs.	Meat.	Beer.	Wood.
From 1830-'39 er 1833-'42 to 1872 From 1860-'65 or 1838-'65 to 1872		Per cent. 65 26	Per cent. 167 66	Per cent. 94 36	Per cent. 50 15

Compared with 1830, the advance of wages has been greater than the advance in the prices of the necessaries of life; so in general, and especially with some of the branches of trade, the condition of the working-classes has experienced a considerable amelioration.

INDUSTRY OF WÜRTEMBERG IN 1871.

The following information in regard to labor in Würtemberg in the years 1870 and 1871, before the advance in the rates of wages resulting from the termination of the Franco-German war had taken place, is condensed from the British consular reports:

Out of a population of 1,748,328 inhabitants, 50 per cent. are employed in agriculture, and 269,077 in other kinds of industry. These last are distributed as follows:

	Employ	red in	
Classes.	Manufactures and handicrafts.	Commerce and carrying-trade.	Total.
Employers and overseers	111, 330 111, 144 13, 741	21, 719 9, 023 2, 120	133, 049 190, 167 15, 861
Total	236, 215	32, 862	269, 077

It has been calculated that the capital of the nation, by aid of the laboring population, returns a revenue of 10 per cent.

The following statistics will help to give a further idea of the mode in which labor is distributed among the different branches:

Forty-four thousand three hundred and forty-four persons are employed in the preparation of food. The principal establishments in this class of manufactories are-

Grain-mills	2.084
Distilleries	
(N. B.—Of this number only 55, or 66 per cent., are at present at work.)	,
Breweries	2,367
Chicory manufactories	· 4
Beet-root sugar manufactories	5

Four establishments, employing 325 hands and 5,200 spindles, are engaged in spinning flax. Linen is mostly hand-woven in Würtemberg. This trade employs 19,507 workmen and 19,379 looms. The number of power-looms in present use is 27.

Seventy-five establishments are engaged in spinning woolen yarn, employing, in the aggregate, 60,000 spindles and 2,200 workmen.

Three manufactories for carding wool, employing 20,000 spindles and 13,500 workmen. Seventy-four, working with 527 hand and 31 power looms, and employing 1,114 hands, are employed in the manufacture of woolen tissues.

Twenty-two, working with 444 hand and 45 power looms, and occupying 836 work-

men, are engaged in the manufacture of flannels and mixed stuffs.

There are upward of sixty manufactories employed in Würtemberg in the construction of machines; six of these engaged on metals in the construction of locomotives.

Thirty-four establisments are engaged in working precious metals. Besides these, there are many large factories working in all classes of iron, bronze, and zinc manufactures, and employing a large portion of the industrial population, the number of which does not appear in the official returns published.

The present average rate of wages may be generally stated as follows:

WAGES IN TOWNS.

For the most ordinary class of labor, 40 cents to 48 cents per day, or \$2.40 to \$2.88 per week; while skilled labor in the higher branches of industry, e. g., of an engine-builder, or first-class machanic, commands as high as \$6 to \$8 a week.

or inst-class machanic, commands as high as \$0 to \$0 a week.

The worst paid labor is that of journeymen tailors and cobblers. On the occasion of a threatened strike of cobblers in May, 1870, it was represented that the rate of payment for piecework was so low that it was impossible, even by working fourteen and fifteen hours a day, to earn more than four or five florins (\$1.60 to \$2.00) per week. The masters maintained that good work could obtain double that amount of wages. They, however, agreed to raise their former wages from 15 to 25 per cent.

WAGES IN THE COUNTRY.

Wages vary considerably, according to the time of year. In winter labor is very cheap; while in summer, and particularly during the harvest time, it will command even higher wages than in towns. Instances are not rare where as much as 75 cents and 78 cents a day have been paid for day laborers. When in receipt of equal wages, the position of the country laborer is naturally far better than that of the workman in town; his wants being much more easy to supply, especially in the item of lodging, the rent of which is very high in the larger towns, and constantly on the increase. A married workman in Stuttgart has, at the present moment, to pay from \$35 to \$50 a year for a lodging consisting of two rooms and a kitchen, while in the country he could easily lodge himself for half that sum.

The rates of wages in factories vary according to the distance of the factories from the capital. In the cotton-spinning manufactory near Esslingen, about four miles from Stuttgart, the wages for a good male spinner vary from 36 cents to 75 cents a day; a good female hand receives 36 cents a day. The working hands in this cetablishment have the advantage of procuring excellent lodgings built by their employers, and consisting of four good rooms each, with kitchen and cellar, at the moderate rent of from \$20 to \$30 a year.

In the calico manufactory at Heidenheim, the present rates of wages are 37 cents a day for a male hand, and 22 cents for women's and children's labor. It may be observed, however, that Heidenheim is situated in one of the cheapest districts of Wittemberg, and the purchasing power of wages is accordingly higher than in other parts of the country. Wages in this factory have increased 12 per cent. since 1865, and 4 per cent. in the last year.

The most marked rise in wages is in the building trade in Stuttgart. This business was one of the first to suffer at the outbreak of the war; but within the last year it has received such an impetus as to have affected the price of labor in various other branches of industry, and over a very extended radius.

The following rates of daily wages of workmen employed by the Stuttgart Build-

The following rates of daily wages of workmen employed by the Stuttgart Building Society was furnished by the secretary of the society:

Class of laborers.	Amounț.	Class of laborers,	Amount
Ditchers and diggers. Bricklayers Ordinary laborers, hodmen Ordinary laborers, boys Masons Carpenters. Plasterers Joiners Glaziers	79 58 45 91 72 1 00 66	Locksmiths Blacksmiths Potters Tinmen House-painters Room-painters Upholsterers Paviors	56 66 63 83 54

BAVARIA.

Interesting as a visit to Bavaria, and especially to its art-renowned capital, would have been, its manufacturing industries were not sufficiently varied and extensive to induce the author to depart from his prescribed route through the manufacturing towns of the continent. The population of Bavaria is principally engaged in agricultural pursuits. Its manufactures are chiefly connected with science and the fine arts. They comprise philosophical instruments, paint colors, lithographic stones, gold and silver leaf, carriages, and cloth-stuffs. It is

noted particularly for its breweries, of which there are five thousand six hundred, making one hundred million gallons of beer annually, mainly consumed within the country. Nearly two-thirds of the revenue of the state is derived from this source. Next to beer, coarse linen is the most important product of manufacturing industry, and of late years a number of cotton-factories have been erected. Leather is somewhat extensively manufactured, as are also paper, articles of straw and wood, porcelain, glass, nails, needles, jewelry, beet-root sugar, and tobacco.

Munich, it is true, has some eminently good iron, bronze, and bell founderies, but its chief glory consists in its fine galleries of paintings and sculpture. It owes its prosperity chiefly to the amount of court-favor bestowed upon it. Within the last fifty years this town, as a focus of artistic activity, has been largely developed, and its material prosperity augmented in a proportionate degree; and now there are few, if any, towns in Europe, of the same size, which contain so many public edifices and institutions devoted to the purpose of art and science, as this, the capital of Bavaria, and the acknowledged metropolis of Southern Germany. It has a university with seventeen hundred students, and a library containing 147,000 volumes and 5,294 manuscripts. Twelve newspapers are published in the town. Its porcelain is exported, like that of Dresden, to different parts of Europe.

AGRICULTURAL LABOR IN GERMANY.

Professor Dr. Freiherr v. d. Goltz, of Königsberg, who has undertaken the elaboration of the "Investigation into the condition of the rural laborers in Germany," initiated by the congress of German agriculturists, has recently published, in the Concordia, preliminary tables of the wages usually paid to agricultural laborers in different parts of Germany. These tables refer to such laborers only as, although not under contract-obligations, are steadily employed during the whole year, earning no other emoluments. The rates of wages for summer and winter represent the average of all reports received, aggregating nearly one thousand four hundred, so that each amount in the seventy-three classes enumerated below represents the mean of nearly twenty reports.

Statement showing the daily wages in summer and winter, respectively, of agricultural laborers in the under-mentioned 73 districts of Germany, in the year 1874.

	[30 silbergroschen = 1 thaler = 72 cents, United S	tates gold.]	
Districts.	Places.	In summer.	In winter.	Average.
1 2 3 4	Province of Prussia: District of Gumbinnen District of Königsberg District of Dantzic District of Dantzic District of Marienwerder Average	31. 68, 32. 60 34. 32	\$0 16.80 19.68 21.60 21.36	\$0 21.60 25.68 27.10 27.84
5 6 7	Province of Pomerania: District of Côslin District of Stettin District of Stralsund Average	39, 36 57, 84	26. 40 28. 04 29. 52 26. 40	30. 12 31. 20 43. 68
8	Province of Posen: District of Bromberg District of Posen Average	27. 84 33. 36	21. 12 18. 24 19. 68	30. 00 23. 04 26. 52

Statement showing the daily wages in summer and winter, &c .- Continued.

District	Places.	In summer.	In winter.	Average.
10 11	Province of Brandenburg : District of Potsdam. District of Frankfort-on-the-Oder	\$0 42 33, 19	\$0 26.88 24.24	\$6 34.44 98.68
	Average	37. 56	95. 56	31. 56
12 13 14	Province of Silesia : District of Liegnits. District of Breslau. District of Oppeln.	24. 96 23. 52 18. 96	18. 96 17. 76 14. 64	21. 96 20. 64 16. 89
	Average	22, 48	17. 19	19.80
15 16 17	Province of Saxony: District of Merseburg District of Magdeburg District of Erfurt.	36. 79 41. 76 26. 88	28. 38 29. 28 22. 80	36.58 35.58 94.86
	Average	35. 12	26. 80	30.96
18 19 20 21 22 23	Province of Hanover: District of Hanover. District of Hildesheim District of Lüneburg District of Osnabrück District of Aurich District of Stade.	36. 72 34. 80 42 39. 19 43. 92 52. 08	30 29. 28 31. 44 34. 39 31. 92 36	33. 36 39. 64 36. 73 36. 78 37. 92 44. 64
1	Average	41. 44	32.16	36, 80
24	Province of Schleswig-Holsatia	48. 24	31.68	39.96
25 96 27	Province of Westphalia: District of Münster District of Minden District of Arnaberg	39. 60 32. 16 51. 84	31. 68 98. 08 39. 36	35. 64 30. 12 45. 60
	Average	41. 28	33, 12	37. 90
98 99 30 31 32	Province of Rhenish Prussia: District of Düsseldorf District of Cologne District of Aix la-Chapelle District of Treves District of Coblens.	67. 76 42. 79 45. 19 43. 68 34. 80	37. 90 39. 88 33. 60 39. 40 29. 28	42. 48 37. 80 39. 34 38. 04 32. 04
	Average	42.72	33. 19	37. 92
33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41	Province of Hesse-Nassau Principality of Waldeck Principality of Lippe-Detmold Hanseatic city Bremen Grand-duchy of Oldenburg Hanseatic city Lübeck Duchy of Lauenburg Grand-duchy of Mecklenburg Duchy of Brunswick Duchy of Brunswick Duchy of Sare-Weimar Duchy of Saxe-Weimar Duchy of Saxe-Weimar Duchy of Saxe-Gourg-Gotha	38. 64 31. 20 36 66. 24 50. 40 38. 60 38. 88	30. 72 24 24 48 36 28. 80 25. 68	34.68 97.60 30 57.19 43.90 34.06 32.90 32.40
42 43 44 45 46	Duchy of Anhalt Grand-duchy of Saxe-Weimar Duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha Duchy of Saxe-Altenburg Duchy of Saxe-Meiningen	30 33, 19 34, 80 35, 59 27, 36	26. 16 23. 52 36. 88 26. 88 22. 06	98. 08 98. 39 30. 84 31. 99 94. 73
47 48 49 50	Kingdom of Saxony: District of Leipzic District of Dreselen District of Zwickau District of Bautzen	40. 08 43. 68 39. 84 31. 20	28. 39 31. 20 28. 56 28. 08	34. 98 · 37. 44 34. 98 \$9. 64
	Average	38. 45	28, 85	33.65
51 52 53 54 55 50	Kingdom of Bavaria : District of Palatinate . District of Lower Franconia . District of Middle Franconia . District of Upper Franconia . District of Upper Palatinate and Regensburg . District of Lower Bavaria .	39. 84 33. 84 30. 72 34. 80 28. 32 37. 68	39, 64 24, 24 23, 52 21, 36 23, 04 30, 94	36. 34 99. 64 97. 19 98. 69 95. 69 33. 96

Statement showing the daily wages in summer and winter, &c .- Continued.

Districts.	Places.	In summer.	In winter.	А чега до.
57 58	District of Upper Bayaria	\$0 44.88 47.76	\$0 33, 36 34, 08	\$0 39. 18 40. 92
	Average	37. 23	27. 81	32.52
59 60 61 62	Kingdom of Würtemberg: District of Neokar District of Jaxt District of Danube District of Black Forest with Hohensollern	40, 39 44, 64 43, 44	38, 64 99, 76 34, 08 99, 76	44. 28 35. 04 39. 36 36. 60
	Average	44. 58	33.06	38. 82
84 88 87	Grand-duchy of Baden: Valley of the Lower Rhine Valley of the Upper Rhine Lower Mountains Upper Mountains Surroundings of Lake Constance	37. 90 49. 90	35, 28 37, 90 29, 52 38, 16 36, 24	39. 94 42 33. 36 43. 68 40. 32
	Average	44. 16	35. 28	39. 79
68 69 70	Grand-duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt: Province of Starkenburg. Province of Rhenish Hessia. Province of Upper Hessia. Average.	38. 64 30. 96 37. 44	30. 94 30. 96 26. 88 29. 36	34. 44 30. 96 32. 16 32. 52
71 73 73	Alsace-Lorraine: District of Lower Alsace District of Upper Alsace District of Upper Alsace Average	46. 90 49. 92 52. 08	39. 60 41. 76 36. 96	43. 29 45. 84 44. 52 44. 58

PRICES OF BREADSTUFFS IN WÜRTEMBURG.

Statement showing the average prices of breadstuffs in Würtemburg in the years from 1833 to 1873.

The lowest prices occurred in the years-

	1836.	1841.
Wheatper scheffel* SpeltRye	\$3 78 1 62	
Rye	2 58	\$2 24 1 42

The highest prices occurred in the years-

	1847.	1854.	1873.
Wheat per sch effel Spelt Rye Barley Oats	4 27 7 11 6 08	\$10 26 3 90 8 12 6 23 3 02	\$8 99 3 60 6 34 6 29 2 93

The high prices in 1873 are the result of the small harvest in 1872, and a decidedly poor harvest in 1873, together with a sinking price of gold during the last years.

Average prices of other provisions.

	1872.	1873.
Pease	3 59 3 31 77	\$3 74 3 82 3 38 87 57 42
MEATS.		
Beef, (fat). Beef Cow Pork	12.6	15.3 13.3 12.6 15.3

II.—COST OF LIVING IN GERMANY.

The rates of wages in manufacturing establishments in various parts of Germany, also of mechanics and farm-laborers, which obtained in 1872, when a personal investigation was made, as well as in previous and subsequent years, are presented in the preceding pages in such variety and to such extent as to indicate not only the absolute cost of labor in that country, but the relative rates as compared with those of other portions of continental and insular Europe, and with those of the United A just comparison with the latter country cannot, however, be made unless the purchasing power of the wages be ascertained; for, if a machinist in Berlin earn ten thalers (\$7.20 gold) per week, and another of equal skill in Philadelphia receives \$12 in gold, it would be manifestly incorrect to say that the American earned 66 per cent. more than the German workman, unless \$7.20 in Philadelphia would purchase as much food, clothing, house-rent, and other necessaries, as ten thalers in Berlin, which is not the case. To aid in forming a correct estimate of the purchasing power of wages in Germany, tables showing the prices of provisions and other necessaries of life are presented in the succeeding pages. To guard against erroneous conclusions, however, it must be stated here, as it has been heretofore done in relation to Great Britain, that the prices given in the tables referred to do not indicate with entire accuracy the cost of the necessaries of life in Germany as compared with those in the United States. For example, the average market-price of superfine flour is as great in the former as in the latter country, but as it is not commonly used by the German workman, its price is comparatively of little importance as an element in the computation. skilled laborer from the United States should obtain employment in Germany and subsist largely upon wheaten bread and animal food as he has been accustomed to at home, instead of in chief part upon ryebread and beer,* the value of the following tables for purposes of comparison would be greatly enhanced.

^{*}In the city of Prague, during the year 1873, the consumption of beer was on an average 72 gallons for every man, woman, and child in the city.

Although great care has been taken in the computation, yet it is be lieved that in some cases the "pound" as expressed in the tables is really the German "pfund," which is equivalent to 1_{7} English pounds. It will be observed that the blank forms to which the prices of pro-

It will be observed that the blank forms to which the prices of provisions in the following tables are attached, are the same as those used in the United States, and do not in all respects conform to the German classifications; as, for instance, in the different designations of sugar and domestic dry goods.

It is also believed that, in many cases, the figures given in the tables represent the prices of better qualities of the articles specified than are

generally consumed by the working classes.

Statement showing the prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, with house-rent and board, in the towns of Dresden, Chemnits, and Leipsic, Sazony, in 1872, 1873, and 1874.

[The thaler computed at 72 cents.]

Articles.	Dread	en.	Chemnits.	Leipsic.	verage in
ar union.	1879.	1973.	1879.	1674.	A vers
lour: PROVISIONS.					
Wheat ennertine ner herrel			\$ 5 88	\$8 83	\$7 2
Wheat, extra family			8 94 \$5 88 to 7 06	10 97 8 35	9 (
Arn.mael do	\$ 7 46		588 to 706	8 25	64
eef:	••••••		J & & &		٠.
leef: Fresh, roasting-piecesper poundFresh, soup-piecesdoFresh, rump-steaksdo	13	0 19	15	15	1
Fresh, soup-piecesdo	19 17	17	134 16	19 13	1
Corneddodo	17	14	10	13	
71.	•				
Fore-quartersdodododododododododododododododo	11			12	
Hind-quartersdo	11		10	14	
Cutiets		24	12	15	
Fore-quartersdodo	13		12	14	
Leg dodo	12	19	13		1
Chopsdo	12	19	14	15	ì
ork:	.	٠	1		ı
Freshdodododo	14 15	16	15 17	15	
Bacon do. Hams, smoked do. Shoulders do.	18	24	20	94	•
Hams, smokeddo	l iš	24		24	i
Shouldersdo	18		13		
	13	12	13		
Ard	14	19	81	94	
doodfish, dry	8026 to 29	38		34	
heesedo	12 to 24	12		22	
otatoesper bushel	80	86	48	51	l
100 Det nonna	07 05	07	04	07	
Causper quare	05	1 11	05	04	
eans per quart. lilk do. ggs per dozen.	14	20	14	21	
GROCERIES, ETC.	l	ì			l
ea—Oolong, or other good blackper pound	54	72	60	1	
offee :	J 34	/2			i
Rio, greendododo	24	29	23	l	l
Rio, roasteddo	29	36	30		
ogar:	08 to 10	111	19	19	
Vallor (!	08 to 10	111	13	18	
Coffee Bdo		14	14	15	
ugnr:	38 to 64	75	(per lb.) 09		
cap, common per pound tarch do	07 to 10	10	08	11	l
		08	07	10	
Wood, hardper cord	6 48	7 90	5 00	9 60	7
Wood, hardper cord	4 86	5 52	3 60	8 80	5
il, coalper gallon		37		39	l
DRY GOODS, ETC.	•	l	l	i	1
hirtings: Brown 4.4 standard quality per yard	l 09	1		15	l
Brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yard Bleached, 4-4, standard qualitydo	ıĭi			15	ı
					1
Brown, 9-8, standard qualitydo				38	
Bleached, 9-8, standard qualitydo		18		38	ı
ickings good qualitydodo		30			ı
rinte	10	11		19	ı
lousseline de lainesdodo	60			36	l
stinets, medium qualitydo	24		3 24		3
heetings: Brown, 9-8, standard quality	2 04 to 2 58	3 24	3 24		3
HOUSE-RENT.		1	1	l	ł
our-roomed tenementsper month	5 04		2 40		3
ix-roomed tenementsdo	7 20				7
BOARD.		1	I		ı
or men, (mechanics or other workmen) per week	216to 252		l	l	2
	108 to 123	1			Ιī

Statement showing the prices of provisions, grocortes, and other leading articles of consumption, with house-run and board, in the undermentioned towns of Trusia, in 1872 and 1874.

[The thaler computed at 72 cents.]

nl e	Retera Butt	55 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 2	5527	228	223	228882288822	8
	Dautzio.	\$10 24 11 24 6 05 6 05	12 12 13	#0 12 to 15 16 21	822	28 29 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25	28
1873.	Berlin.	\$11 10 6 28	17 12 18 16	1110	\$0 11 to 11 14 15	8 8 81 5 5 5 3 3 3 3 1 2 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	
	Barmen and Elberfeld.	#11 76 11 19 11 19	11 12 14 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15	16 16	19	114 198 198 198 198 198 198 198 198 198 198	8
1874.	Disseldorf.	#8 60 6 33 5 93 8 93	2123	8 # 8	16	56 13 55 54 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55	78 to 1 G
gi	Cologne.	#10 44 18 94 7 80	18	18 29	17	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	25
183 183	Aix-la-Cha- pelle.	#10 03 10 48 5 62	17 17 18	16 17 18	71 88 88	e Ē ezarbarba	B
	Articles.	Figur: Wheek superfine Wheek extra family Bye Commend	Even, roasting pleose Fresh, roasting pleose do Fresh, rump-fresh, and pleose do Corned	Fore-quarters do do do Culteta Culteta	muton: Fro-quarters Log Log Chope	Fresh Fresh Boomed or salted Banon	GROCKRIES, ETC. Tes.—Oclong or other good blackper pound

Statement showing the prices of processions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, with house-rent and board, &c.—Continued.

[The thaler computed at 72 cents.]

		-					
	1872.	ď	1674.		1872.		ge in. eis.
Articles.	Aix-la-Cha- pelle.	Cologne.	Düsseldorf.	Barmen and Elberfeld.	Berlin.	Dantzio-	and and
Coffee: GROCERIES, ETC. Rio, Rreen. per pound. Rio, rossted. do do	28	\$0 22 to \$0 24	9€ O \$	2 25 35	9 26 36	96 0 8	5 20 30
G ood brown do per gallon Per pound d. 65 darch per pound do Starch do	Per pound, 11 06 11	10 to 95	08 12 18 19 19 19 19 19	Not used. 14 Perpound, 19 18	\$0 12 to 13	11 13 14 76 80 09 to 12	93 14 13 13 13
Conl Conl Per ton Wood, hard : per ton Wood, pine. Vood pine. Oil, coal	20 4 to 20 4 to 30 4 t	7 68	4.0 to	4 80 Not used.	6 72 82 43	6 68	4 4 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 9 8 9 8 9 8 9 8 9 8 9 8
Shirtings: Brown, 4-4, standard quality. Browd, 4-4, standard quality. Considerable of the control of the contr	2.2	88	==	===		П	120
lity	255 255 255 255 255 255 255 255 255 255	48 04	16 19 14	Not used. Not used. 18 24 17	154 164 24 to 42 11 to 12	15	16 20 14 14 14
Satineta, medium quality	- 8 8	2 88 to 4 08	1 80 to 3 60	\$1 80 to 2 88	2 16 to 3 96		8 2 2
Four-roomed tenements	9 rooms, 1 95	10 90		1 room, 1 44 1 50 to \$ 52 2 68 to 3 60 for 3 rooms.	5 04 to 10 08 for 2 rooms. }	\$ 28 02 8	4 62
Boand, (mechanics or other workmen)	# 16	1 68 to 9 59	1 68	1 20 66 66 66	11 80	1 48	23

Statement showing the prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, with house-rent and board, in Munich, Stuttgart, and Frankfort, Germany, in 1872, 1873, and 1874.

[The theler computed at 72 cents; the florin at 40 cents.]

Articles.	Munich.	Stuttgart.	Frankfort-c	on-the-Main.	tre to
	1879.	1873.	1872.	1874.	Average Germany.
Flour: PROVISIONS. Wheat, superfineper barrel. Wheat, extra familydo Byedo Corn-mealdo.	\$12 00 13 20 10 80	\$8 50 9 50 7 00 7 50	\$11 50 12 50 9 00 9 00	\$ 7 8 4	\$9 43 11 12 7 71
Don's	17	17	15	18	6 86
Fresh, roasting-pieces per pound	12 13 21	14 15	15 20 18	\$0 10 to 15	14 19 17
Fore-quarters do. Hind-quarters do. Cullets do. Mutton:	11 12 12	14 18 16	15 15	14 18 24	13 14 18
Fore-quarters	10 10 10	19 14	14 22 22	11 15 20	13 15 17
Pork : fresh do Corned or salted do Bacon do	17 20	15 20 18	15 14 92	17 29	16 18 21
Bacon do Hams, smoked do Shoulders do Sansages do Lard do	32 32 32 24	32 16 18	92 22 22 40 14 to 20 16	26 to 30 16 to 32 24	96 21 19 21
Casissign	08 17 26 48	06 22 80 05 to 06 60	25 to 30	09 32 26 36	09 98 17 60
Rice per pound. Beans per quart. Milk do. Eggs. per dozen.	08 08 04 16	08 09 04 16	06 to 09 06 05 18	06 to 09 11 06 15	07 07 05 17
GROCERIES, ETC.				l I	
Tea—Oolong, or other good blackper pound Coffee: Rio, greendo	80 95	1 00	64 96	60	73
Rio, roasteddo	31		30	32 38	27 32
Good brown do Yellow C do Coffee B do Sirup per gallon Soap, common per pound	08 11 17	12 14 18 40	16 13 64	11 14	10 13 15 46
Pnol.	10 12	10 12	08 08	- 08 to 14	08 10
Coal. per ton. Wood, hard per oord. Wood, pine do. Oil, coal. per gallon.	5 20 8 00 5 60 24	8 50 9 50 4 75 48	8 00 12 00 7 00 1 00	7 20 4 00 2 80 64	6 70 7 24 5 17 49
Shirtings: DRY GOODS, ETC. Brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yard Bleached, 4-4, standard qualitydo	11 12	10 10	14 16	16 20	19 13
Sheetings:	16 20	12 to 18 17 to 25	20 20	40	24 96
Bleached, 9-8, standard quality. do. Cotton-fiannel, medium quality. do. Tickings, good quality. do. Prints, good. do. Mouseline de laines. do.	24 13 12 32	17 to 22 30 10 10 to 25	36	18 to 24 18 to 32 18 32	91 96 13 31
Satineta, medium qualitydoBoots, men's heavyper pair BOUSE-RENT.	24 4 00	30 9 75	3 00	2 50 to 4 00	31 3 09
Four-roomed tenementsper month		12 00	8 00	7 50	5 90
Six-roomed tenementsdo	••••••	18 00	10 00	9 15	9 90
For men, (mechanics or other workmen).per wk. For women employed in factoriesdo	2 40 2 40	1 75 to 2 00 1 00 to 1 40	3 20 1 60 to 2 40	2 24 to 2 80 1 75 to 2 80	2 35 1 56

^{*} General average of this statement and of the two on preceding pages.

Prices of the following articles in Frankfort-on-Main and Offenbach.

Articles.		Fra	nk	for	k.	Offenbach.
Lamp-oil	\$	16 40 30 18 18 50 50 50 50 50	*********	\$0 4 7 2 7		\$3 00 to \$5 00 4 50 to 6 50 1 20 to 6 50 32 to 60
One room, for a single man per month Two rooms and kitchen per year Three rooms and kitchen do Three, four, five, or more workmen occupying one room, each per month	70	00	to	100 125	00	1 08 98 00 to 60 60 36 00 to 64 60

In reference to the above, Mr. Consul-General Webster writes under date of October 14, 1874:

I send herewith a list of the prices of the necessaries of life in the cities of Frankfort and of Offenbach. The latter is almost wholly a manufacturing city where leather

goods, machinery, carriages, &c., are made.

In the cost of the necessaries of life there cannot be much difference between the two places. The articles sold in a place like Offenbach are of an inferior quality to those sold generally in Frankfort. But there is not a corresponding difference in the prices. The same quality sold in the lowest-class places in Frankfort would be about the same prices, perhaps a little lower.

In a letter dated a few months previously, Mr. Webster thus wrote in regard to the high prices of the necessaries of life in Germany:

If, as is probable, the demand for labor will not continue to be so great as it now is, wages must still increase, in consequence of the advancing prices of provisions and cost of living. Rents have generally doubled within the last three years. Within my own knowledge, tenements, which rented in 1869 at from 800 to 1,200 florins, now rent from 2,000 to 3,000 florins. Common laborers occupy but very few rooms, and they pay often 12 to 20 florins for two small rooms per month. For a tenement, 300 to

\$1,000 per year rent, and bring their bread from California.

The prevailing idea is that the cost of living is very much less in Europe than in the United States. I think that the experience of most persons and families now living in the cities of Europe satisfies them that there is but little difference between American and European cities, if we except our very largest cities. There is not much dif-ference in rents, furniture, and provisions. There is a difference in clothing, house-help, and carriage-hire. Fuel is dearer, and gas is dearer here than in the United States. Of course, in the country and small towns rents are very different from the cities. In other things there is not much difference. Of course a person will live dif-ferently in the country from what he will live in a city, therefore he will live chesper. If an American lives in a European city in the style and manner that he here lived at If an American lives in a European city in the style and manner that he has lived at home, his expenses will not be materially less. People go abroad to live cheaper than at home. In order to accomplish it they live in smaller quarters, and in a meaner style. Travelers have often remarked to me that their bills at hotels are larger here than when in New York City. Also, that traveling by railroad with baggage is also dearer than in the United States. The general charge is 24 to 34 cents per mile, and baggage extra. Two hundred pounds of baggage costs about as much as a passenger.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS IN THE BERLIN MARKET.

Statement showing the prices of provisions in the Berlin market in each month from January to October, inclusive, in the year 1874.

							RECEI	RECRIVED BY WATER	ATBR.						
Months.	Wheat,	t, 50 kilograms.	ame.	Rye,	Rye, 50 kilograms	uns.	Barle	Barley, 50 kilograms.	rama.	Oats	Oats, 50 kilograms.	in the second	Poss	Pease, 50 kilograms.	Ams.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Avorage.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
January Bebruary March May Janie June August August Cotober	\$2000000000000000000000000000000000000	\$\frac{1}{2}\tau \text{consistence} consisten	20000000000000000000000000000000000000	\$\\\ \alpha \times \tim	#10111011111 888288554488 848888	\$\$ \ada \ada \ada \ada \ada \ada \ada \a	\$\$ aaaaaaaaaa \$\$555558 44 \$33	\$ 444444444444444444444444444444444444	\$\$ 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	8885284 8885884 888888 88888	24.24 11.25.28 11.25.28 11.25.28 12.26.28 12.26.28 12.26.28 12.26.28 12.26.28 12.26.28	######################################	2 000000000000000000000000000000000000	**************************************	\$\\ \alpha accessed acce
Total	32 03.60	26 22 20 20 20 20	28 81.60	24 93	18 64.20	22, 29	98. 28	21 33 30	22 22	25 41.60	18 64.80	21 36 80	25 72 80	93 31.60	94 34.80
Average	98 °56 80	26 S	\$ 88.16	s 49.30	1 86.45	22 23 38	8 65 80	9 13.32	2 30.40	2 54 16	. 1 86.48	8 13 68	2 57.28	9 33. 16	9 43 49
			-				RECE	RECEIVED BY LAND	AND.						
Months.	Wheat,	ıt, 50 kilograms	rams.	Rye	Rye, 50 kilograms	tme.	Barle	Barley, 50 kilograma	rama.	Oats	Oats, 50 kilograma	rme.	H	Hay, per owt.	Į.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highost.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
January Pebruary March March May June Juny August September		සියය හ යෙය 8888 බ පැවැති	සිසස ස සය අවදුව 21 883 ප්රිවිධ 883	සසපසසද අප්ස්	52555425883 52555425583	4+444;838 2 74	**************************************	5444 월급聚聚	청숙 없당 숙성교고	8888444488	2588839527	知智效核酶解因毒性症 (8	නමන් සහ සහ සහ සහ සහ සහ සහ සහ සහ සහ සහ සහ සහ	**************************************	######################################
Total	18 50.40	16 99.20	16 97.60	8 8 8	22 43.60	8 8 8	2 2 2 3	8 8 8 8	35 ES	8 B	7. 2. 2.	25.65			8 41. 40
Average	185.04	1 69.92	1 69.76	2 50.96	24.36	36.38	8 8 8	25. 26. 25. 25.	2, 15, 36	2. 56. 32	2 40 14 14	2 48 04 10 04	1 02 CS	3	84. 14

* Kilogram = about 2 1.5 pounds; 50 kilograms = 110.23 pounds.

Statement showing the prices of provisions in the Berlin market, &c.—Continued.

						RECEIVED	RECEIVED BY LAND.							POTATORS.	
Months.	Straw	w, 60 bundles.	lles.	Pe	Pease, 5 liters.*	* de	Į.	Lentils, 5 liters.	ž.	Æ	Beans, 5 liters.	فو		5 liters.	
	Highest.	Lowest	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average	Highest	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest	Атегаде.
January February March Anril	5 6 8 6	78.78 28.88 28.88		8888	8 2222		8 8 8 8 8	8888	88 88 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	8 8888	8888		80 97 97 97 98 97 98 98 98		86 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 8
May June July August September October	505005 868888	22222	9 8 8 8 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	******	=	8888 8	36554	88888 8	8888888 8 488	44444	& & &&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&	######################################	2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2. 2	27.00 27.00 28.00 29.00 20.00	85.51.55 88888 88888
Total	88 88	79 92	89 31.60	8 37	2 30.40	2 91.30	**	2 92.80	3 54.20	4 32	2 87.60	3 65.20	1 06.90	59.10	77.40
Average	8 88 8	7 89.30	8 93.16	37.50	23.04	29, 13	47.40	88.98	35. 42	43.20	98.76	36. 52	10.68	5.91	7.74
		POTATOES.							FILO	FLOUR.					
Months.		Per bushel.		Wheet	Wheetedour, per pound.	pound.	Coarse wh	Coarse wheat flour, per pound	er pound.	Fine ry	Fine rye-flour, per pound.	. bonnd.	Coarse r	Coarse rye-flour, per pound.	r pound.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest	Атегаде.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest	Average.
January February March April May June Tuly Agust September	\$ \$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$	# ####################################	2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 200	8 8 8 8 8 9 9 9 9 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	888888888	# \$2555555555555555555555555555555555555	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&&	# \$\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&\&	\$. \$2200000000000000000000000000000000000	\$	888888888 3333333333333333333333333333	# ####################################	8 2222222222	* 888888888888888888888888888888888888
Total	30	5 16			8								. 1 .	98	
Average	88.60	51.60	27,06	03.40	8	06.84		97.80	05.58	06. 43	04.30	04.74	04.14	8	03.38
			• 1 liter ==	* 1 liter = 0.906 United States quart; 5 liters	ted States	quert : 5 ll	10	United St	4.54 United States quarte.		or about 14 gallons.				

Statement showing the prices of provisions in the Berlin market, &c.—Conclinned.

	hear, per pound. Of backwhoat, per pound. Fine, per pound. Middling, per pound. Of wheat, per po		LADO	16	111	022	****				
	ound.	Average.	\$ 8 8 8 8 8 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	68.60	06.86		nd.	Average.	**************************************	1 46	14.60
ORITIB.	eat, per po	Lowest.	* ************************************	8	8		Veal, per pound.	Lowest	8 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	1 11.60	11.76
	Of w	Highest.	8 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89	70.40	07.04		Λeε	Highest.	8 8 8 9 9 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	1 86.40	18.64
	Of wheat, per pound. Of buckwheat, per pound. Fine, per pound. Middling, per pound.	Average.	07. 20 07. 20 07. 20 07. 20 07. 07	71.60.	07. 16		and.	Average.	**	1 52.20	15.28
Of wheat, per pound. Of wheat, per pound. Fine, per pound. Middling, per pound.	Lowest.	# 8288928888 8	58.80	05.88		Mutton, per pound.	Lowest.	***************************************	1 20	12	
ARLEY.	Midd	Highest.	8	æ	08.40	II.	Mat	Higbest.	\$0 18 16.80 16.80 16.80 16.80 16.80 16.80	1 71.60	17.16
PEARL P	nd.	Атегаде.	\$ 82.55.55.55 8 82.55.55.55 8 82.55.55 8 83.55 8	08.70	MBAT	nd.	Average.	60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 6	1 64.40	16. 44	
	ine, per pot	Lowest.	8 27 27 27 27 27 28 27 28 27 28 27 28 27 28 27 28 27 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28	78.60	04.86		Pork, per pound.	Lowest.	56 123 124 124 125 125 125 125 125 125 125 125 125 125	1 33.20	13.32
	Fir	Highest.	8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	86.60	09.66		Pol	Highest.	20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2	1 87.20	18.72
	pound.	Average.	# 17:50 26:26:26:25:25:25:25:25:25:25:25:25:25:25:25:25:	69.60	96.98		ıd.	Average.	8 55 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	1 57.60	15.76
	whoat, per	Lowest.	\$25555555 \$2555555555555555555555555555	8	8		Beef, per pound.	Lowest.	\$ 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55	1 18.80	11.88
IXA.	Of back	Highest.	26 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69	83.40	.8. %		Bee	Highest.	90 81 88 88 88 88 88 89 89 89 88	1 80.30	18.02
PAK	ound.	Average.	8 88688888 8 88688888 8 88688888	98.	98.68		and.	Average.	8 25223333333333333333333333333333333333	70.40	07.04
		Lowest.	88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88	22	07.30	GRITS.	sts, per pound.	Lowest.	\$ \$3,82,82,82,83,8 \$8 \$8 \$8	8	96.30
	Of w.	Highest	\$23222222 \$355555555 \$4555555555	83	09. G		Of orts,	Highest	88899998888888888888888888888888888888	85.20	98. 59 55
	Months.		January February March March May Jube A ugust A ugust Cocober	Total	Average		Months.		January February March April May June Augrate Augrate Coctober	Total	Average

Statement showing the prices of provisions in the Berlin market, &c.—Continued.

									
		Average.	3 88883333333 3 8888888	2 96.40	29.64		leg.	Average.	\$2 06, 60 \$2 18, 89 \$2 18, 89 \$1 170, 40 \$1 72, 80 \$1 37
BUTTER.	Per pound.	Lowest	28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 2	2 50.80	95.08		Fallow-doer, leg.	Lowest.	11 88 11 10 88 11 10 68 11 10 68 11 10 68 11 10 68 11 10 68 11 10 68 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11
		Highest.	* ************** ********************	3 46, 80	34.68		Fal	Highest	######################################
	er pound.	Average	8 88888888888 888 9	3.48	34.80	•	ldle:	Average.	23 30 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40
	Cut, without bones, per pound	Lowest.	* ********************* *************	3 88	98.60		Fallow-deer, saddle.	Lowest.	82 28 88 8 4 4 4 8 8
нам.	Cut, witho	Highest.	3 %%%%%%%%%%% 4446446444	3 84	38.40	AND GAMB.	Fallo	Highest.	2000 800000000 80 0 2222 8888828 80 1
H	und.	Average.	\$ 88288888888 48 888888	2 64.40	26. 44	VENIBON A	ptece.	Атегаде.	## 12.40 # 17.20 # 17.20 # 17.20 # 17.20 # 18.80 # 18.40 # 18.40
•	Smoked, per pound.	Lowest.	# ####################################	2 16	21.60		Red-deer, leg, per plece.	Lowest.	5 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
	Smo	Highest.	2 2222222222222 222222222222	3 36	33.60		Red-de	Highest.	### ##################################
	und.	А verage.	\$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$	2 16.60	21.66		er piece.	Average.	24 25 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26
	Streaked, per pound.	Lowest	2222222222 22222222222	1 30	21		Bed-deer, saddle, per piece.	Lowest.	744 888888 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89 89
ON.	Strea	Highest.	**************************************	2 40	%		Red-deer	Highest	44 68 4 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68
BACON	÷	Average.	8 888243333333 88834646458	2 16.60	21.66			Average.	26 24 24 24 24 24 24 24 24 24 24 24 24 24
	t, per pound.	Lowest	8 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	1 92	19.20	E 008.	Per 15.	Lowest	1 66.20
	Fat,	Highest.	333333333 3.	2 40	78			Highest	24 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28
	Months.		January March March Mary May Juno Juno August August August October	Total	Average		Months.		Jenuary March March March March May Juno Getober October Average

Statement showing the prices of provisions in the Berlin market, &c.—Continued.

		ایما	222 82222	18	I 2*		, ,	ير	\$ \$ \$\$ \$	19	1 🛣 1
	ا ا	Average.	**************************************	4 61.20	46. 18	į.	į	Average.	· 8 · 83.8.9.8.8.8.8.5.1 • 84.8.8.8	6 26. 40	62, 64
	Hens, each.	Lowest	%%%%%%% %%%%%% %	3.30	æ	DRIED FRUIT.	Apples, 5 liters.	Lowest	* ************************************	5 16	51.60
		Highest	2 222222223232323233233233333333333333	6 30.60	83.98	Id	Αp	Highest	8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	8 64	86 40
	1.	Average.	88 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 2	104	70.40		ıtr.	Average.	* ************************************	2 62. 60	200.246
POULTRY.	Саропа, еасћ.	Lowest	8 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	1 86	48.60		Pigeons, per pair.	Lowest.	8 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	1 83.60	18.36
	o	Highest.	22222333333333333333333333333333333333	9 24	92.40		Pig	Bighest.	2 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20	3.54	35. 40
	. rp.	Average.	20000000000000000000000000000000000000	22 24. 20	8 47.13		,	Average.	#1 75 80 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	13 48 20	1 34.82
	Turkeys, each.	Lowest.	11 88 88 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	13 32	1 66.50		Gееве, each.	Lowest.	28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 2	9 18	91.80
	Tu	Highest.	23 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80	24 04	3 00.50	POULTRY.		Highest.	\$3.20 \$2.20 \$3.20 \$4.40 \$3.50	18 04	1 80.40
	юþ.	Average.	84.4% 84.4% 84.4%	85.60	88 83	POUL		Average.	82.82.82.82.12.82.12.12.12.12.12.12.12.12.12.12.12.12.12	22 52	57.20
	Partridges, each.	Lowest	\$0 14.40 14.40 14.40	43.20	14. 40		Ducks, each.	Lowest	**************************************	3 60	8
ND GANE.	Pai	Highest.	55 24 24 84 84	1 32	2		I	Highest.	61 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88	80 25 26	85.80
VENIBON AND GAME.	•	Атегаде.	20.55.50 74.80 10.5 92.80	4 28 80	85.76		each.	Averyge.	* & 4&\$\$\$\$ 8 \$\$\$\$ & 8\$\$\$\$\$ & \$	2 58 c	25.88
	Hares, each.	Lowest	88 88 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 87 8	3 84	76.80		g chickens, each.	Lowest.	# 138 188 188 184 144 152 152 153 164 164 164 164 164 164 164 164 164 164	1 51.20	15. 12
	Ħ	Highest.	\$0.82 11.88 1.84.80	5 58	1 11.60		Spring ch	Highest	8 8338838888	28	42. 60
	Months.		January February March May May June July August September October	Total	Average		Months.		January February March April May June June August September	Total	Атегаде

Statement showing the prices of provisions in the Berlin market, &c.—Continued.

						DRIED FRUIT.	FRUIT.					
Months.	Pe	Pears, 5 liters.	ø	Pre	Prunes, 5 liters.	.216	Mill	Millet, per pound.	ınd.	Oaten	Ostmeal, per pound.	nnd.
	Highest.	Highest, Lowest. Average.	Average.		Highest Lowest.	Average.		Highest Lowest.	Average	Highest.	Highest, Lowest.	Average.
January February March May May June June Soptember October	8		22225422222			8325855558	න්න්ත්තුත්ත්ත්ත්ත්ත්		\$ 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.	88288888	# 25.25.25.25.25.25 888888888	04 07:70 07:70 08:88 08:88 08:88 08:88
Total	7.80	88 80	5 55. 40	9.24	234	8 83.60	8 05.80	6 04.80	7 03.30	8 05, 80	0 71.40	0 78.80
Average	Š.	8	55.54	92, 40	53.40	68.36	08.06	06.05	07.04	908.08	07.14	07.88

* It will be observed that the figures in these columns and in similar columns in the tables on the five pages immediately preceding, do not express the arithmetical mean between the highest and lowest prices. They denote, however, the true "average" as obtained by computation of the quantities sold at different prices in the Berlin market.

expenditures of workmen's families.

Having, in the pages immediately preceding, given the prices of provisions and other articles of domestic consumption, it may be desirable in this connection to show the expenditures of the families of workmen in different localities and under different circumstances, to furnish a basis of comparison between the actual expenditures of workmen for the respective elements of subsistence, clothing, and shelter, and those of other countries in Europe and America.

Before presenting data relating to the years 1872 and 1873, information somewhat similar relating to the expenditures of families in previous years are given, which will serve to show not only the low prices which formerly prevailed in comparison with those of the present time, but the moderate rate of expenditure for living which obtained among the agricultural laborers of Germany.

COST OF SUBSISTENCE IN PRUSSIA.

Statement showing the annual sum required to support a workingman and his family in the following provinces and districts of Prussia.

[Condensed from official returns published in 1860.]

Provinces, districts, &c.	Mo. persone in family.	Subeletence.	Lodging.	Fuel.	Clothing.	Articles of household use and tools.	School-money and taxes.	Total.
Province of Prusala: District of Gambinnen—towns District and town of Königslerg District of Marienwerder—towns	4 to 5	\$73 00 131 40 \$43 80 to 58 56	8 18 8 18 8 18 8 78	88 25 26 26 26 26 26 26	\$14 60 11 68 \$10 22 to 10 85	7 a	#3 19 to 2 92	\$111 69 175 20 \$70 81 to 81 03
Province of Posen: District of Posen—rural districts and small towns	10	29 20 to 80 29	£ 3 65 to 10 95	\$2 98 to 14 60	5 84 to 21 90	\$0 73 to 9 49	97 to 3 65	43 31 to 140 88
Province of Silesia: Town of Görlits District of Breslau— Small towns District of Breslau— Pannulacturing districts	4 8 84	73 00 to 81 75 36 50 to 87 60 58 40 to 80 29	23 36 to 25 55 24 to 18 25 10 28 to 14 60	3 G5 to 10 95 4 38 to 6 57	13 14 to 15 33 5 84 to 29 20 14 60 to 29 20	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	73 to 3 65 1 46 to 8 98	116 80 to 129 93 47 69 to 167 90 91 25 to 148 18
Province of Pomerania: District of Küslin—rural dist's and smail towns.	5 to 6	36 50 to 73 00	8 76 to 12 41	5 84 to 8 76	7 30 to 14 60	73 to 4 38	9 19 to 8 99	61 32 to 116 07
Province of Brandenburg: District of Potsilan - rural district	5 to 6	58 40 to 87 60	2 19 to 8 76	2 19 to 7 30	7 30 to 36 50	2 19 to 3 65	9 92 to 4 38	75 19 to 148 19
• •	4 150 5	51 10 to 109 20	7 30 to 10 97	2 92 to 11 68	10 97 to 14 60	3 65 to ~7 30	86 8	78 96 to 149 67
Province of Saxony: Town of Magdeburg	10	87 60	8 25 to 21 90	1 30	21 90	3 65	3 63	132 35 to 146 00
Province of Westphalia: District and town of Münster District of Minden—rural districts and towns	5 to 6	62 05 to 65 69 51 10 to 65 69	14 60 to 18 25 7 30 to 8 76	3 65 to 8 76	10 95 to 14 60 10 95 to 14 60	3 65 9 19 to 5 11	3 65 2 19 to 3 65	98 55 to 109 49 77 38 to 106 57
Rhenish provinces: (Circle of Essen, north-	10	127 75	18 98	8 76	81 80		. s	184 69
Methann, manufacturing districts	ъ.	22 23	14 60	14 60	18 85	3 65	8	146 00
District of Disseldorf— 10wn of Louss, meenin- Town of Douts	4000	65 69 to 73 00 131 40 102 89 80 89	14 60 to 28 28 28 29 20 90 44	5 84 to 7 30 8 76 8 76 14 60	28 20 33 26 24 26 25 26 25 26 25 26 25 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26	2 19 to 2 92 5 84	5 94 to 130 to 2019 2019 2019 2019 2019 2019 2019 2019	193 36 to 154 76 178 85 146 00 153 29
Coblentz, rural districts and small towns	5 to 6	87 60 to 94 89	10 95	8 76 to 18 98	11 68 to 21 90	3 65 to 5 11	5 84 to 7 30	128 48 to 159 13

COST OF LIVING IN RUBAL DISTRICTS.

Statement showing the annual cost of living of a rural laborer's family. consisting of husband, wife, and three children, from the result of an official inquiry in 1849.

[The thaler computed at 72 cents, United States gold.]

Governmental districts of Prussia.	Rent.	Fuel.	Provisions.	Clothing.	Feed for cat-	Repair of tools:	Salt and spices.	Church and school.	Total.
Königsberg Gumbinnen Dantzic Marienwerder Posen Potsdam Frankfort-on-Oder Stettin Coeslin Stralsund Breelan Lappeln Liegnitz Magdeburg Merseburg Erfurt Müns'er Arnsberg Cologne Düsseldorf Coblentz Treves Aiv-la-Chapelle	\$5.76 \$2.88 \$5.04 \$5.76 \$7.76 \$6.48 \$7.92 \$3.60 \$3.60 \$5.76 \$7.20 \$7.20 \$1.00 \$9.00 \$5.76 \$9.00 \$5.76 \$9.00 \$5.76 \$9.00 \$5.76 \$9.00 \$5.76 \$6.00 \$5.76 \$6.00 \$7.00	\$2 88 3 90 4 32 5 76 5 76 8 28 5 74 6 8 28 5 7 4 6 6 7 92 7 92 7 92 10 80 6 11 52 9 90 7 92 6 67	\$43 20 25 20 39 60 39 60 49 40 57 69 46 56 48 96 36 00 59 76 38 16 38 00 41 76 44 64 41 76 50 40 20 20 21 60 21 80 43 20	\$14 40 7 20 10 03 12 96 16 92 23 76 14 40 18 00 14 40 11 52 12 24 12 96 8 64 10 80 7 92 11 50 25 20 14 40 19 86 10 86 10	\$5 76 6 48 7 93 6 36 7 20 11 52 11 52 11 52 12 5 76 5 76 5 40 2 52 3 60 4 33 7 20 5 76 7 20 10 80 2 88	\$2 88 1 44 1 44 2 16 2 16 2 10 2 10 2 10 2 10 2 10 2 10 2 10 2 10	\$2 88 2160 3 24 1 1 468 1 1 80 2 16 2 16 2 16 2 16 2 16 2 16 2 16 2 1	#1 44 14 14 14 15 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16	\$79 99 51 12 72 72 73 90 106 56 93 69 100 80 81 36 102 91 69 12 77 04 76 32 77 04 78 48 77 64 84 28
Percentage of each to the whole	7.60	7. 98	51.67	16, 61	7. 56	2.96	2.54	3.08	100.00

Table showing the earnings of rural laborers who possess no real estate, but work for landproprietors.

KÖNIGSBERG.

Emoluments.

Free domicile, value. Land for garden and potatoes, value. Pasture for 1 cow, value. Fuel 10 scheffel rye, at 1½ thaler, value. 6 scheffel barley. 2 scheffel pease, at 1½ thaler, value. 2 scheffel oats.	5 70 5 70 7 20	6 to 6 to 0 to	7 20 7 20 8 64 8 40 3 24 1 68 0 82	
2 scheffel oats) to		

GUMBINNEN.

Ordinary emoluments.

Free domicile, value	\$2	8	Я
Fuel	0	1	3
12 scheffel rve at 1 thaler	ш	ຸ່ວ	7
Feed for cattle, value	10	8	0
Potatoes and vegetables, volue	- 5	. 7	b
Cash	7	z	v
The above is for 94 weeks work (of son)	×	D	н
Extra for threshing 20 scheffel grain at 1 thaler	14	4	0

Extra	em al	1100	on to

Extra emoluments.	
Butter, 1 stone, value 1 scheffel linseed, value 2 lambs, value Eggs, poultry, &c., value 1 calf, value 1 pig, value 1 fat pig 4 pounds wool at \(\frac{1}{2}\) thaler	2 88 0 84 0 72 5 76 8 64 0 48
Total	87 00
DANTZIC.	
Emoluments.	
Emoluments. Free domicile, value Fruel 120 square rods land for potatoes and garden, value 30 square rods land for linseed, value Products of cow, less cost of feed Sale of 5 scheffel rye at 1 thaler Sale of wool, less feed of sheep Wages, 140 days at ½ thaler, 168 days at ½, and 30 days at ½. Wages, for threshing through the winter Total	5 76 1 44 5 28 3 60 1 08 26 98 21 84
•	
MARIENWERDER.	
Emoluments. Free domicile, value	\$5 76 4 80 5 76
Land for farming. Pasture, meadows, and hay Fuel and light.	8 64
Total	32 16
The emoluments over	27 84
Wages, in summer, husband per day, $\frac{q}{15}$ thaler in summer, wife, per day, $\frac{q}{10}$ thaler in winter, husband, per day, $\frac{q}{10}$ thaler in winter, wife, per day, $\frac{q}{15}$ thaler	0 10 0 7 0 7 0 5
Posen.	
Field-laborers receive a free dwelling with 1 morgen* land for garden, 1 morgentato field, free pasture for a few swine and for 1 cow, also winter feed for the and wood for fuel. For these emoluments the husband renders 52, the wife 3 service. Daily wages, husband, 12 cents, woman, 6 to 9 cents, children, 7 cents. Threshing in winter, which lasts 5 months, yields to the laborer about 25 scheff.	latter, days
POTSDAM.	
The compensation of married field-laborers consists of a free dwelling and f square rods of field and 30 square rods of garden land, 3 morgen land for popesture and feed for 1 cow and 1 pig, fattening at own expense; moreover, about substitution of the square rods of square rods of scheffel oats, and about 1 bushes. For these emoluments and a cash pay of 30 thalers (\$21.60) the hubband is bounded on the square rods of square rods of square rods. Thus their cash income amounts to—	tatoes, out 28 el salt. and to cents)
Man's cash pay Woman's wages Sale of potatoes, swine, &c	14 40 18 00
Total	5.4 00

Unmarried laborers receive board and lodging, 30 thalers (\$21.60) per year, of wages, a load of wood; and if they are in charge of a horse and wagon, about 10 to 12 thalers (\$7.20 to \$8.64) annually, for bringing products to market.

FRANKFORT.

Married field-hands are furnished by the owners of estates with a free dwelling, morgen of land, pasture for 1 cow, and fuel. For dwelling and garden the laborer's wife renders one day's service each week; for rent of land the husband renders labor worth 2½ thalers (\$1.50.) For wages, the laborer receives ½ thalers, (12 cents,) the wife ½ thaler (14 cents) per day. Contract work pays the man ½ thaler (24 cents) a day, and during the harvest he earns 1 thaler (18 cents) and the wife 1 thaler (91 cents) a

For threshing he gives one-fifteenth or one-fourteenth part of the grain threshed.

The whole earnings are thus computed-

26 weeks at 1 thaler, (18 cents)	128 08
Threshing 6 months, at 6 scheffel	7 20
Woman, 104 days, at 1 thaler	7 40
Woman, 104 days, at	6 24
Extra earnings during harvest.	3 60

Day-laborers' work on an average-

In summer, 13 hours for 1 thaler, (18 cents;) in winter, 9 hours for 1 thaler, (14 cents.) Under contract, 11 hours for 1 thaler (18 cents) in summer; 9 hours for 1 thaler (14 cents) in winter.

STETTIN.

Emoluments.

50 square rods land for garden, 40 square rods land for linseed, 40 square rods land for potatoes, 50 square rods land for rye, pasture for 1 cow, 1 load of hay, 6,000 pi-ces of turf for fuel, for which the family render—wife 52 days at $\frac{1}{10}$ thaler, (7 cents,) rent for putatoes, linseed land, 5 thalers, (\$3.60,) turf, 1\frac{3}{2} thaler, (\$1.01.)

For the work the man receives 1\frac{1}{2} thalers (90 cents) per week; the wife works 290

days at thaler, 29 thalers, \$20.88.

For threshing the men receive one-seventeenth of the grain; accordingly the earnings amount for the year to-

Days' wages to husband	32	thalers \$23 04
Days' wages to wife	30	thalers 21 60
For threshing	32	thalers 23 04
Increase for contract work		
Cleaping flax	12	thalers 8 64
Attending cattle	10	thalers 7 20
Woman, by spinning	4	thalers 288
Yields from potato land	24	thalers 17 28
-		
*Total	149	thalers107 28

	•	==	: :	
The expenses for	house rentfuel	61 91	thalers	\$4 68 6 96
	foodelothing	631	thalers	45 6U
	furnituresalt.	5	thalers	360
	taxes, church and schoollinen	411	thalers	3 54

COESLIN.

Day-laborer on estate receives as emoluments—	
Dwelling and garden, value10	thalers \$7 20
Fuel, value	thalers 4 32
1 morgen rve. 5.10 scheffel. value	thalers 480
1 morgen oats, 8 scheffel, value	thalers 384
1 morgen potatoes, 60 scheffel, value	thalers 10 80
Pease and linseed	thalers 1 44
	T

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Feed for 1 cow, value 10 4 sheep, value 4 Share in pigs, value 9 Poultry, value 1	thalers 288 thalers 648
Total69	
The laboring man received in summer, per day, $\frac{2}{15}$ thaler, (9½ cents,) and in winter, $\frac{1}{15}$ thaler, (6 cents,) which for 140 and 34 days respectively; and his wife, per day, at $\frac{1}{15}$ thaler (6 cents) in summer, and $\frac{1}{15}$ thaler (5 cents) in winter, for 120 and 60 days respect-	
ively, makes393	thalers 28 56
Total earnings	thalers 78 24
The condition of labor is similar in other districts of the state, and the	e total earnings

The condition of labor is similar in other districts of the state, and the total earnings and cost of subsistence vary but slightly.

COST OF LIVING IN 1872-73.

Average weekly expenditures of two families, consisting, respectively, of two adults and two children and two adults and four children, in the town of Barmen, Prussia.

Articles.	Four persons, 1872.	Six persons, 1873.	Articles.	Four persons, 1872.	Six persons, 1873.
Flour and breed Fresh, corned, salted, and smoked meats Lard Butter Cheese Sugar and molasses	\$0 72 60 20 13 16 10	\$0 86 96 24 36	Fuel Oil or other light Spirits, beer, and tobacco, (if any) House-rent For educational, religious, and benevolent objects	\$0 19 10 48 48 48	\$0 28 07 12 48
Molasses or sirup Milk Coffee Fish, fresh and salt	18 14	33) 38	Total weekly expenses Clothing per year Taxes per year	5 76 14 40 2 16	5 54 64 80 1 44
Sosp, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar, &co. Eggs Potatoes and other vegetables	14	19 19 84	Weekly earnings of husband and wife, (the wife earning three thalers in each case)	6 48	7 20

Average weekly expenditures of two families, each consisting of two adults and three children, in the town of Essen, Prussia.

Articles.	1872.	1873.	Articles.	1	872.	18	73.
Mour and bread	\$ 0 79. 2	\$ 0 86	Fuel	1	08. 6 19. 2	\$ 0	094 29
meate	84	84	Oil or other light		16. 8		17
Lard	19. 2	334	Other articles	1	21.6		211
Butter		48	Spirits, beer, and tobacco, (if any)		33. 6		33
Cheese	07. 2	07	House-rent		50.4		60
Sugar and molasses		07	For educational, religious, and				
Molasses or sirup	07.2	07	benevolent objects		08.6		091
Milk	14.4	214					
Coffee		24	Total weekly expenses		90		88
Fish, fresh and salt	02.4	05	Clothing per year				40
Soep, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar,			Taxes per year	5	76	5	88
&co	16.8	17	, ,	=		_	
Eggs	08.6	07		ì			
Potatoes and other vegetables	60	60	Weekly earnings	6	60	7	32

Average weekly expenditures of two families consisting, respectively, of two adults and three children, residing in the town of Aix-la-Chapelle; and two adults and two children in the town of Düsseldorf, Prussia.

<u> </u>					
Articles.	Four persons, Düs- seldorf, 1873.	Five persons, Aix- la-Chapelle, 1872,	Articles.	Four persons, Düs- seldorf, 1873,	Five persons, Aix. la-Chapelle, 1872.
Flour and bread Fresh, corned, salted, and smoked ments Butter Cheese Sugar and molasses Milk Coffee Fish, fresh and salt Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar,	18 18 18 5	\$1 10 92 45 20 16 64	Spirits, beer, and tobacco (if any) House rent. For educational, religious, and benevolent objects. One child at school. Total weekly expenses. Clothing per year. Tax per year.	10	\$0 68 94
&c Eggs Pointoes and other vegetables Fuel Oil or other light	14 40 17	9 14 35 23 11	Weekly earnings of father and son Weekly earnings of father, work- ing for himself	5 04	9 66

Average weekly expenditures of two families, each consisting of two adults and three children, respectively, of the town of Chemnitz, Saxony, and the city of Berlin, Prussia.

	18	72.		18	72.
Articles.	Chem- nitz.	Berlin.	Articles.	Chem- nits.	Berlin.
Flour and bread Fresh, corned, salted, and smoked mests Lard Butter Cheese Sngar and molasses Molasses or sirup	58 05 03 02	\$0 78 1 13 24 36 10 12 02 12	Potatoes and other vegetables Fruits, green and dried Fuel. Oil or other light Other articles Spirits, beer, and tobacco (if any) House rent. For educational, religious, and benevolent oblects.	\$0 36 12 24 03 07 15 36	\$0 36 16 48 19 67 55 1 08
Milk Coffre Tra Fish, fresh and salt Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar, &c Eggs	15	13	Total weekly expenses Clothing per year Taxes per year Weekly earnings	3 87 24 96 2•60 4 68	6 07 28 80 7 20 6 48

Average weekly expenditures of two families, consisting, respectively, of two adults and four children, in 1873, and two adults and three children, in 1872, in the city of Dresden, Saxony.

Articles.	Six persons, 1872.	Five persons, 1873.	Articles.	Six persons, 1872.	Five persons,
Flour and bre d. Fresh, corned, sulted, and smoked meats Lard Butter Cheese Sugar and molasses Molasses and sirup. Milk Coffee Tea Fish, fresh and salt. Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar, &cc Eggs Potatoes and other vegetables.	48	\$1 15 60 08 80 05 06 02 25 15 08	Fruits, green and dried Fuel Oil or other light Other articles Spirits, beer, and tobacco (if any) House reut For educational, religious, and benevolent objects Total weekly expenses Clothing per year Taxes per year Weekly earnings of father and daughter	\$0 24	\$0 C2 { 358 95 35 35 35 36 22 5 70 40 (10 2 90 (1)

Average weekly expenditures of two families, consisting, respectively, of two adults and two children, in the town of Stuttyart, Würtemberg, in 1873; and two adults and five children, in the city of Munich, Bavaria, in 1872.

Articles.	Four persons, Stutt-gart, 1873.	Soven persons, Mu- nich, 1872.	Articles.	Four persons, Stutt-gart, 1873.	Seven persons, Mu- nich, 1872.
Flour and bread. Fresh, corned, salted, and smoked meats Lard Butter Cheese Sugar and molasses Molasses or sirup	21	\$0 48 80 20 20 20	Fruits, green and dried Fuel Oil or other light Other articles Spirits, beer, and tobacco (if any) House rent For educational, religious, and benevolent objects	\$0 08 46 10 06 25 1 75	\$0 56 20 40 1 20 40
Milk Coffee Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar, &c Eggs Potatoes and other vegetables	14 20 18	76 30 20 12 60	Total weekly expenses Clothing per year Taxes per year. Weekly earnings	. 1 60	6 70 16 00

Average weekly expenditures of a family consisting of two adults and two children, in Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1873.

Articles.	Cost or	value.	_ Articles.	Cos	Cost or value		
Flour and bread	Fl. kt. 1 48	\$ 0 76	Potatoes and other vegetables Fruits, green and dried		48	\$ 0	32
meats		80	FuelOil or other light	1	12 12	••••	90
Butter Cheese Sugar	12	32 08	Other articles Beer and tobacco (if any) House rent		18 12		12
Molasses or airup	40	24	For educational, religious, and benevolent objects				
Coffee	l. .	32	Total weekly expenses Clothing per year	10	22 00		16
Soap and starch	06	04 04	Taxes per year	1			30
Bggs		08	Weekly earnings			5	60

Statement showing the annual earnings and expenditures of the thirteen German families whose weekly expenditures are given in the foregoing tables.

·			Expen	litures.	•
Number of weekly list.	Earnings.	Provisions, house-rent, &c.	Clothing.	Taxes, &c.	Total.
1 2 3 4 4 5 5 6 6 7 7 8 9 9 0 0 1 2 2 3 3 Average	\$336 96 374 40 343 20 340 64 262 08 502 32 243 36 336 96 374 40 416 00 291 20	\$219 52 269 64 270 40 305 76 230 83 308 36 201 24 315 64 171 08 296 49 360 348 40 262 08	\$14 40 64 80 50 40 50 40 10 70 (*) 24 96 28 80 40 00 35 00 20 00	\$2 16 1 44 5 76 5 F8 1 10 (*) 2 60 7 20 2 20 1 60	\$316 08 355 362 04 242 68 308 36 224 80 351 64 200 36 338 60 396 96 364 40 282 38

III.—CONDITION OF LABOR IN GERMANY.

Having in the preceding pages presented, first, the rates of wages which obtained at different periods in the various industries of the principal towns of the great German Empire; second, the prices of provisions and other articles of necessary consumption as well as the weekly expenditures of the working people, the third and not least important division of the subject will now be considered, viz: The material and moral condition of the workmen and their families.

Before presenting original data, personally obtained in the year 1872, and through the instrumentality of others in subsequent years, it may be well in further illustration of this branch of the subject to give some statements from trustworthy sources in reference to the coudition of labor in previous years. The following information, chiefly obtained in

1870-71, is condensed from British consular reports:

CONDITION OF LABOR IN PRUSSIA IN 1870.

Before the revolution of 1348 the improvement of the condition of the working classes in Prussia was looked upon as a question which concerned the philanthropist more than the statesman. That revolution, with its confused aims and utopian legislation, effected nothing permanent toward the accomplishment of such a result.

lation, effected nothing permanent toward the accomplishment of such a result.

In the year 1861 a strong attempt was made by the workingmen's unions to bring about a combined action and a closer cohesion between them for the purpose of promoting their common interests. The attempt failed in its immediate object, but it had one important result; it established the conviction among the working classes that it was only by intimate union and co-operation that improvements in the social and economical condition of the working classes could possibly be effected. These unions still continue to hold annual meetings, but less attention seems to be paid to them than formerly.

The socialist agitation in this country is a purely negative one. It signalizes itself by hostility to every practical reform, utter indifference to popular education, and a feeble interest in political progress of any kind. One exception to the negative policy of the socialist party of late has been the encouragement and organization of strikes. In many instances these strikes have ended by the worknen obtaining an increased wages, and the confidence of the socialist party in their power has been increased in consequence; but the fact is that in most cases where the strikes have been successful public opinion had already declared itself in favor of the workmen.

The practice of traveling, or "wandering" as it is termed, for the purpose of completing his technical education, is still regarded by the German journeyman as an indispensable portion of his training. The young lad, released from his apprenticeship, leaves the house of his master and travels abroad wherever the German language is spoken. He usually, however, visits those towns which have a special reputation for excelling in his own particular branch of trade, and taking up his residence there endeavors not merely to obtain a livelihood but also, and more especially, to complete his technical education and to become a skillful workman.

Some journeymen who have got the means of doing so and have a talent for acquiring foreign languages, widen their experience by traveling beyond the limits of the fatherland. Numbers of enterprising journeymen leave every year to visit the watchmaking-establishments of the Jura, the machine-manufactories and lockmaking-works of England, the arms and gun factories of Liege, and the industrial establishments of Lyons, Brussels, and, above all, Paris. Many of them remain some years or permanently settle in these places, and, true to their German habits of thrift and industry, generally thrive. They are as a rule, however, the slite and most intelligent of the class of journeymen, and their success therefore is less to be wondered at.

Among the large towns which have a special reputation for excelling in particular branches of industry may be mentioned Munich, renowned for its brewers and saddlers; Dresden for its tailors, (the Tailors' Academy at Dresden is much frequented by foreigners;) Cologne and Munich for their stone-cutters; Barmen (Elberfeld) for its fringe-makers; Berlin and Vienna for their locksmiths; Iserlohn for its bronzes, &c. Leipsic also is considered the best school for teaching the polygraphic art in all its branches.

DATATM

Among the working classes in Prussia the miners and iron-workers hold an exceptional position, inasmuch as their welfare and interests are attended to by the Government officials who are appointed to superintent all the mines, iron-works, and saltworks in the kingdom. This class of the laboring population is animated by an honorable esprit de corps dating from the earliest times, and forming a singular exception to the egotistical tendencies prevalent among the working classes of the present day. The great importance naturally attached to the conservation of so able and stanch a race of workmen as these miners and iron-workers has induced both the State and the private owners of the larger works to provide suitable dwellings for them, and to make such general provision for their comfort and well-being as to make their lot an enviable one in comparison with many of their fellow-laborers. They seldom, however, succeed in amassing any considerable savings, and some of them semigrate from time to time to other countries where the mining industry is on a smaller scale than here.

HOURS OF LABOR.

Throughout nearly the whole of Prussia, artisans, journeymen, and apprentices work regularly in summer from 5 a. m. to 12, and from 1 p. m. to 7, and even later; and in winter, from daybreak, sometimes from 6 a. m. to 8 or 9 in the evening. The hand-loom weaver frequently sits at his loom, employed in monotonous labor, for 16 hours in the day; and agricultural laborers have to work hard for 12 hours a day out of harvest-time, and during harvest-time for 14 hours. The same rule applies to farm servants.

The extreme length of the hours of daily labor is indeed one of the dark features of the condition of the working classes in Prussia, and generally throughout Germany. Night-work is especially injurious to young persons of both sexes, and indeed to females of all ages.

FOREMEN.

Foremen of works in factories, managers of printing-offices, foremen of mines, and other such like head-men and overseers employed in industrial establishments, are considered more in the light of employés than of workmen, and in disputes between the masters and the men they generally side with the former. This intermediate class is certainly one of importance and influence in the social and economical questions which are constantly arising between the representatives of capital and labor, and yet it is by no means treated with the consideration which it deserves. The reason is that there is always an abundance of educated men in this country who are only too glad to be able to obtain employment of this kind. The salaries paid to persons of this class are just sufficient to provide them with the means of living in tolerable comfort, but they are considerably lower than what are paid to a similar class in every other country.

PORTERS AND OTHER LABORERS.

Porters, loaders, packers, and such like laborers who are employed to do heavy work of all kinds, whether for commercial and industrial establishments, or in sea-ports and inland towns, or in connection with any branch of public traffic and transport, generally earn good and even high wages in this country, as the great physical strength required for this sort of labor is rare enough to prevent the labor-market from being overstocked. These people soon save a sufficient sum of money to enable them to set up an independent business as carriers, small shop-keepers, &c. Examples of this kind are numberless, but at the same time, drunkenness is the bane and ruin of many of them.

Day-laborers in the towns, men who work first for one person and then for another, are generally well off if they are known to a tolerably large circle of employers, as the wages paid this class of laborers in towns are high. If the laborer is known only to a few employers, he is very often left without work and falls into pauperism. They are employed both in town and country in cleaning the streets, in making roads and railways, felling timber, sawing wood, &c.

WORKWOMEN.

Workwomen in the towns, including all those not employed in coarse manual labor, such as seamstresses, milliners, embroiderers, and the like, are divided into two classes differing from each other very much both as regards their material and social condition. Those who, from not being able to obtain private employment, are obliged to work for the large shops, clothing establishments, fringe-makers, &c., are miserably paid, owing to the demand for this species of employment being so much in excess of what is required to meet the wants of the public, in spite of the constant changes in the fashions. The bulk of workwomen of this class, unless they are very clever at work and have some means of their own wherewith to buy a sewing-machine, take to

prostitution. Workwomen of the other class, on the other hand, who succeed in getting a good private connection, go out to work in private houses or work at home, and are able to earn a comfortable subsistence and to save money. As a general rule their moral conduct contrasts favorably with that of their less fortunate fellow-workwomen.

DWELLINGS OF THE WORKING CLASSES.

It is almost impossible to describe in general terms the character of the houses occupied by the working classes in Prussia, varying so widely as they do in different localities. What may be true of the houses in one place is altogether inapplicable to those of another, and even of others in the same locality or in the neighborhood. The subjoined account, although necessarily imperfect, will serve to give an idea of the general results.

ral class of habitations in which the laboring population lives.

In the large towns the artisan classes live almost exclusively in lodgings, and it is rarely that the independent artisan or small tradesman lives in a house of his own, whereas in the country and in the small towns the latter is more frequently the rule than the exception. The houses inhabited by the rural artisans, laborers, hand-loom weavers, &c., both as regards their structure and living arrangements, are generally of the poorest kind, especially in the eastern provinces. Laborers, factory operatives, miners, &c., are frequently obliged, even in the country, to live in lodgings or else in buildings expressly constructed for workingmen by the large landed proprietors in the eastern provinces, and by the mill-owners and proprietors of mines and iron-works, and companies in the western provinces. In many districts in the west joint-stock building companies and co-operative building societies have been established with the object of supplying the want of proper dwellings in particular localities; they purchase land with the subscribed capital and erect dwellings suitable for workingmen and their families, and then let them at a moderate rent, frequently with the option of purchase by the payment of a certain annual sum for interest and sinking-fand in addition to the rent.

CONDITION OF LABOR IN SILESIA.

In relation to the working classes in Lower Silesia, it is stated by a competent authority, that "the condition of the artisan population is, on the whole, a satisfactory one. Journeymen and factory operatives can earn competent wages without their strength being overtaxed by the hours of labor. The workmen employed in the industrial establishments situated in the plains are in peculiarly favorable circumstances. A great many of them are settled on little properties of their own, and nearly all employ themselves out of working hours in cultivating the ground. They raise the greater part of the vegetables and potatoes for their own consumption. The working population is more and more disposed toward frugal household management, in order by careful economy to save money, without too far stinting themselves in respect to their bodily wants. One obvious consequence of this is that, owing to the moderation and sobriety of their mode of living, the workmen enjoy bodily health, at the same time that their moral condition is raised."

It is to be feared, however, that this rose-colored description applies to but a limited

portion of the country.

Of the more important groups which constitute the working classes of Prussia, the hand-loom weavers of Middle Silesia, numbering about 30,000, are undoubtedly the poorest, the worst fed, and from their weak physical constitutions, which does not prevent them, however, from having large families, the least capable of raising themselves unassisted above their present condition. Some change for the better has been effected of late by the erection of large spinning and weaving factories, fitted with first-rate machinery, on the skirts of the mountains, attracted there no doubt by the cheapness and abundance of labor.

With respect to the employment of female labor in manufactories, owing to the rapid increase of population and the great development of industry, women are em-

ployed now to a much larger extent than formerly in the factories.

Hore than a fifth of the whole number of factory operatives are females, and considering that the greater portion of them are members of families, and that they receive comparatively good wages, they are decidedly well off in an economical point of view. Their moral condition, owing to the male and female operatives working indiscriminately together at the mills, is from all accounts much less favorable. The reports from the various provinces describe them as inordinately foud of pleasure and given to dissipation, adding that large numbers of them live a dissolute life, and have to bring up illegitimate children. Many of the mill-owners take particular care to keep the work-rooms of the sexes separate; but in some branches of manufacture this precautionary measure is impossible. The proprietors of the smaller class of manufactories show little inclination to incur expense by introducing the changes in the working of their establishments which the adoption of such a measure would render necessery.

The wages paid are for the most part sufficient to support single persons in counfort,

and if they are at all thrifty, they can save money and frequently do so, but they are insufficient to support a wife and children independently of what the latter earn them-The manufacturing population is pre-eminently deficient in the resolution. which distinguishes other industrial classes in this country, to strive to work their way up, even in spite of adverse circumstances, to comparative independence. The monotony of their daily labor seems to produce in them an inordinate longing for enjoyment, in the gratification of which they spend a considerable portion of their earnings and weaken their physical powers by dissipation.

The miners and iron-workers of Upper Silesia are almost exclusively Poles. They contrast unfavorably with the German workmen in their addiction to debauchery and dissipation, so much so that in many of the works where they are employed measures have been adopted for paying the weekly wages due them to their wives, to prevent them from squandering their earnings, instead of supporting their families.

CONDITION OF LABOR IN PRUSSIA IN 1872.

REPORT OF MR. LEWIS, CONSULAR AGENT AT DÜSSELDORF.

AGRICULTURAL LABOR.

Agricultural laborers in this district usually rent or buy a small cottage and small

plat of ground, which they cultivate, usually keeping a goat or cow. If the latter, it is employed in plowing and hauling the little two-wheeled cart of the owner.

There are thousands of such small proprietors here, owning from a quarter of an acre to three acres, from which, with the aid of occasional work done for others, they manage to live. Their scale of living is very low compared to ours, and it is wonderful how they keep up their health and strength on such diet as they have. This is mostly vegetables, with occasionally a bit of pork or sausage, which is boiled with the soup or sort of stew which constitutes their main support. Coffee is universally used, but without milk or sugar, and made very weak, but it is drank three or four times a day. When working for any one their wages vary, according to the time of year and the kind of work they have to do, from twenty to twenty-nine cents per day. Most of the women of the family make or spin a piece of linen cloth each year sufficient for the needs of the family, and if they have sufficient black bread and potatoes they consider themselves well off. The children are all educated so far as they can read and write; and all the male population between the ages of twenty and twenty-six are liable to three years' military service. During this period they are probably better fed and clothed than in any other part of their lives; and, although they only get five cents per day as pay from the government, they learn habits of discipline, cleanliness, and order that stand them in good need after this service is ended. I find that drunkenness is rare among the rural population. They all drink either beer or schnaps, or both, but not to the excess we find in agricultural populations of other countries, and it is seldom they lose a days' work through this cause. They are orderly, civil, and very obliging in their manner, especially to strangers, and brawls or fights are of rare occurrence. In their way they are nearly all punctual in their religious duties; the Roman Catholic portion going to early church, and then amusing themselves the balance of the day in their restaurateurs or beer-gardens, or in making visits from one village to another. Between them and their pastor there is always great respect or regard, and he is in reality the father of his flock, and has to settle many grievances other than of a religious nature. The proportion of Catholics to Protestants in this part of Prussia is four to one. far as I can learn their morals are good, and it is rare to find a man or woman thirty years old unmarried. Most of the men marry as soon as their military service is finished.

WORKING CLASSES IN TOWNS.

The condition of the working classes in towns is not so good in a moral and religious point of view as that of the rural population, although their earnings are double as great. There are more temptations to spend money in towns, and it is mostly spent uselessly and foolishly. The dwellings are poor and dear, and the great rise in the last few years in the price of all house property has caused the reuts of the poor to rise proportionally. None, or very few new houses, are built for the poor, and they are crowded in the old and inconvenient houses, where cleanliness and comfort are impossible. The price paid for two rooms varies of course according to their size and locality, and also to the stage or story on which they are situated. The lowest price would be \$2.88 per month, or ten cents per day, and from this to \$5.04 or \$5.76 per month. They live mostly on potatoes, black bread, and vegetables, but use more fresh

meat than the country population.

The state of morals is lower than in the country, and may be accounted for by the state of overcrowding in lodging-houses, and the indiscriminate mixture of the sexes in

factories. On the whole, however, I consider their moral state better than would be

found among the same class in most European communities.

The town populations are not so temperate as in the country, and among some trades blue Monday is the rule rather than the exception, and I consider that drinking to excess is on the increase, although nothing to compare with what the same habit is carried in England, Scotland, and Ireland. I spoke with the proprietor of a large rolling-mill who employs 250 hands, on this subject, and he told me that he had net had a case of drunkenness in his establishment for six months, and that not a single man had remained out on Monday for upward of three months. He accounted for the fact by saying that most of his hands were married men with families, and that they worked in gangs of six or eight, and that when one remained out it disarranged the work of those who worked with him. So also with a large wool-spinning factory that employs 200 hands. The proprietor told me that very few of his people were addicted to drinking, and it was rare that any were absent on Monday from work. The work-people do not, as a rule, look so strong and healthy as those in the country, as they do not get the same amount of fresh air and healthy exercise, although as a rule they live better. Compared to our working classes in the United States their state is far below them, both as regards living and wages; nevertheless I believe statistics would show that they are, on the whole, longer-lived.

Those trades most addicted to drinking are masons, tailors, and shoemakers, with some of the workers in iron. I omitted to mention that unmarried journeymen mechanics usually rent only a bed in a room with others, near where their work may happen to be, and for this they will pay from 5 to 62 cents per night. When at work they do not generally board in the sense of our work-people, but buy a piece of bread, and sometimes a piece of smoked ham or sausage, and ground coffee to the value of, say, 2 cents. Each has his stone jug and cup, and then this is sent to the nearest shop, where they buy their provisions, with the ground coffee, and is filled by them with boiling water, and they sit about the work they may be doing in groups and take their breakfast. For dinner they generally take a glass of beer with their bread and meat or sausage, but never snything hot in the way of meat or soup. At 4 o'clock coffee is again taken with a slice of bread, and supper when the work is finished, same as dinner. I found that the three meals cost on an average 24 cents per day, and that each man generally expended 5 to 7½ cents a day for his spirits or schnaps. This schnaps can be bought from 14 to 20 cents the quart, and when good and taken in moderation, doctors have told me that it is not only not hurtful, but beneficial to the workman who lives on such a low diet and gets so little animal food that some stimulant is necessary. The married man has his dinner sent or brought to him by his wife or one of his children, but makes his own coffee as the unmarried ones do. To sit down to a regular and comfortable meal as we understand it, is not known among these people. In conclusion I should say that the condition of the working classes here, as to morals, temperance, and religion, would compare favorably with the same class in any part of Europe.

BARMEN, PRUSSIA.

Mr. Consul Hoechster, under date of September 13, 1872, writes as follows:

The condition of the work-people in my consular district is now tolerably good, as they have had plenty of work for several years. Their morals are quite satisfactory, but their comfort at home is very poor, in consequence of the unhealthy and small rooms in which they live. They have seldom houses of their own, and as rents are

very high they are obliged to live in one or two small rooms.

I have found the family of a skilled mechanic, consisting of two adults and three children, living in two small rooms, for which they pay 40 thalers rent per year. To make a somehow comfortable living, the whole family—husband, wife, and children—have to work. They can earn about 10 to 12 thalers per week, but very seldom make any savings. They live from hand to mouth, and in times when business is dull and work scarce they depend mostly on the charitable institutions, which are very good in Elberfeld and Barmen.

DANTZIC, PRUSSIA.

Extract from a letter on the condition of the workingmen, received from Mr. Collas, consular agent, under date of Dantzic, September 7, 1872:

Workingmen in this part of the country mostly live very poorly and enjoy none of the luxuries of life, their limited earnings not permitting it. The best class of workmen, such as masons, carpenters, and other mechanics, are paid at the rate of §4 per

week in the sammer and somewhat less in the winter. The second class earns about 36 cents less, and the third class 72 cents less. There is another class of laborers, such as porters who carry the wheat into and out of the granaries, and others employed in the transport of timber, who earn at times double this sum; but on the whole they are not better off, as winter puts a stop, in a great measure, to this sort of business. Comfort is not known or attended to among these people, and a family—man, wife, and children—live in one room, which, with a sort of kitchen, is rented at about \$40 a year. Women are sometimes employed in different places, and earn about \$1.50 a week. Children are seldom employed before the age of fourteen, when they are either apprenticed and get their board and lodging, or if employed otherwise \$1 to \$1.33\frac{1}{2}, according to their deserts and the nature of the employment. Education, although compulsory, is not much attended to among the lower classes, and morals are at a very low ebb.

There are several iron-founderies here, Portland-coment manufactories, breweries, &c. At Dirschau and Elbing there are also establishments of this description. Wages there are not quite so high as at Dantzic, but living is from 20 to 25 per cent. cheaper.

FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAIN.

Letter from Mr. Consul-General Webster on the condition of the laboring classes:

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES, Frankfort-on-the Main, October 19, 1874.

SIR: " " " The laborers in Offenbach, near Frankfort, where an inferior class of work is produced, are of a lower order in the moral scale, idle, dissipated, and troublesome. In a place like this, where there is a large fixed population of workmen, what is called here social democracy, not unlike communism in Paris, has fixed its fatal grasp, which, while it promises to improve and elevate, actually impoverishes and degrades. The laborer is induced to believe that association will bring to him the prosperity which his own industry and temperate habits can alone secure.

When wages were lower and the laborer received less pay, although provisions were also somewhat lower, still the absolute necessaries of life required the most, if not all that the laborer received, and there was less chance for intemperance. The increase, has not been all used in providing better food and clother. The beer-house receives more than its proportion of the increase. This is illustrated by the greater irregularity of the workmen, the increase of the number of beer-houses, and the later and

noisier caronsals which often occur in the streets.

The German laborer lives very differently from the American laborer. If he is married he generally has a home in some of the small villages of Germany, from which issue every morning crowds of men and boys to the cities, and of women to the fields and farm-houses. If he is able to hire rooms in the cities, it is rare that the lower classes more than sleep at their homes. Like the villager, who lives too far to go and come every day, and like single men, they have only their sleeping-places, generally several in one room. They eat and drink where they happen to be. Wherever their work is for the time, they will make a little fire, boil their cheap coffee, buy their bread and cheap meat, generally sausages, and cook the same and make their meals in primitive style. They rarely go to the beer-house or restaurant for breakfast or dinner. The evening is generally spent at the beer-house until it is time to go to their beds in the villages or their sleeping-places in the cities. They have no boarding-places where, as according to our custom, the laborer takes his meals, sleeps, and passes his leisure time. In small manufacturing villages, where there is a fixed, permanent supply of labor, with little or no surplus, the operatives, having permanent employment, receive less pay and are steadier, as they are more dependent npon their employer. The German is not a hard-working man; that is, he does not produce much unless he is a farmer working upon his own land. The fact that women are compelled to work in the fields, doing every kind of work that ever the servile classes of the South were formerly compelled to do, shows great destitution or gross indolence on the part of the men. It is true that the condition of the laboring class has been very low throughout Europe. In Germany it has not changed much. With better wages, their ability to live better must be clear; still it is not plain to be seen where the increase is expended. It must be so well distributed that the gain is not apparent. The only class of Germans who

Increase is expended. It must be so well distributed that the gain is not apparent. The only class of Germans who seem to make great progress are the Jews. They, however, are rarely laborers or mechanics. They take to trade or business.

All children must attend school until they are 14 years of age. They are then put to labor until they are 19 or 20 years of age. Then they are called into the active army for three years. Young men able to undergo a certain examination are required to serve but one year. The exercise and training of every muscle of the body they then receive, and the forced habits of temperance they there undergo, make them strong

and healthy men, better fitted for toil and a long life than they could otherwise be. But habits of industry are not acquired. Relieved from restraint they are more jubilant. The attractions of dissipation make them unsteady. Still it cannot be doubted that the condition of every class of laborers is improving.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

WM. P. WEBSTER, United States Consul-General

In reference to the unsteady habits of the laboring classes, Mr. Webster, under date of September 22, 1873, writes as follows:

Labor has of late become so irregular and unsteady, that nearly every laborer new works by the piece or square. Contractors will reluctantly make a contract for a specific time or amount. A man, who employs 1,200 laborers, states that they scarcely labor four days per week, allowing for bad weather as well as absence from work from other causes.

CHEMNITZ, SAXONY.

The following reports on the condition of the laboring classes in Germany, and particularly in the consular district of Chemnitz, possessing, as they do, great interest, are presented in full. The one was prepared by Mr. Saville, chief clerk of the Treasury Department, who was then in Europe; the other by Mr. Cropsey, United States consulat Chemnitz.

REPORT OF MR. SAVILLE.

JUNE 18, 1874.

SIR: Referring to Department letter of November 4, 1873, in which I am instructed to procure for the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, certain information in relation to the condition of labor in Germany, and particularly in Chemnitz, I have the honor to submit the following

REPORT:

The town of Chemnitz, which in 1871 contained about seventy thousand inhabitants, is situated in the midst of the most flourishing and extensive manufacturing district of Germany. More than two-thirds of the population of the town, and fully three-fourths that of the district, may be classed as laboring people. The principal industries of the section are the manufacture of cotton hosiery, machinery of all kinds, linen goods, toys, &c. Most of the hosiery goes to the American market. The agricultural laborers form but a small part of the population, and those whom I saw seemed to be less prosperous than the mill-hands and mechanics. Mr. Cropsey, our consulat Chemnitz, is of the opinion that, as a class, they are more so.

The laboring classes are generally industrious. The cost of maintaining an average family in the ordinary frugal manner of the country, exceeds the amount which a man with steady employment and average pay can earn, so that even though the natural tendency of the laborer was to be idle, his imperative wants would compel him to industry. I think, however, as a mass, the working classes of Germany are naturally industrious.

Intemperance, in the sense of drunkenness, is rarely met with in Europe, where an intoxicated man is a very unusual sight. The common liquor of Germany is beer, which is used to great excess. Ordinarily it does not produce intoxication. The annual amount of beer consumed is enormous, but very little time is lost from its effects. The most serious result of the excessive use of this liquor is the cost. I merely repeat the opinion of the best informed and most reliable authorities in Germany when I say that, taking the whole country together, the average amount spent by the lower and middle classes for beer is quite one-fourth of their earnings. The necessary consequence of this is that the comforts of the family, represented by the character of their houses and the quantity and quality of their food and clothing, are either very seriously abridged or are provided for by the labor of the women and children. And even this latter does not supply the waste, since the gross earnings of the head of the family, as I said before, do not meet the common wants of an ordinary frugal household, and the labor of the wife and children is necessary to make up the deficit.

As a general rule, the laborer is housed in poor, mean, and crowded quarters. Many families are found herded together in a single house, and but very tew of them have more than one or two rooms. I was informed by a gentleman in Dresden that one of the large manufacturers of machinery in the district of Chemnitz had undertaken,

some years ago, to provide decent small houses for his mechanics and laborers, to be rented to them at an annual rate of 4 per cent. on their cost. The experiment was a failure, because the rent was nearly double what they paid for the miserable one or two rooms they had been wont to occupy, and to have made the improvement in this feature of their condition, economy in beer would have been necessary. These houses, built with a view of comfortably accommodating a single average family, are now occupied by two and sometimes by three and four families.

One of the most noticeable features of the homes of the laboring classes, not only in Germany but throughout those parts of Continental Europe which I have visited, is their squallor and wretchedness. Most of those I looked into were meanly furnished, even wanting what in America would be considered the indispensable furniture and utensils of the poorest household. Their common condition was dirty, dingy, and comfort-

less to the last degree.

The food of the laborer and his family usually consists of a substitute for coffee made from chicory, and coarse black bread in the morning and evening, and a cheap soup made from vegetables, with black bread, at noon. Occasionally they will have a piece of meat, but, generally, this would not happen more than once a week. Recently there has been established in Chemnitz a market for the sale of horse-meat, which, being comparatively cheap, gives them more for their money or enables them to get it oftener

than formerly.

The advance in wages which occurred between 1870 and 1872 was accompanied by an equal, if not greater advance in the price of all the actual necessaries of life, so that the result has not been to the benefit of the workmen and their families. Recently wages have fallen 20 to 25 per cent. without a corresponding fall in the price of food, and the consequence has been widespread suffering and want. I do not think an increase of wages, even when not accompanied by an increase in the price of food, would result in any improvement in the comforts of the workmen or their families. They are accustomed from childhood to coarse and meager food, and do not ordinarily care for more or better. When wages go up, therefore, the extra money earned goes to the beer-shop to pay for what they consider the one great luxury of life, plenty of beer.

Perhaps the hardest condition of the laborer of Germany, and in fact of all Europe, grows out of the enforced military service from all persons capable of bearing arms. It means the absolute loss of not less than three years out of the productive period of every able-bodied man's life, during which the pay is scarcely enough to supply the beer consumed by the soldier. As a consequence, the family is deprived of all support from this source; and when the soldier is the head of a family, as he not unfrequently is, they struggle through a period of wretchedness and poverty beyond description.

is, they struggle through a period of wretchedness and poverty beyond description.

The foregoing covers all the points of inquiry in Department letter, and, I believe, is a fair statement of facts as far as I had time to investigate the subject. I inclose a letter from the consul at Chemnitz, in which he has, at my request, answered the sev-

eral questions asked in the memorandum of the Bureau of Statistics.

Very respectfully,

J. H. SAVILLE.

Hon. B. H. Bristow, Secretary of the Treesury.

RRPORT OF MR. CONSUL CROPSEY.

United States Consulate, Chemnitz, Saxony, May 11, 1874.

Sir: In complying with your request to furnish information concerning the condition of the working people in this consular district, I wish to say Chemnitz is situated in the midst of an exclusive manufacturing district. Of the 86,000 inhabitants in this city more than 50,000 belong to the working class, and are operatives in the numerous factories and machine-shops, one alone employing over 4,000 men. Therefore, the answers to questions asked will have more particular reference to this class of the community.

The peasantry are the farmers; however, farming in this country partakes very much of gardening, the women always sharing the labors of the field. These people are hived in a cluster of shanties that are dignified with the name of village—each supporting a beer-saloon and a church. The lands belong to wealthy families, and are reuted out in patches to the peasants. They are generally a more prosperous people than

those engaged in the manufactories.

Question first. Are the working classes industrious?

Poverty necessitates industry to a limited extent. They do not and cannot lay up anything for the future, and the loss of a day's labor thrusts them on the verge of

beggary. The instances are indeed rare where a workingman has secured a competency sufficient for the support of himself and family, and has risen above the common herd.

Question second. Are they intemperate, and, if so, do they lose much time in consequence? Intemperance prevails to a certain degree. Beer is the popular beverage, and everybody indulges. Alcoholic drinks are above the reach of the poor, or drunkenness would be more common. The system becomes accustomed to the beer, and judging from the quantity one man (a native) can consume, I apprehend that one will stagger quicker from the weight than the strength of the potion.

Third. Are the comforts of their families seriously abridged by the amount spent by the men

In many instances they are. The military law, rigidly enforced, requiring three years' active service from every able-bodied man on the completion of his nineteenth year, frequently works a hardship where there is but a single son in the family.

Fourth. What is the condition of the rooms they occupy?

They are deplorable. Families are stowed away together in dirty, dingy, vermin-

breeding alleys, attics, and collars.

Fifth. Do many families live in one or two rooms only?

A vast majority of the whole do.

Sixth. Has the recent advance in wages resulted to the advantage of the families of the

workmen?

The price of living, the simple necessaries of life, has advanced in equal ratio with wages. At present there is a decline in the price of labor, attributable to the falling

off of foreign trade, and as a natural consequence actual suffering is wide-spread.

The chief meal of the average artisan consists of a few potatoes and unbolted ryebread, washed down with cheap beer, with the occasional addition of a few ounces of

horse-meat.

A stupid nature, and dull ambition, with the inborn idea that they will labor all their lives as their fathers did before them, makes the working class of some portions of Germany perpetual slaves to poverty, and the day is far off when they shall be emancipated from this thraldom.

I forward you a report of the Chemnitz Chamber of Commerce for 1871, and a similar report issued by the city of Plauen for the year 1873, which will give you further

With great respect, I am, sir, yours, &c.,

LOUIS E. CROPSEY. United States Consul.

Hon. EDWARD YOUNG, Chief of Bureau of Statistics. Washington, D. C.

LEIPSIC, SAXONY.

Mr. Consul Steuart writes as follows, in reference to the habits of in-

dustry and temperance among the working class:

"From observation of the laboring class in Leipsic, I should say that they are obliged to be industrious in order to live; that beer is their principal beverage, and intoxication is not often seen on the streets."

PAUPERISM IN SAXONY.

The following statements in regard to pauperism, and to the food and lodging of the working class in Saxony, are condensed from the British consular reports:

The number of paupers in Saxon poor-houses on a given day in three different years was as follows:

Year.	Poor- houses.	Male paupers.	Female paupers.	Total paupers.
December 3, 1858. December 3, 1861.	2, 540	10, 817 10, 047	13, 019 12, 256	93, 8 36 93, 303
December 3, 1864.	2, 555	7, 967	9, 617	17, 584

It has been calculated for 1861 and 1864 that out of 100 of each of the following classes of workmen in towns, the following were paupers:

Class.	1861.	1864.
Master mechanics Master journeymen Sedentary workmen Factory operatives Daily laborers	19, 03 16, 81 2 , 57	Per cent. 14. 43 12. 96 21. 95 2. 25 31. 58

The chief causes of pauperism are ascertained to be idleness, evil habits, and drunkenness.

FOOD AND LODGING.

The diet of the Saxon is simple, and not unhealthy. It consists chiefly of rye-bread, butter, bacon-fat, pork, sausage, beef and veal, potatoes, cabbage in great variety, dumplings, and soups. The meat most in use is pork, being as cheap as beef and more substantial. Beer is smaller than in England, but good and healthy. Of that any amount may be drank; not so of ardent spirits, in the use of which caution is greatly to be recommended.

The rooms in which workingmen live are usually healthy, being chiefly in the upper steries, and seldom under fifty yards in area. In lodging-houses, however, the healthiness of the rooms is in exact proportion to the number of beds, whether two or four or more, that are introduced into them. The Saxon bed is short and narrow, and its furniture is an Indian-grass mattress, a wedge pillow with straw stuffing, and a feather bad.

LABOR AND OTHER ASSOCIATIONS IN CHEMNITZ.

In connection with the two foregoing reports in reference to the condition of the laboring class of this seat of industrial activity, it may be well to present the following translation of a statement in relation to the large number of associations which have been established by the working people for mutual benefit and protection, and for their advancement in technical and general knowledge:

The commercial and industrial district of Chemnitz, in Saxony, to an area of 770,045 German acres has a population of 789,183 inhabitants, a large majority of whom are working in or for the numerous establishments engaged in the various trades and industries represented in that district.

This large number of people, living upon their daily earnings without being able to accumulate a sufficient amount to last them longer than a month or two when misfortune of any kind overtakes them, have been induced for this reason at first, (and also owing to their social disposition,) as also their taste for knowledge, to establish as many institutions and associations as there are trades; these are called the trades-unions and labor associations.

These associations are based on so many different plans and made to serve so many various purposes, that every want and need is provided for, and since they are mutual associations, are productive of decided benefits to the individual as well as to the community.

The membership of these associations, whose special object is the organization and support of industrial schools, both for the young and the aged, and the establishment of mutual savings and sickness-funds, is constantly on the increase; nor do they restrict themselves to their first object, but they continue to develop and enlarge their respective fields of action, and already several among them have instituted branches of so-called "associations for projection against malicions debtors."

respective fields of action, and already several among them have instituted branches of so-called "associations for protection against malicious debtors."

The principal associations in the district of Chemnitz are those limited to making advances of money to members after a certain period of membership, or on personal security, a period of from one to six months at \(\frac{1}{2}\) to 2 per cent. interest. These were sixty in number, with an aggregate membership in 1870 of 20,075, and a deposit and interestfund of \(\frac{22}{2},542,395\), and outstanding advances to the amount of \(\frac{28}{2},074,901\). Next in order are the mutual savings associations, fifty-one in number, with 129,534 depositors in 1870; amount of deposits \(\frac{28}{2},735,949\); the smallest deposit being from six to ten cents, paying from 3 to \(\frac{44}{2}\) per cent. interest.

Consumption associations number twenty-one, with a membership of 5,191 and a

clear profit of \$12,525 in 1870.

Industrial associations and associations to promote mental culture number thirty-five, and have libraries aggregating nearly 10,000 volumes, pamphlets and periodicals, and about 50,000 members with lecture courses on scientific, industrial, commercial and other subjects and annual contribution fee ranging from 24 cents to 90 cents.

DRESDEN, SAXONY.

The following report of Mr. Consul Brentano, on the condition of the working-classes in Saxony, with the accompanying tables showing the consumption of bread and beer during the six years from 1868 to 1873, inclusive, will be read with interest:

United States Consulate, Dresden, October 9, 1874.

In regard to the information you request, I desire first to state that Dresden cannot be classed among the manufacturing or industrial cities. Being the capital of the kingdom of Saxony, and the residence of the reigning dynasty, the erection of manufactories or other industrial establishments in the city, or its immediate neighborhood.

was, till of late, in no way encouraged.

Devoted to the culture of the fine arts, of science, music, and literature, Dreeden has, through its fine collection of paintings, works of sculpture, and public gardens, acquired a world-wide reputation, and attracted strangers from all parts of the globe. Wealthy people of different nationalities have taken up their residence here either permanently or temporarily, to enjoy the amenities of culture and refinement. Under such circumstances it is not to be wondered at that the smoke-stack of industrial establishments and the noise of the steam-hammer were no very desirable accessories to the state capital. But the steamships on the river Elbe, which divides the city in two parts, the old and the new city, (Altstadt and Neustadt,) and which is navigable from a point a little above Prague, in Bohemia, to Hamburg, on the German Sea, and the iron-horse on the land, were irresistible in opening even the city of Dreeden, euphemistically called "Elbe Athens," to the inroads of an industrial era.

Although in the last few years quite a number of new industrial establishments were founded, or such establishments already existing were enlarged, and although there are in the city, or its immediate neighborhood, establishments for the manufacture of tobacco and cigars, for mechanical purposes, for machineries, for chemical manufactories, steam brick-yards, cotton-spinneries, dyeing establishments, breweries, printing-houses, in which establishments several thousand laborers find employment, yet these men who work in such establishments are only a small portion of the labor-

ing class of this city.

In consequence of the establishment of the German Empire and a German citizenship giving every German the right to settle anywhere in the "Fatherland," there was, in late years, quite an influx of population into the larger cities, and especially into Dresden, the population of which has now nearly reached the second hundred thousand. This necessitated the erection of many new buildings, thereby attracting operatives in the building-line, as masons, stoneoutters, bricklayers, joiners and carpenters, locksmiths, tilers and slaters, plasterers, painters, whitewashers, &c. To these may be added other workmen of skilled labor, tailors, shoemakers, tanners, cabinet-makers, and piano-makers. For the production of fine and elegant furniture, especially carved and inlaid furniture of excellent workmanship, and for the manufacture of highly finished pianos, the city of Dresden enjoys an excellent fame.

The wages of the laborers had reached their highest scale in the period of 1871-1873 but have, in consequence of the crisis which commenced in the autumn of 1873 and which has continued more or less up to the present time, somewhat declined. If the consequences of that crisis have had a less detrimental effect upon the laboring classes of Dresden, the causes may be found in the fact that Dresden is not a manufacturing or industrial city in the common sense of the word, as above shown; and, therefore, not so much affected by a general crisis as places having a preponderance of factory

population

In addition to these causes it may be observed that during the last year, when there was some relaxation in private building enterprises, as compared with the two previous years, a great many public buildings were being erected. I mention here the erection of extended military buildings, barracks for the quartering of several regiments of soldiers, an extensive polytechnic school, a new royal opera-house in the Altstadt, on the site of the one burned in 1869, a royal theater in the Neustadt, extensive does along the Elbe, and large water-works. The latter necessitated the laying of water-pipes all over the city, as up to the present time the water-supply of Dresden was of a very primitive nature. As another cause, I may mention that the high state of agri-

culture around Dresden, and the many improvements in this important branch of the national resources, gave employment to all laborers who could not find such in the city proper, and the high prices of the farm-products enabled the farmers to pay good

wages. A new railroad, in progress of building from Dresden to Berlin, also gives employment to a great many skilled and common laborers.

As regards the industry of the laboring-classes, it is known that the Germans generally are a laborious and saving people, and the same may be said of the laborers of Dresden and the surrounding country. In 1871 the average rise in the price of labor was about 50 per cent.; in some branches even more; and the effect of it may be shown by the fact that since that time the consumption of bread, meat, and beer has increased

considerably.

I am indebted to Dr. Janasch, the director of the newly-established bureau of statistics of the city of Dresden, for some very interesting statistics in regard to the consumption of the above-named articles. As the city of Dresden levies a small import duty (octroi) on all estables and drinkables at the barriers, it can be easily ascertained how much is consumed in the city. The following table gives the number of inhabitants during 1868-1873, inclusive, the percentage of the increase of the population, the consumption of meat in the city, the consumption per capita, and the percentage of the increase of consumption:

	inhab-	crease lon.	Consumption	of meat.	the in- the con- of meat.
Year,	Number of in	Per cent. of incre of population	By the whole population.	Per capita.	Per cent. of tl crease in the sumption of
1868	154, 308 159, 382 164, 456 169, 530 174, 604 179, 678	3. 28 3. 18 3. 08 3. 99 3. 09	Pounds. 17, 880, 104 19, 536, 952 90, 632, 214 92, 731, 164 24, 570, 036 26, 340, 750	Pounds. 115, 96 122, 57 135, 45 133, 97 140, 72 146, 60	9.3 5.6 11 8.3 4 7.3

The table annexed, marked A, shows the import and export of wheat and rye flour, and of bread, and the consumption of these articles by the whole population and per While the increase in the consumption of the cereals kept step with the increase of population, the consumption of meat increased in a higher ratio, which shows that the circumstances of some people have greatly improved, and it may be contended that it was the laboring classes who, by the higher wages which they earned, were enabled to live in a better and more substantial manner.

In regard to five in a better and more substantial manner.

In regard to the habitations, the mode of living of German laborers compares very unfavorably with the condition of American workingmen. While a great many of the American laborers, especially the skilled class, reside in neat, comfortable cottages mostly their own, the workingmen here, as a general rule, live in tenement houses. in the suburbs of the city. I speak here of the permanent resident class. The fluctuating laboring population which comes in from the country remains in the city during the

week, and returns to their families on Saturday, put up at sleeping-places, (schlafstellen,) where often quite a number occupy one and the same apartment.

As a whole, the German laborers here are temperate. An exception to this rule may be found under that class of workingmen which I have just described, who have no home here, and who consequently resort to beer and liquor saloons. The consumption of beer has of late considerably increased, (as is shown by the annexed statistical table marked B,) and there is no doubt that the laboring classes figure to a great extent among the consumers of this Teutonic beverage. But it would be a serious mistake to conclude, from this increase in the consumption of beer, that among the laboring classes intemperance was on the increase. On the contrary, beer is considered by the Correct and in the same at the consumption of beer increases. German as a nourishment, and in the same ratio as the consumption of beer increases, the use of that most pernicious beverage, distilled liquor, must necessarily decrease. My experience is (and many Americans, some of whom were strictly abstinence men, who made observations on this subject, entirely agree with me) that a more quiet Sunday cannot be found than here, although beer-saloons and beer-gardens are on that day crowded by the laboring classes and the small business men and their families.

An exception to this rule will be found among those laborers who are single men, or who are here without their families, occupying such sleeping-places as I have above described.

As regards the education of the laboring classes, I desire to state that popular education in the Kingdom of Saxony, as in the other states composing the German Empire, is a compulsory one. Quite inconsistently with this system of compulsory education is the fact that they have here no system of free schools. The idea of the only true statesmanship, that it is the duty of the whole community to educate the rising population, has not yet penetrated into the German states. Only the two model republics, the United States of America and the Swiss Confederacy, have a system of free schools. In Saxony the parents are compelled to send their children to school till they have reached a certain age, generally fourteen years, and they are, at the same time, obliged to pay a tuition fee, and for the school-books and writing-material. That this is very frequently a great hardship for poor people is self-evident. The common schools here are certainly not superior to the public schools in the cities of the United States, as, for instance, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Cincinnati, Saint Louis, Milwaukee, &c. On the contrary, I find that the studies in our schools have a wider and more liberal range. I will only observe here that the children of the Catholics are educated in different schools from those of the Protestants and Jews, because not only the moral teachings of religion, but also the dogmas of the different recognized denominations, form a part of the lessons in the public schools. In some parts of Germany they have recently commenced to establish non-denominational, or mixed schools, in which all the children, regardless of their denominational character, congregate and are taught the doctrines of Protestant or Catholic Christianity, or Judaism, by the respective professors of those creeds; but in Saxony the distinction of the different denominational schools was sanctioned by a law which was promulgated the present year.

I give it as my opinion that the advance of wages during the past few years has resulted in benefit to the laborers and their families.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

LORENZO BRENTANO, United States Consul.

Hon. EDWARD YOUNG, Chief of Bureau of Statistics, Washington, D. C. Tables showing the quantity of wheat and rys flour and bread imported, exported, and consumed, and also the quantity of boor produced, imported, exported, and one who is to 1873, inclusive.

	961	1	1960		1870		1940. 1870. 1871.		1879	d	1873	
		. I		10		10		10		10		10
Artioles	·Laj	11:8.ge 18:86 18:86	·£43·	- 68.80 - 68.80 1968.	·Ç4þ	03e3n - 0ese 1869. 1869.	ţţ.	03810 + 0880 1870.	·£4Į	egata + eas ease 1871.	ity.	ozat t + esa esa esa esa esa esa esa esa esa esa
•	tann Q	Perces Front Front Front	tran\$	499b	trang	100b	anan P	decr	эпапф	106D	taunQ	100b
A.—Flour and bread.	154,3	308	159, 3	388	164, 4	456	160, 5	530	174,0	100	179, 678	8
Wheat-flour: Imported	155, 966, 43 9, 360, 80 146, 606, 23 85, 01		190, 677. 32 11, 036. 67 179, 640. 65 112, 71		204, 063. 77 21, 415. 58 189, 646. 19 111. 06		203, 948. 73 73, 506. 39 180, 449. 34 106, 44		904, 881. 06 9, 002. 30 195, 878. 86 112. 18		200, 608, 04 10, 424, 71 190, 383, 33 105, 96	
Kyeffour: Imported Expurted Consumed Consumption per capitapounda.	104, 533, 81 88, 68 104, 435, 13 67, 68		101, 135, 39 488, 97 100, 646, 42 63, 15		120, 205, 56 6, 093, 37 114, 112, 19 69, 39		130, 020, 18 11, 650, 11 118, 370, 07		113, 091. 76 187. 46 112, 994. 30 64. 66		104, 792, 97 963, 52 104, 893, 75 56, 34	
Drouted	129, 066. 7 1, 438 127, 614. 7 88. 70		136, 898, 36 136, 898, 36 85, 89		139, 123, 43 139, 123, 43 84, 66		139, 831 139, 831 88, 48		159, 083, 15 8, 487 155, 596, 15 89, 11		177, 960. 33 177, 960. 33 98. 65	
B.—Beer. Population, including military	150,6	3	166, 5	248	179, 930	062	176, 570	01.0	181,	679	186, 664	25
	133, 696. 77 105, 121. 77		195, 783, 99 119, 650, 57	- 6.37 + 7.16	133, 674. 71 111, 230. 21	+ 6.78	149, 090. 80 130, 753. 14	+11.54	152, 460. 99 130, 115. 12	+ 2 25 - 0.49	169, 477. 02 150, 612. 20	+11.16
Simple beer consumed i de Simple beer another literature Lager and strong beer hectaliters. For capita literature another literature another literature l	129, 733, 73 81, 14 63, 470, 99 39, 70		181,048.24 78.68 67,946.93 40.80	1 1 ++ 50.1.9 53.81	128, 319, 77 75, 08 78, 567, 79	++++ 8888	144, 545, 52 81, 86 82, 654, 65 46, 81	++++ 9.63 11.9.61 11.9.61	147, 708, 01 F1, 30 59, 449, 59	+ 1 1 1 80 0.83 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	164, 943. 59 88. 36 89. 38 89. 38	+ 11.67 + 8.68 - 7.76 - 10.21
Imported beer consumed: Simple beer heetoliters Per capits Lager and strong beer heetoliters Per capits Per	205.52 47,690.32 25.03 25.03 25.03 25.03		53, 448.04 38.09 64, 476.66 38.71	++++ 888: 1888:	26, 43, 36, 51 34, 51 45, 83, 51 54, 65	++++ 9.7.3	7, 089, 38 86, 98 80, 86 80, 88 80, 88	++17.88 ++28.90 +25.74	88, 130, 94 45, 21 125, 105, 60 68, 86	++++ 13.99 27.88 27.99 27.99	88, 457. 66 47. 39 160, 304. 35 85. 87	+++ 28.4.83 12.73
Simple beerhectoliters	3, 966, 05 41, 650. 78		4, 141, 75	+ 4.41	4, 361 94 38, 642 42	+ 5.31	4, 554. 28 48, 098. 49	+ 4.43	4, 759, 96	+ 4.35	4, 533, 43 95, 774. 96	- 4.61 +35.53

CELEBRATED INDUSTRIAL ESTABLISHMENTS.

The iron-works and the locomotive-shops of Mr. Borsig, at Berlin, and of the Saxon Machine Company, at Chemnitz, have already been referred to in the preceding pages. Both produce engines, machines, and a variety of other works, which although destitute of the beauty of finish of similar articles made in the United States, yet possess the desirable quality of durability, and have attained a reputation which is no doubt deserved. The tools and appointments of at least one of the establishments are unquestionably inferior to those of first-class shops in Philadelphia, Paterson, Providence, Taunton, and other cities of the United States. No inducement therefore exists for presenting an extended notice of industrial works, which, however deserving of credit, possess in no degree features which can be profitably imitated by similar works in the United States.

But among the metallurgic industries of Germany, there is one which, whether in regard to its history, its extent, the excellence of its workmanship, the liberality of its administration, or its general prosperity, is so far in advance of others—being perfectly unique—that it demands a foremost place among the noteworthy industrial establishments, not only of Germany, but of the world. Reference is made to the

STEEL WORKS OF FRIED. KRUPP, IN ESSEN, PRUSSIA.

In pursuance of the author's determination to examine the principal manufacturing establishments of Europe, a visit was made to Essen, in Rhenish Prussia, where the celebrated steel-works of Fried. Krupp are situated. While waiting in the office, a notice, in the English, German, and French languages, was observed on the walls, requesting visitors not to ask for admission into the works, because of the interruption and annoyance it would occasion to the workmen, and not thereby impose upon the proprietor the pain of a refusal.

Although, in obedience to this intimation, a request for the coveted "open sesame" was not made to Mr. Krupp, yet a cordial invitation was extended to the author to call, on his return from Saint Petersburg, and thoroughly examine the works. The following extracts from his note-book, in regard to the capacity and capabilities of this gigantic

establishment, are here presented:

Essen, September 20, 1872.

Left Düsseldorf by first train to visit the celebrated steel-works of Fried. Krupp, having been invited to do so on my previous visit here.

The town of Essen is utterly unattractive in itself, and possesses no interest apart from this remarkable establishment. The population (51,768 in 1871) consists of those engaged in the works, or in supplying those who are so engaged with food and other necessaries of life, and are wholly dependent upon the works for their means of subsistence.

I was politely conducted through every part of the works by Mr. Hagemann, who, with great patience and courtesy, pointed out every ob-

ject of interest and answered my numerous questions.

MEN EMPLOYED.

The total number of men employed is as follows:	
In the works at Essen	,000
In coal-mining, ore-mining, &c	000

Total.......17,000

AMOUNT AND VALUE OF PRODUCTION.

Cast steel produced last year, 125,000 tons.

Whole value of steel, steel guns, shafts, tires, rails, wheels, axles, &c., produced in 1871, 12,000,000 thalers, = in United States gold, \$8,640,000.

Iron and iron-ore used, 200,000,000 pounds.

Coal used per day, 30,000 centner, or nearly 500,000 tons per annum. Coal now costs 24 thalers per 100 centner, = 5 tons, or nearly 2,400,000 thalers, = \$1,728,000 per annum.

Number of crucibles used per day, 5,000.

Total coal per annum, 250,000 thalers, = \$180,000. Total cost of labor, 5,000,000 thalers, = \$3,600,000.

RATES OF WAGES.

Owing to the mode in which the men are paid it is difficult to ascertain the rates of wages, but the earnings average about 11 thalers (96

cents) per day.

Men in each branch of work are allowed certain minimum wages, but men of skill and industry are either paid by the piece or receive extra allowances at the end of the year. For instance, the wages of skilled forgers is 60 cents per day, but the most industrious and skillful earn as high as 2½ thalers (\$1.80) for 11 hours' work. The rate of the next class is 20 groschen, (48 cents,) while they earn ½ thalers, (96 cents.) The third class are allowed 18 groschen, but earn 1 thaler per day. Men in the forging and finishing shops receive the highest pay.

Puddlers in iron-rolling mills earn about 2½ thalers (\$1.80) per day. Apprentices are allowed 6 groschen per day, the best from 7 to 8, but only one-half is regularly paid to them, the balance remaining until the end of the apprenticeship, when each has a considerable sum to enable

him to enter upon the customary "wandering."

Unskilled laborers receive but 4 thalers (\$2.88) per week. My inquiry as to how these lived on so small a sum was referred to the foreman, who shrugged his shoulders, as if to say it was a question in economy beyond his comprehension.

EXTRA EARNINGS.

The men work, ordinarily, 11 hours per day, but as the works are open and in operation at night and even on Sundays, many men work extra hours, and thus increase their earnings. The mode of payment of the workmen, at least of those most skilled, is substantially by piecework, or in proportion to their respective industry and skill. In the casting of large shafts, cylinders, guns, &c., the highest skill is required, as, in case of failure, great loss to the proprietor would ensue. When all is ready, men of long experience and great skill are called from their regular work, assist for but twenty minutes, perhaps, and are paid for this extra service at high rates in addition to their regular earnings.

At the end of the year Mr. Krupp distributes a very large amount* to his workmen in the shape of gratuities, (gratifications,) proportioned to the skill and success shown by results. For instance, the men who have been the most regular at work, who have had few or no "blue Mondays," who have done their work well, spoiled no work, made no mistakes, and caused no defective castings, receive the largest gratuities.

^{*}The sum distributed in the preceding year, 1871, was given in confidence, with a request that it should not be published.



BENEFACTIONS.

Workmen when sick get half wages, and are cared for in hospital without cost. The men pay toward the expenses of the hospital one groschen out of each thaler earned, the firm contributing one-half as much as the aggregate contributions of the men.

A workman of good skill will receive, in scrip, 100 thalers, payable to his family after his death. In case of sickness or inability to labor he can obtain an advance, not exceeding 50 thalers, on it, which is to be

repaid on his return to work.

Mr. Krupp is building houses for 1.800 families, which will be rented to workmen very low, each family occupying two or three rooms. He will continue to build every year. Unmarried men to the number of about 1,000 are lodged and boarded at low rates. They are furnished with abundance of meat and vegetables for dinner, which, with one-half pound of butter and one-quarter pound of coffee per week, and lodging, are furnished at 7 groschen per day, \$1.18 per week. Bread is an extra charge, furnished at cost. I visited the bakery, where nearly 10,000 pounds of rye bread and from 4,000 to 5,000 pounds of wheaten bread are made daily, of excellent quality, as I found by tasting both kinds. Not only the single men who are supplied with food, except bread, but the families of all the workmen obtain their bread here at cost, viz. a loaf of rye bread, weighing 6 pounds, for 41 groschen, (10 cents,) and a loaf of white bread, weighing nearly 3 pounds, for 42 groschen, being, respectively, about 21 and 31 cents per pound. The meat and vegetables for the boarders are of good quality and well cooked, everything being clean and nice. Although the dining-rooms and dormitories resemble barracks, they are very clean, and are kept in good order.

There are stores to supply boots and shoes, clothing, dry goods, &c., to workmen at cost; also a manufactory of seltzer water, which is sold

to them at the low price of 1 groschen (11 cents) per bottle.

Mr. Krupp has established schools and reading-rooms, will build a theater, and is doing everything he can for the comfort, the instruction, and the amusement of his employés and their families.

CRUCIBLES.

All the crucibles for re-smelting the puddled steel, of which 5,000 are used daily, are made on the premises. They cost but 5 groschen (12 cents) each. I did not ask the kind of clay used, but from the appearance and cheapness I think it is the ordinary fire-clay and common plum bago. They are used but once, then broken, remolded, burnt, and againused. If used several times without breaking, as in England, the clay is unfit for remolding. They consider it cheaper to use the crucibles but once and remold the clay, and recommend the steel-makers in the United States to make their crucibles, which is cheaper than to purchase them.

QUALITY OF STEEL AND SECRET OF SUCCESS.

With regard to the soundness and good quality of the steel castings made in this establishment, they appear to be entirely faultless. I saw immense guns, nearly completed, intended for exhibition at Vienna next year; an immense shaft for a steamship of one of the German lines to New York, which seemed the very perfection of workmanship, and for which 1 thaler per pound was to be paid; and great numbers of other manufactures of steel, either completed or in progress, all of which ap-

peared to possess great excellence. In regard to tools, machinery, and appointments these works do not, in my opinion, surpass in excellence those of the steel-works of Messrs, Firth & Sons, of Sheffield. But as the products have obtained a higher reputation than those of any other manufacturer, how is this admitted excellence obtained? No doubt it is in part due to the analyses of the various ores from his mines in Germany and Spain, and from Great Britain and other countries, and from experiments made by the experienced and celebrated analytical chemists in his employ. But, in my opinion—the opinion of an inexpert in metallurgy and mechanical engineering—this firm has no secrets in regard to the admixture of various kinds of iron which, if known, would enable other manufacturers to produce as good steel. The superiority is, I believe, owing to the following causes: Most of his workmen have been a long time in his employ, and have great experience and skill; his foremen thoroughly understand their business, possess technical training, and the highest practical knowledge. These are all attached to the proprietor by his practice of giving extra pay for skilled work, by his annual gratuities, by his generosity exhibited toward the men in every possible way, and his sympathy with them. His workmen are thus warmly attached to him, and strive to promote his interest by performing their several duties thoroughly and well. In the reputation of the establishment for excellence of workmanship they are, therefore, interested.

ORIGIN OF THE WORKS.

The works were established in 1810, by Mr. Fried. Krupp, who died when his son, the present proprietor, Mr. Alfred Krupp, was but a little over fourteen years of age. Having had some experience he left school and, in company with one of the skilled workmen, continued the business, on a very small scale at first; but he soon obtained a high reputation for the excellent quality of steel produced, and gradually increased the extent and product of the works. A pamphlet, giving a full and detailed account of the history, present condition, and product of the works, is in course of preparation for the Vienna Exposition, a copy of which will be sent to me.

The small house in which Mr. Alfred Krupp was born is still standing among the large shops, and is kept in good repair. The name of the firm continues, as at first, "Fried. Krupp," and will probably so continue

to future generations.

CAST-STEEL MANUFACTORY OF FRIED. KRUPP.

The following information in regard to the extent and capacity of these works is condensed from the pamphlet prepared for the Vienna Exposition, which is alluded to in the above notes:

The cast-steel manufactory near Essen was established in the year 1810. It was conducted by Alfred Krupp from the year 1826, and taken by him on his own account in 1848.

The works have been gradually developed, and at this time they cover a continuous area of more than 4,784,000 square yards, of which about 900,000 square yards are covered in, and employ more than 12,000 workmen, independently of about 2,000 who are supplied by building-contractors.

In the mines and smelting-works belonging to the firm, there are employed a further number of about 5,000 workmen. Therefore, the total number would amount to about

17,000 men.

The number of officers and fixed employes is at present 739.

The quantity of cast-steel produced in the year 1872 exceeded 125,000 tons.

The articles manufactured from this cast-steel were, axles, tires, wheels, and crossings

for railways, rails and springs for railways and mines, shafts for steamers, different pieces of machinery, boiler-plates, rolls, spring-steel, tool-steel, guns, gun-carriages,

There are now in operation 250 smelting-furnaces, 390 annealing-furnaces, 161 heatingfurnaces, 115 welding and puddling furnaces, 14 cupola and reverberatory furnaces, 160 furnaces of other kinds; 275 coke-ovens, 264 smiths' fortes, and 240 steam-boilers, besides 70 more in course of construction.

Seventy-one steam-hammers in all, of which 66 weigh from 2 hundred-weight to 110 hundred-weight each, and one each of 140, 150, 200, 400, and 1,000 each; 236 steamengines, representing altogether 10,000 horse-power, among which there is one of 1,000, 3 or 800, 5 of 150, and one each of 500, 200, and 120 horse-power.

One thousand and fifty-six machine-tools, viz: Three hundred and sixty-two turning-lathes, 82 shaping-machines, 195 boring-machines, 107 planing-machines, 42 punching and grooving machines, 32 pressing-machines, 63 grinding-machines, 31 glazing and polishing machines, 142 machines of different kinds.

In the year 1872 there were consumed, coals, 500,000 tons; coke, 125,000 tons; water, 113,000,000 cubic feet, supplied from several water-works; gas, 155,000,000 cubic feet, supplied by the gas-works of the establishment, for 16,500 burners.

To facilitate the traffic on the works, there are about 24 miles of railways of usual

auge, with 180 sidings and 39 turn-tables, on which run 12 tank-locomotives of about gange, with 180 stdings and 58 turn-usones, on which the last seall-gauge railways, 16 inches cylinder diameter, and 530 cars, also about 10 miles of small-gauge railways, of 30-inch gauge, with 147 sidings and 65 turn-tables. The traffic on these railways is carried on by means of horses and of 3 locomotives of 6-inch cylinder diameter, and 270 cars.

The carriage department comprises, besides, 272 wagons, and altogether 191 horses, of which 60 wagons and 80 horses are supplied by contractors.

To facilitate the communication between the several workshops, there are thirty

telegraph stations.

A permanent fire-brigade, consisting of seventy men, has also been instituted, who perform at the same time police duty. There are one hundred and sixty-six watchmen

The general supply stores, under control of the firm, supply those belonging to the works for ready cash, provisions, clothing, dry goods, boots, &c., at cost prices. The receipts at the different stores amount at present to £11,000 (nearly \$55,000) monthly, and are continually increasing.

There are also three beer-houses, one hotel, one seltzer-water manufactory, one flourmill, and one bakery, with two steam-engines, producing at an average eighty-five tons

of bread monthly.

Of the dwellings for the officers and workmen, there are for the former two hundred and six; for the latter, two thousand nine hundred and forty-eight, either inhabited or in course of construction. There are living now in these houses more than eight thousand individuals, and the number is being rapidly increased. The existing boarding-houses offer board and lodging to two thousand five hundred unmarried workmen, in course of construction. and other houses of the same description are now being built for the accommodation of one thousand six hundred more.

The arrangements for the accommodation of the sick consist of one hospital containing one hundred beds, and one epidemic hospital with one hundred and twenty beds,

all under the supervision of physicians especially engaged for the purpose.

A sick, burial, and pension fund has also been instituted for the workmen. The firm contributes to this fund half the amount of the contributions paid in by the members, being, in addition, at the expense of providing pensions and support for those who have been rendered unfit for work in their service, and for the widows of their work-The total receipts in the year 1872 amounted to £16,000, the expenditure to £12,500, and the capital in hand at the beginning of the present year (1873) to £19,348.

From another fund members receive for their families free medical treatment against

an annual payment of seventy-two cents.

Finally, the firm has organized a chemical laboratory, a photographic and lithegraphic atelier, as well as printing and book-binding establishment. In the printingoffice there are two steam and four hand presses in operation.

Besides the cast-steel works near Essen, the firm possesses considerable mining and smelting works, which secure to it a regular and uniform supply of the best raw material. These comprise coal-pits in Prussia, iron-ore mines to the number of four hundred and fourteen, with an area of more than 239,200,000 square yards.

The firm possesses important concessions of excellent iron-ore beds in North Spain, whence it is intended to import annually up to 300,000 tons of ore for the production of cast-steel. To facilitate the importation, a railway in Spain nearly eight miles long,

as well as several steamers, are already in course of construction.

The Sayner and Oberhammer smelting-works contain two blast-furnaces, which produce daily about twenty tons of "spiegeleisen" and "charcoal spiegeleisen;" the

Mülhofer smelting-works on the Rhine, containing four blast-furnaces, each of which produces daily about forty-five tons of spiegel, Bessemer, and fine iron; and the Herrmans' smelting-works on the Rhine, near Neuwied, with three blast-furnaces.

Also, the Bendorf smelting-works; the Johannes smelting-works near Duisburg, on the Rhine, producing daily in four blast-furnaces from about one hundred and forty to one hundred and sixty tons. The construction of six more furnaces has been commenced, and the works are in connection with the Rhenish and the Bergisch-Märkisch Railway.

These works have also one hundred and forty coke-ovens in operation, and one hun-

dred and twenty more in course of construction.

Krupp's smelting-works produce, accordingly, at the present time, with eleven blastfurnaces, nearly ten thousand tons of pig-iron per month.

DESCRIPTION OF SOME ARTICLES MADE FOR THE EXHIBITION.

One crucible cast-steel block, (1,800 crucibles, each containing about sixty pounds,) 54 inches octagonal, weighing fifty-two and one-half tons.

This casting, originally cylindrical, has been reduced to the octagonal form by forging under a fifty-ton hammer, to illustrate the malleability of the material. Cuts were made in four different places, while in a red-hot state, to show, when broken of later, the density and soundness of the cast steel. This block of gun-metal quality is intended for the body of a gun of 14-inch caliber, and receives the required form by

further forging.

One locomotive straight axle, of crucible cast steel, in the forged state.

One forged tender-axle, of crucible cast steel. The body of this axle is forged complete under the hammer, and requires no further workmanship.

Six carriage-axles, of crucible cast steel, forged according to the dimensions ap-

proved by the German railways.

Two unwelded rings of crucible cast steel, forged from solid blocks by making a cut

in the middle and driving them out under a hammer.

One locomotive-eccentric crank and one driving-wheel crank, both of crucible cast steel, in the finished state. These pieces of machinery are supplied by the works in the rough, turned, or finished state.

Two carriage-axles, of crucible cast steel, body forged, ready fitted with tires of same material, and spoke-wheels, nave included, of wrought iron.

Two carriage-axles, of crucible cast steel, ready fitted with disk-wheels cast in molds,

A collection of cast-steel springs for locomotives, tenders, and carriages.

Bessemer steel rails, the manufacture being illustrated by a Bessemer casting, from which octagonal blocks are forged as shown by the exhibited sample.

Rolls and rolling-machines illustrating the most usual forms and dimensions used in this branch of manufacture, one of the oldest of the establishment.

Artillery material.—The guns are manufactured from crucible cast steel of a quality

especially adapted for the purpose, and are, those of the smallest calibers excepted, constructed according to the built-up system. All guns have Krupp's round wedge.

The naval and coast gun-carriages are generally manufactured from wrought iron; only particular parts, such as the axles, axle-trees, cylinders, and piston-rods of the hydraulic buffer and the slide rollers of the coast-gun carriages being made of cast steel. Cast iron is only used for small truck-wheels.

Heavy guns on carriages for coast defenses, ship-guns on battery-carriages with hydraulic buffers and self-acting running-out apparatus; lighter guns on ship and upper-deck carriages, and on slide and on wheel carriages, for siege purposes, as also field-pieces and one light mountain-gun on carriage, were among the articles exhibited at Vienna.

CONDITION OF THE WORKING-CLASSES.

From information obtained from Germany, in relation to the workingclasses, since the foregoing went to press, the following is presented:

The condition of the working-classes in Bavaria during the year 1873 is described as prosperous, even in comparison with the previous year. The former high wages were generally maintained, though, it is added, few of the recipients appear to have taken advantage of the improvement in their material condition to lay by anything for future contingencies. With the exception of the journeymen-printers' strike, no organized strike occurred in any trade during the year, but the relations between employers and workmen are described in the report of the Stüttgardt chamber of commerce as anything but satisfactory.

The following is extracted from that report:

The sound sense of the working-classes is becoming more and more obscured by the systematic efforts made to mislead them into hostility toward capital, under the pre-text of oppression and great injustice. Worked upon for party purposes, a feeling of distrust has gradually sprung up and developed to an extent which gives just ground for fearing that not only production will suffer from the growing complications, but that social order in general may be placed in peril.

FARM-LABOR.

From the report of a commission appointed by the German agriculturists to inquire into the condition of the rural laborers in the German Empire, it appears that the wages paid are higher in districts having large landed proprietors, and also when the productiveness and consequent rentability of the soil is greater:

The proportion of wages for contract work to the per diem paid shows that the former exceed the daily summer wages by 49 per cent., the average contract-wages showing 59 cents, the average daily wages being 40 cents in summer and 35 cents in winter.

Generally, one-third of the rural laborers in Southern and Western and one-fourth

in Eastern and Northern Germany work under contract.

The average yearly earnings of agricultural laborers approximate the following sums:

	•		•	~-	_		_	
1.	Free labor	ers o	wning	land			2173 0	9
2.	Laborers l	ired	under	contrac	t		165 6	Õ
3	Free labor	ore n	ot own	ing lan	d	•	146 1	ĥ

The number of their working-days averages 300 in the year. It is remarked that in exclusively Catholic districts the number of work-days is smaller than in districts inhabited principally by protestants.

The wages paid show an increase of from 50 to 100 per cent. during the last twenty

to twenty-five years.

The wives of rural laborers generally contribute to the support of the family, either by working for wages or by tilling their own family-farm, or by both.

Children generally work at agricultural abor where other industrial interests do

not predominate, otherwise they seek employment in factories.

Our information shows that nearly everywhere the earnings of the father are insuffi-

cient alone to meet the necessities of a family.

Agricultural employers generally claim for their laborers a higher moral standard than that accorded to other laborers, while many acknowledge their average intellectual inferiority.

The data received will not warrant a comparison of their relative material condition.

As to the general condition of the rural laborers, compared with that of ten or twenty years ago, the reports received, although somewhat contra-dictory, indicate a general improvement in morality. The decrease of crimes against property is universally acknowledged; while sobriety has improved in Northern but decreased in Southern Germany.

While a general improvement in their material condition is freely acknowledged, it is remarked that, as a class, the laborers have not become more provident.

While the prices of rye and beef, during the past twenty to thirty years, have advanced 25 and 53 per cent., respectively, wages, during the same period, have increased from 50 to 100 per cent.

Emigration to foreign countries is greater in Northern Germany, and less from Con-

tral and Southern Germany.

The inducements to emigration are stated generally to be "to improve their condition;" "to acquire a homestead;" "induced by agents or relatives in America;" " evade military service."

In Prussia the current of emigration seems to have run from west to east, as indicated by the fact that, of each one thousand inhabitants, there emigrated from-

	18 44 –′59.	1960-'67.	1868-11
Rhenish Prussia	1.6	1.2	1.0
Westphalia	1.7	1.7	1.4
Pomerania	1.1	3.1	5.1
Posen	0.3	1.6	2.0
Prussia, provinces of	0.2	0.4	1.4

But, while 64,505 persons emigrated from the Kingdom of Prussia in 1872, only 47,809 followed in 1873. Although without exact tables, the information for 1874 indicates a continued decrease in the number of emigrants. It may therefore be assumed that emiliary the second of the continued decrease in the number of emigrants. gration from Northern (especially Northeastern) Germany has passed its climax, and will continue to decrease in the same ratio as previously in Southern and Western Germany.

The migration of laborers, especially of single men and women, (the latter most numerous,) from the country to towns and cities is noticeable.

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LABOR IN AUSTRIA.

Manufacturing industry is of comparatively modern growth in Austria, which has not long ceased to be a purely agricultural country. The industrial population is not, therefore, to any considerable extent engaged in manufactures which come into competition with the productions of the United States. By reference to the following table, it will be noticed that glass-ware, manufactures of leather, including gloves, buttons, and fancy goods, constitute the principal articles of Austrian manufacture which find a market in the United States. Silk goods, musical instruments, china-ware, jewelry, and some other articles of luxury serve to swell the amount of our imports; but, it will be observed, the articles of chief value which we receive from that country are fruits and wool:

Statement showing the value of exports, direct and indirect, from Austria to the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1874.

Direct trade.		Indirect trade.		
Articles. Chemicals Cordage Fancy goods Proits of all kinds Glass Old and scrap iren Jute, raw Gloves of kid, &c. Motala, &c. Musical instruments	1, 659 12, 048 598, 477 690 96, 912 1, 164 1, 475 490 1, 204	Buttons	23, 896 49, 340 163, 963 6, 869 416, 221 25, 221 442, 213 10, 119	
Salphur Wine, spirits, and cordials. Wool Unconumerated. Free of duty	985 390 9 , 754 8, 714	Jewelry Leather, and manufactures of. Musical instruments. Silk, and manufactures of. Wine, spirits, and cordials Wool, &c. Unenumerated. Free of duty	58, 921 77, 823 15, 381 509, 697 134, 135	

IMMIGRATION INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM AUSTRIA.

The large Teutonic element of our population has already been referred to, but it is worthy of remark, the immigration from the Austro-Hungarian Empire was not extensive. The last census exhibited the fact that there were in the United States on the 1st of June, 1870, only 30,508 natives of Austria proper, 40,289 of Bohemia, and 3,737 of Hungary. And although during the last semi-decade there has been an increase in the number of immigrants from that country, yet the aggregate is by no means large, as will be seen by reference to the following statement:

Number of immigrants who arrived in the United States from Austria during the five calendar years from 1870 to 1874, inclusive.

1870	 5, 283
1872	 5, 100
1873	 6, 943
1874	 6, 891
207 2 200000000000000000000000000000000	-,
Total	28 987

Vienna is one of the ancient and famous capitals of Europe, but, until the late exposition, was less known to Americans than almost any other. Its population in 1872 was 980,000. It is the most important manufacturing city in the empire. The principal products consist of silk and other stuffs, gold-lace, silver-lace, ribbons, hardware, and ornamental goods, philosophical instruments, carriages, and paper. There are several porcelain works, one of which employs 150 painters and about 1.500 work-people. There are also manufactured steel ornaments, jewels, watches, musical instruments, and chemical preparations. are locomotive and engineering works, a gun-factory, and a manufactory of small arms, belonging to the government. Tobacco is manufactured under a government monopoly. The manufacture of silk-stuffs is an important branch of industry, and 4,000 persons are employed in the weaving of shawls: but the most flourishing trade is the manufacture of meerschaum-pipes, in which much skill and artistic taste are displayed. Glove-making is also carried on to much perfection, and the trades and manufactures common in large capitals are prosecuted here.

Notwithstanding its disadvantages of climate and situation, few places possess such ample resources, such large means of enjoyment. both intellectual and physical, as the imperial city. The streets are crowded with a lively, active, bustling population. The Exposition of the industry of all nations, held in 1873, which transcended in magnitude every effort of a similar character previously attempted in any country, has doubtless been productive of vast benefit to that city, as well as to the whole empire, by reason of the disbursement there of the immense sums of money that were necessarily expended in carrying out the objects of the enterprise, and also on account of the improvements in arts and sciences that have been introduced, and the quickening that has been given to all the industrial processes of civilization. The permanent benefits accruing to trade and commerce, and the prestige that has resulted from the concourse of the representatives of all nations, are, it is believed, sufficient returns for the cost and labor bestowed upon the undertaking.

THE KID-GLOVE MANUFACTURE.

The Vienna manufacturers were fully represented at the Exhibition by a collection remarkable for elegance. Several kinds of gloves were found in this selection as they are exported to all parts of the world. By means of important improvements introduced in glove-cutting, regulating, and sewing by machinery, the Austrian article has acquired a good repute, and consequently extensive markets. The principal seats of this manufacture in Austria are Vienna and Prague. For several years past the demand in England and America has been very considerable, and the export to those countries, as well as to Switzerland, Holland, the Danubian Principalities, Russia, and the East has steadily increased, as will be seen from the following figures. of gloves exported from Austria amounted in 1863 to \$3,300,000; 1864, to \$4,590,000; 1865, to \$6,840,000; 1866, to \$9,420,000; 1867, to \$12,195,000; 1868, to \$14,070,000; 1869, to \$15,795,000; 1870, to \$16,545,000; 1871, to \$21,090,000; and 1872, to \$22,545,000.

WAGES IN WOOLEN-MILLS.

The following table, exhibiting the wages paid to the work-people employed in the manufacture of woolen goods in several parts of Austria, has been translated from the original statements, which were obtained and transmitted to the author of this report in 1872:

Statement showing the rate of wages paid to work-people employed in woolen-factories in the undermentioned places in the year 1872.

	Yaegen	lorf.	Brünn.		
Occupation.	Hours.	Weekly wages.	Hours.	Weekly wages.	
Workmen in warehouse	6 a. m. to 7 p. m	\$2 18	6 a.m. to 7 p.m	\$1 97 to \$2 03	
Wool-sorters			do	1 45 to 1 51	
Dyers	0 a. m. to 7 p. m	3 04	6 a. m. to 6 p. m	2 18 to 2 00 2 91 to 3 1	
Wolfers* Plushers			Accord'g to need.		
Pluspers	K 4-0	1 01	# a m to # a m	1 40 to 1 5	
Coinners (girls)	эж ш. ш эр. ш	00 01 to 4 95	A coording to pend	(a)	
Pinaners Combers, (girls) Spinners, (girls) Spinners, (boys) Dressers Master dressers Master spinners Very realers (girls)	Kam takn m	1 18	TOOLA & M TOOK	(a)	
Three ore	do will wo him	0 18	fam tofn m	2 91 to 3 40	
Master dressers			6 s. m. to 8 n. m.	9 70 to 16 9	
Waster spinners	•••••	5.89 to 8.73	do do	7 27 to 9 70	
Varn-realers (girls)		0 02 00 0 10	A coord'g to need.	(6)	
Twisters	5 a. m. to 8 n. m	1 21 to 1 70	do	(c)	
Yarn-spoolers, (girls)	6 s. m. to 7 p. m.	1 21 to 1 70	do	(ď)	
Warp-shearers	do	1 45	do	3 88 to 4 37	
Sizers	••••		do	2 91 to 3 40	
Master spinners Yarn-reelers, (girls) Twisters Yarn-apoolers, (girls) Warp-abearers Rizers Hand-weavers Rizers Hand-weavers Rooters Coares buriers Needlewomen Fine buriers Washers Fullers' hands Master fullers Mappers Master nappers Card-cleaners Dryers	10 hours at most.	2 42 to 3 88	do	4 37 to 5 85	
Spoolers		97 to 1 91	do	(6)	
Coarse burlers	6 a. m. to 7 p. m	1 16	6 a. m. to 7 p. m	1 31 to 1 4	
Needlewomen	do	1 16	do	189 to 203	
Fine burlers	do	1 16	do	1 45 to 1 69	
Washers			do	1 97 to 2 3	
Fullers' hands	5 a.m. to 7 p.m	1 94	do	1 97 to 2 33	
Master fullers	do	3 88		5 89	
Nappers	do	2 18	6 a. m. to 7 p. m	1 60 to 1 75	
Master nappers				7 97 to 19 19	
Card-cleaners	5 a. m. to 7 p. m	1 1 121	6 a. m. to 7 p. m	189 to 203	
Dryers Shearers Shearers, (boys)	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		do	189	
Channe (hans)	o a. m. to / p. m	1 31 40 1 45	00	1 60 to 1 89 99 to 1 16	
Dispersion (Doys)	•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	do	175 to 189	
Brushers		4 05 10 7 07	·····uu ·······	4 85 to 7 27	
Man of Subsidies		4 03 W 1 %1	8 a m to 7 n -	1 75 to 1 89	
Prissers Pressmen			v = III. W (J. III	291	
Master pressmen				4 85 to 5 85	
Master presemen	Kam to 8n m	3 40 to 4 37		2 91 to 3 4	
Engine tenders	о ж ш. w о р. ш	0 10 10 1 31		2 91 to 3 40	
Engine-tenders Factory blacksmiths	8 a m to 7 n m	9 18 to 9 01		4 85 to 5 8	
E CUTUL Y WASTERDHILDUD	v == 111. W + D, 111			1 T W W J W	

^{*}Wolfers in the original; the English equivalent unknown.

Hours. Weekly wages. Hours. Weekly wages.		Тторра	au.	Bielits.		
Wool-sorters	Occupation.	Hours.		Hours.		
Master-shearers .do 7 7 Frizzers .do Pressmen .do 2 11 Master-pressmen .do 38 Stokers \$ 62 .do 26 Engine-tenders 6 a.m. to 6 p.m. 2 02 .do 31	Wool-sorters. Dyers	Variable	\$1 02 1 75 1 31 1 31 1 31 1 31 \$3 39 to 3 88 1 94 to 2 42 7 7 76 1 45 to 1 94 2 18 2 91 to 3 39 (e) 2 18 2 19 to 3 39 (f) 3 39 to 3 88 1 45 1 169 2 18 3 39 to 3 88 1 45	do do do m. to 6 p. m. 5 s. m. to 7 p. m. do do do do do do do do do do do do do	1 13 1 13 2 15 2 15 1 13 2 16 2 18 2 18 1 16 1 16 1 16 1 16 1 16 1 16 1 16 1	

^{*}Some of these occupations have not been translated, others probably not correctly rendered, owing to a want of technical knowledge on the part of the translator.

a Per 100 "strachne" warp and woof, according to fineness, 24 to 38 cents; strong yarn, 49 to 57 cents. A strachne is 1,760 Vienna ells, or 1,508 English yards.

b Per 100 strachne 2.7 to 14.5 cents, according to the fineness of the yarn.

PRAGUE, BOHEMIA.

This ancient city, the capital of Bohemia, possesses many industrial establishments of considerable importance; and it is to be regretted that a statement of the rates of wages in each branch of manufacture was not obtained.

MARKET-PRICES IN PRAGUE.

Statement showing the average market-prices of grain and other commodities in the city of Prague, during the year 1873.

Articles.	Valuein United States gold.	Articles.	Value in United States gold.
Wheat per bushel Rye do. Barley do. Oats do. Pease do. Beans do. Millet do. Buckwheat do. Indian corn do. Potatoes do.	\$2 06 1 43 1 18 65 1 47 2 27 2 58 1 37 1 53 46	Hay per owt Straw do. Beef per pound Wine per gallon Wood per cord Wool per cwt Laborers' wages, without board per day.	86 144 \$1 03 to 1 45 15 to 90 6 94 to 9 90 55 89 to 86 94

c Per 100 strachne 48 centa...d Per 100 strachne 10.7 cents.

Per 100 straehne 30 cents.

PRICES OF HOUSE-RENT IN PRAGUE.

	Percentage of the whole.		Percentage of the whole.
Up to \$46.20 From \$46.20 to \$92.40 From \$92.40 to \$138.60 From \$183.60 to \$184.80 From \$184.80 to \$231	6.14	From \$231 to \$462 From \$462 to \$924 From \$924 Total	7. 4 3. 4 1. 1

Average wages of a laborer in 1873, from 39 to 72 cents.

The following statement, translated from a report of the Chamber of Commerce of Lintz, on trade of Upper Austria, shows the rates of wages then paid to work-people employed in the various factories and industrial establishments in that year:

Daily wages in Upper Austria in 1870.

[The Austrian florin, subdivided into 100 kreutzer, is about equal to 48 cents, United States gold.]

Occupied in—	In Austrian currency.	In United States gold.
Cotton-spinneries Cotton-factories Wool-spinneries Woolen-factories Flax-yarn spinneries Adult males Children Linen-factories Glass-factories Paper-factories Printing and lithography Chemical and dys-stuff factories Flour-mills Shoe-blacking factories Porcelain-factories Cottonies Porcelain-factories Cottonies Cot	40 kreutser to 1½ florins 30 kreutser to 1.2 florins 35 kreutser to 1 florin 60 kreutser to 1 florin 55 to 60 kreutser 55 to 35 kreutser 50 kreutser 50 kreutser 50 kreutser 50 kreutser 50 kreutser 51 florins 50 kreutser 50 florin 50 kreutser 50 florin	16.3 to 28.8 cents. 12 to 16.3 cents. 21.6 to 24 cents. 21.6 to 24 cents. 14.4 cents to \$1.44. 19.2 to 73 cents. 31.2 to 38.4 cents. 16.3 to 48 cents. 19.2 to 72 cents. 38.6 to 96 cents. 24 to 43.2 cents. 33.6 to 48 cents. 12 to 48 cents.

^{*} Monthly wages, including board and lodging.

Average annual wages in Upper Austria in 1870.

	In Austrian	In United	Occupations.	In Austrian	In United
Occupations.	ourrency.	States gold.		currency.	States gold.
Awl-makers Armor-makers Tinsmiths Auger-makers Gunamiths Steel-tack makers Wire-drawers Workers in iron cooking-utensils. Workers in iron and steel articles. Braziers Tile-cutters Brass-founders Bell-founders	1171 221 100 118 130 2351 140 200 200 100	\$48 00 56 31 106 08 48 00 56 64 62 40 113 00 67 20 96 00 96 00 96 00 48 00 49 92 139 24	Cast-steel-file cutters	100 104 111 130 100 300 120 1021 104 1001 90	\$96 00 49 00 49 00 52 80 62 40 48 00 144 00 57 60 49 13 49 93 48 33 39 20 73 66

The first part of the foregoing statement shows that the daily wages paid for factory labor were sufficiently moderate, but the yearly wages of mechanics and other skilled workmen exhibit such low figures, even

for the year 1870, before the general rise in the price of labor, that some explanation is required. Either the sums named must have been paidin addition to board, or the men worked but a portion of the year.

From the following table, furnished to the author by the United States vice-consul at Trieste, it will be observed that the rates of wages in that sea-port, in 1873, were in excess of those in most other continental cities:

Rate of wages paid for mechanical labor in Trieste, Austria, in the year 1873.

Occupation.	Daily wages.	Occupation.	Daily wages.
Biacksmiths Brick-layers or masons. Cabinet-makers. Carpenters Coopers. Machinists Painters	1 00 *1 00 1 20 1 00 *2 00	Phaserers Shoemakers Stone-outters Tailors Tannere Tinsmiths Wheelwrights	1 00 1 00 *1 50 1 90 1 90

* And upward.

Although the above wages appear high, as compared with the rates paid in other European cities, yet the purchasing-power of the earnings of work-people is by no means great, as will appear from the prices of provisions and other necessary articles in Trieste, given in the following table:

PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, ETC.

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, and also of house rent, in the town of Trieste.

(Furnished by Mr. Visich, United States vice-consul.)

Articles.	Retail-prices in 1872.	Articles.	Retail-prices in 1872.
PROVISIONS.		GROCERIES, ETC.—Cont'd.	
Wheat, superfine	\$11.90 per barrel.	Coffee, Rio:	
Wheat, extra family.	\$12.80 per barrel.	Green	30 to 40 cents per pound.
Rve	\$6 per barrel.	Roasted	40 cents per pound.
Corn-meal	\$8.40 per barrel.	Sugar, good brown	12 cents per pound.
Beef, fresh:	Voice per surrou	Sirup	50 to 60 cents per galler.
Roasting-pieces	28 cents per pound.	Soap, common	9 cents per pound.
Soup-pieces	22 cents per pound.	Starch	10 cents per pound.
Rump-steaks	24 to 25 cents per pound.	Fuel:	
Veal:		Coal	\$12 to \$15 per ton.
Fore-quarters	28 cents per pound.	Wood, hard	\$3 to \$4.50 per cord.
Hind-quarters		Wood, pine	\$2 to \$3 per cord.
Cutlets	34 cents per pound.		
Mutton:	10 cents non nound	DOMESTIC DRY-GOODS, ETC.	
Fore-quarters Leg	12 cents per pound. 14 cents per pound.	Shirtings:	
Chops.	14 cents per pound.	Brown, 4-4, standard	
Pork:	14 conta per pount.	quality	10 to 15 cents per yard.
Fresh	20 cents per pound.	Bleached, 4-4, stand-	10 to 10 tona pa 3
Bacon	22 cents per pound.	ard quality	12 to 16 cents per yard.
Hams, smoked	50 cents per pound.	Sheetings:	
Shoulders		Brown, 9-8, standard	_
Sausages	30 to 50 cents per pound.	quality	10 to 12 cents per yard.
Lard	24 cents per pound.	Bleached, 9-8, stand-	
Butter	30 to 46 cents per pound.	ard quality	11 to 13 cents per yard.
Cheese	35 to 50 cents per pound.	Tickings, good quality	90 to 40 cents per yard.
Potatoes	\$1 per bushel.	Mousseline de laines	20 to 40 cents per yard.
Rice	6 to 9 cents per pound. 5 to 7 cents per quart.	Satinets, medium qual-	60 to 90 cents per yard.
Milk	6 to 10 cents per quart.	Boots, men's heavy	\$4 to \$6 per pair.
Eggs	12 to 15 cents per dozen.	Doors, mon a non y	As so do ber berr.
GROCERIES, ETC.	in to 10 octats per dozon.	HOUSE-REST.	
Tea, Oolong, or other		Four-roomed tenements.	\$1 to \$1.50 per month.
good black	80 cents per pound.	Six-roomed tenements	

In the following statement, translated from an official publication of Austria, published at Vienna in 1872, the measures and values are expressed in the respective standards of the United States :

Statement showing the price of provisions and fuel, and the daily wages of ordinary labor, in various parts of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, in the month of March, 1872.

Governmental districts and cities.	Beef.	Veal.	Pork.	Mutton.
Galicia:	Cents per lb.	Cents per lb.	Cents per lb.	Cents per lb.
Lemberg	14.8	11. 8 to 16. 6		
Tarnopol	9. 5	11.8	14.2	
Military Border:				,,
Olocae	11. 3	11.8	13.01	8.3
New Gradisca		11, 3	13. 01	8.3
Weisskirchen	14, 9	15. 4	17.8	
Moravia:		1		
Brünn	16.6 to 21.3	16.6 to 20.1	18.9 to 20.1	14. 2 to 17. 8
Kremaier	16.6 to 17.8	14.2 to 15.4	16.6 to 17.8	
Neutitechin		15.4	18.96	
Nikolaburg	17. 8	17.8	18.96	
Nikolsburg Olmüts	17.8 to 19.5	15.4 to 16.6	18.96	15. 4
Teltach	16.6 to 17.8	11.9 to 14.2	17.8 to 20.1	13 to 14.9
Silenia:	200 00 2000			
Zanernig	13 to 14.2	9.5 to 10.7	18.96	11.9 to 13
Bohemia:		0.0 00 20.0	24.00	22.0 00 10
Tabor	16 6 to 17 8	15.4 to 16.6	16 6 to 18 06	
Lower Austria:	10.0 00 11.0	10.4 00 10.0	10.0 00 10.00	••••••
Treismaner	17.8	17.8	17 0	•••••
		20.7	25.5	90.7
Vienna	10 0 40 00 1	92.5 to 41.5	90.1 to 21.3	14.9 to 15.4
Steiermark:	10. 9 00 20. 1	*** 2 10 4T' 2	#0.1 W AL. 3	12. % (O 10. 4
Gras.	17. 2	27. 5	23.7	13 to 15.4
Kaernten:	11.7	21.3	20.1	10 10 10, 4
Feldkirchen	14 9 40 14 9	15.4 to 16	17.8 to 18.96	10.7 to 11.8
Kappel		12.4 10 10	20.7	10.7 10 11.8
Klagenfurt	14 0 40 18 8	16.6 to 17.8	20. 1	11.8 to 13
Villach	14 9 40 15 4	15. 4 to 16. 6		11.8 10 13
Völkermarkt	14.3 (0 13.4	15. 4 to 16. 6		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Krain:	14. 6 10 10	13.4 10 10.0		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Laibach	0 8 4. 10 0	15 4 45 48 6		10 8 4- 11 0
	9.5 to 10.6	15.4 to 17.2	14.8 to 16	10.7 to 11.8
Upper Austria : Urfahr	10 0 4- 00 1	17 4 4- 10 0		
	16.6 to 20.1	15.4 to 17.8	17.8 to 90.1	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Tyrol:			40.004.004	
Bozen		14.8 to 16	18.96 to 90. 1	11.8 to 13
Meran	14.9 to 17.8	14.2 to 17.8		

	1 . :	l	Wood.		
Governmental districts and cities.	Lard.	Bread.	Hard.	Soft.	
Galicia :	Cents per lb.	Cents per lb.	Per cord.	Per cord.	
Lemberg		2.7 to 10.8	\$6 19 to \$7 90	\$5 10 to \$6 37	
Tarnopol		2.2 to 10.8	6 37	5 10	
Military Border:	1				
Olooae		9.5 to 10.7	3 06	2 01	
New Gradisca		3.6 to 5.9	3 06 to 4 08	2 04	
Weisskirchen	96.7		8 16 to 9 17	4 08 to 6 12	
Moravia :		1	7 00 4- 0 40	6 12 to 6 37	
Brünn Kremsier	28.4	4.1 to 5.3 3.6 to 10.7	7 90 to 8 46	4 58 to 5 61	
Neutitachin		5.3 to 13.6	6 12	4 33	
Nikolsburg		4.7 to 8.3	7 15	5 06	
Olmütz		5.9 to 10.7		4 59 to 4 84	
Teltach		3 to 8.3	5 60	3 81	
illegia :	****	0 00 00		001	
Zauernig	30.8	3 to 10.7	5 09	4 08 to 4 18	
Bohemia:	00.0	1			
Tabor	92.8 to 94	5.3 to 20.1		3 31 to 3 57	
Lower Austria :					
Treismauer	27.5	4.4 to 10.7	7 65	5 10	
Vienna	24. 3	. 	12 10 to 12 23	8 66	
Vienna-Neustadt	23.7 to 26	7.8 to 8.9	8 66	5 61	
Stelermark :					
_ Gras	23.7	4.1 to 7.7	7 15 to 8 16	5 61 to 6 63	
Kaernten:		l			
Feldkirchen		3.6 to 8.3	4 08 to 5 09	2 55 to 3 06	
Kappel	26.7 to 29.6	5.9 to 13	2 80 to 3 06	2 14 to 2 29	
Klagenfurt	26	3.6 to 9.5	2 29 to 2 50	1 84 to 1 99	
Villach Völkermarkt	27.5 to 29.6	4.1 to 9.5	3 06 to 4 08	2 90 2 29 to 3 06	
Voikermarkt	27.5	4.1 to 11.8	3 06 to 4 06	2 29 to 3 06	
Laibach	26 to 27.5	4.1 to 5.9	3 26 to 3 36	2 45 to 2 55	
Upper Austria.	20 10 31.5	4.1 W 3.8	3 20 10 3 30	245 00 4 55	
Urfahr	27.5	41 to 82	8 66 to 9 17	6 37	
Cyrol:	**	1 2 2 00 0 0	1 2 2 2 3 11	""	
Bozen	94 9 to 98	4.1 to 7.1	5 92	6 63	
Meran		4.1 to 7.7	7 15 to 8 16	4 84 to 5 06	
			1		

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Price of provisions and fuel, and the daily wages of ordinary labor, &c.—Continued.

Kremsler	Governmental districts and cities.	Coa	i.	Bı		n co:	al,			wages."				
Tarnopol Military Border: Olocae Weisekirchen Set to 9 60 Weisekirchen Set to 9 60 Weisekirchen Set to 9 60 Kremsier Neutttschin Neutttschin Set to 9 60 Weisekirchen Set to 9 60 Kremsier Telsch Set to 9 60 Weisekirchen Weisekirchen Weisekirchen Set to 9 60 Kremsier Weisekirchen												Cents	per	dey
Military Forder: Olocae 1 92 to 2 40 Weisekirchen 8 64 to 9 60 7 68 to 8 64 9 60 to 11 52 28.8 to 8 64 Moravia: 9 60 5 76 to 7 20 6 72 to 8 64 24 to 8 64 24 to 8 64 24 to 8 64 24 to 8 64 28.8 to 11 52 28.8 to 12 40 29.0 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 28.8 to 12 40 29.0 to 12 40 29.2 to				\$4	42 t	∞ \$ 4	80	13	84 1			28	. B t	
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Villach 5 95 14 40 to 17 28 33.6 to Völkermarkt 17 98 to 18 24 31.9 to Krain: 4 32 4 35 to 4 80 38.8 to												91		
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Meran 10 56 to 12 48 38.8 to														

^{*} For ordinary labor.

COST AND CONDITION OF LABOR IN AUSTRIA.

As the author was unable, from want of time, to visit Austria and make a personal investigation in regard to the cost and condition of labor in that empire, and as his efforts to obtain from consular and other original sources the necessary information were not attended with satisfactory results, he is under the necessity of drawing largely from the reports of the secretaries of legation and consuls of the British government. It is to be regretted that this information was not gathered by them at a later period than 1870, as in the following pages the rates of wages are given previous to the general advance in 1871 and 1872.

In the villages about Vienna there is a considerable number of weavers, who are also agricultural laborers; and in the mountainous woodlands of the Waldvientel, from Krems, on the Danube, northward to the Bohemian, and westward to the Upper Austrian frontier, the agricultural laborer, when field-work is slack, earns from 15 to 19 cents a day by weaving. These weavers are able to compete with the power-looms, in consequence of their extremely low wages and the coarse quality of the ware they produce, which cannot be made by machine-work. Considerable quantities of cloth-stuffs thus manufactured, and of very inferior quality, are not only consumed in Austria, but also exported at low prices to the Danubian Principalities and other parts of Turkey.

WAGES OF AGRICULTURAL LABOR.

In 1867 the average rate of wages of agricultural laborers in Austria was from 30 to 40 florins a year, (from \$14.40 to \$19.20,) of women, from 10 to 30 florins, (\$4.50 to \$14.40,) exclusive, however, of board and lodging, which is provided by the employer. But owing, probably, in part to the construction of railways, and in part to the general rise in prices, the rate of wages for agricultural labor has risen considerably throughout Austria during the last three years, and is still rising.

[†] Per metric ton of 1,000 kilograms.

PAYMENT OF WAGES IN MINES.

Every mine-contractor is bound by law to settle with his workmen, at least, quarterly. Whenever a workman is discharged he must be paid at once. No outstanding claim on the part of masters against men can legally invalidate or qualify the above-mentioned obligation.

The stoppage of a workman's wages by his employer for payment of debt contracted by the workman to a third person is illegal.

WORKING-HOURS.

In the steel-casting factories wages are paid by hundred-weight produced. In the iron and lead refineries wages are also paid by weight, and the average length of labor at the blast-furnaces is twelve hours per diem. At puddling the men only work six hours at a time, with long intervals of repose between the different loadings of the furnace. At the end of every six hours one set of workmen is relieved by another. A rest every twelve hours is allowed in welding and rolling. For engine-waiters, and workmen employed in the refining forges, the work is from eight to eight and a half hours for every four "lonpes" or blooms, with a quarter of an hour's rest between each bloom. The day's work in this department is reckoned at ten and a half or eleven hours on the average. Wire-drawers and benders, pin-makers, rollers and water-drawers, work for twelve hours, stopping for breakfast and dinner. Coal-workers get their breakfast and dinner-hour free when they work for twelve hours, but not when they only work for eight hours. The average length of the working-day, therefore, does not exceed ten and a half or eleven hours.

THE HOURS OF WORK, WAGES, AND INCREASE IN THE PRODUCTION OF WOVEN GOODS.

Work in the Austrian weaving establishments goes on throughout the whole year with the exception of Sundays, the church festivals, and certain national or local festivals.

The number of working-days, therefore, in most manufactories is about 300. The daily hours of work amount to twelve here and there, more especially in summer, to thirteen in other places, and in winter to ten or eleven.

The rate of wages varies according to the fluctuation of the average market price and the price of provisions in different districts. It adjusts itself further according to the description and sex of the laborer. In the year 1870 the daily wages of a laborer employed in the manufacture of textile fabrics, at their highest average, were as follows:

Districts.	Kreutzers.	U.S. censes.
Voralberg	60 50 40 to 45	38 tr 48 31 29 24 191 tr 22 26

Since then there has been everywhere an increase in wages, which amounts to and even exceeds 20 per cent.

With reference to the question of the increase of the produce of the loom in Austrian manufactories, no sufficient information can be given, because it is only latterly that statistical data have been collected on the advancement of industrial products. As far as can be gathered from them, the production of textile articles in Austrian establishments during the year 1870 are:

	Value—			
Articles.	In florins, (Austrian currency.)	In U. S. gold.		
Cotton fabrics Woolen fabrics Silk Ribbon, (lace-work and manufacture of borders) Linen manufactures: The portion produced in factories is small and amounts to	35, 000, 000 60, 000, 000 7, 000, 000 10, 000, 000 5, 000, 000	\$16, 800, 000 28, 800, 000 3, 360, 000 1, 800, 000		

The cotton manufactures in the years 1870 and 1871 show a remarkable increase, which is principally to be attributed to the cheaper price of raw materials, and to the interruption of French and German competition on account of the war.

Woolen manufactures have also considerably increased since 1866, on account of the requirements of the army, and the increased consumption of such goods in the in-

terior.

Since, however, the foreign, and especially the English, competition (favored by the lowering of the ægis and the duties on imported woolen manufactures) has made itself felt to the most wonderful extent, the condition of this branch of industry has become less favorable.

Latterly, indeed, these (being principally concentrated in and about Vienna) have been injuriously affected by the great increase of wages, and some branches of the business have been affected to such an extent as not to make any return.

The number of flax-yarn factories at work in 1870 amounted to 62, with 370,790

spindles.

The manufacture of linen, especially in Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia, is carried on principally by means of hand-looms. Spinning by machinery is being very slowly established. The number of machine-looms in use amounts to 346, of which 294 are in Silesia, 30 in Moravia, and 22 in Tyrol.

In Hungary there were in 1873 but four manufactories of textile fabrics, the highest average wages of male hands (at Losenz) being 38 cents, and the lowest, (at Käsmark,) 19 cents; of women, from 15 to 24 cents, and of children, from 9 to 15 cents, per day. Further quotations are made from the British consular reports, as follows:

FACTORY HANDS AND TRADE-WORKMEN.

Under this head there is a great deficiency of trustworthy official statistics. The following statements are based upon information collected from the Chambers of Commerce and Industry; and as they only refer to the larger establishments, they must not be regarded as a complete record of the condition of the working-classes employed. If the scanty statistics which are, as yet, the only ones accessible even to official inquiry, may be trusted, there are in Austria about 6,310,000 workmen. Of this number 17.2 per cent. (or £9,343) are provided with lodging by 493 employers. The mode of the provision made for their lodging is various; 1,348 workmen are lodged with their employers; 245 establishments provide free lodging only for married men; 37 establishments furnish comfortable lodgings for married men at a low rent; 15 establishments, employing 2,290, provide beds at a small weekly charge for 1,053 workmen, and beds free of all charge for unmarried workmen; 87 factories, employing 8,512 hands, provide lodging and beds, rent free, for unmarried men, partly in workmen's barracks, partly in separate cottages; 18 establishments give lodging to 60,000 workmen. Lodgings, rent free, for superintendents, are provided by 28 factories, employing 2,607 hands. Allowance for rent is given by two establishments, employing 60 workmen.

Some few establishments undertake the construction of houses, of which, by the annual payment of a small rent, the workman can gradually purchase the ownership. Most of the Austrian railway companies, it may here be mentioned, allow a discount on the price of railway-tickets for workmen. The Sudbahn, for instance, is very liberal in

this respect.

Board is wholly or partially provided by 379 establishments for 46,739 workmen, or about 13.7 per cent. of the whole working-class as above estimated. Many workmen are boarded entirely by their employers; others receive, for the cultivation of garden produce, &c., pieces of land rent free, or at a very trifling rent. In some factories food is distributed at wholesale prices to the hands; and in others, co-operative stores have been established by the workmen themselves. The capital for starting these stores is in many cases raised from loans advanced by the employers, or by the aick-relief fund, and they are generally supplied with store-room, and office buildings, free, on the premises of the factory. In some factories married men are supplied with food, and single men receive an allowance for board. In others, eating-houses are established, where a good dinner of soup, meat, and vegetables can be got at a very moderate price. For the kitchens of these eating-houses, the factories with which they are connected generally furnish the fuel, and sometimes the cooks. Many factories have their own baking-ovens, and some supply free rations of rice and potatoes to their hands.

Sick relief and compensations, &c.—Seven hundred and twenty-three establishments, employing altogether 141,764 hands, (about 40 per cent. of the whole working-class.)

Sick relief and compensations, fc.—Seven hundred and twenty-three establishments, employing altogether 141,764 hands, (about 40 per cent. of the whole working-class,) afford support, of one sort or other, to their hands in case of sickness, and compensation in case of accident or death. By 185 establishments (30,498 hands) the hospital fees for sick workmen are paid entirely. In five factories, 211 workmen, the expenses

for the care and cure of the sick are defrayed by the joint contribution of masters and In 496 factories (109,990 hands) relief societies and pension funds are established, to which the employers contribute a fixed sum, varying in amount from 12 florins to 420 florins per annum, in addition to a contribution of from 20 to 30 per cent. on the contributions of the workmen. The contributions of the workmen are graduated in proportion to their age and health, (on the life-insurance principle,) and vary from 1 proportion to their age and health, (on the life-insurance principle,) and vary from 1 to 7 per cent. of their wages. The majority of workmen pay only 1 or 2 per cent. Out of 64,000 hands, for instance, 16,000 are returned as paying 1 per cent., and 31,000 as paying 2 per cent. Those who pay only 1 per cent. receive, in case of sickness, medicine and medical attendance free; a small contribution to the burial expenses is also received by their families in case of death. Those who pay 2 per cent. receive, in addition to the above, support to the amount of half their wages, when they are on the circle wages, when they are on the weeks. More extended relief and other advantages can only be secured by contribu-tions at the rate of 3 or 4 per cent. to the relief-fund. Those factories in which the workman's contribution to this fund is fixed at 5 or 6 per cent., afford pensions and small annuities to widows, orphans, and permanent invalids. The relief-fund itself, however, is rarely if ever able to bear these expensive claims upon it; and the system is only maintained by extensive assistance on the part of employers.

In the government factory at Zeltwig, for instance, this annual assistance amounts to the thousandth part of the gross profits. And by the Suduahn engine-factory 1.60 per cent. of the annual wages is paid to the same account. In the chemical-factories, where labor is especially exposed to accident and loss of health, the rate is generally 7

per cent.

In the trades the care and cure of the sick is provided for by their respective "genos-Educational establishments for the working-classes have hitherto been insufficient in number and defective in quality. Seven factories support drawing-schools; fifteen support music-schools; thirty-nine afford gratuitous instruction in their own schools: thirty-one pay for schooling at the communal-schools; three factories pay only a certain annual sum to the communal-schools toward the education of the children connected with them. Sewing-schools for girls and nurseries for workmen's infants are numerous. They enable, wherever they are established, every respectable working-woman to place her infant where the greatest care is taken of it, without charge, during the time she is at work. Such an institution would be a godsend to many honest and hard-working English mothers.

As regards the education of the working-classes in Austria, there can be no reason-

able doubt that an immense and beneficent stimulus will have been given to it by the

recent school-bill already described.

Working-hours.—The statistics on this head are very incomplete. The average work-

ing day seems to be about twelve hours.

It must be remembered, in connection therewith, that the working-classes in Austria at present enjoy no less than seventy-six whole holidays in the course of the year; and in some of the provinces the number of holidays is greater.

SURVEY OF THE PRINCIPAL TRADES FROM A WORKING-CLASS POINT OF VIEW.

The great deficiency of official statistics on the subject here especially considered has obliged me to confine the following short survey of the principal trades established in Austria to the representation of those trades at Vienna.

Turners.—One of the most important trades here represented is that of the turners.

Its principal articles of manufacture are pipes and walking-sticks, &c.

The shoemakers number about 10,000 at Vienna. This trade, a very flourishing one, not only supplies all the Austrian and Hungarian markets, but also exports annually to the value of from 5,000,000 to 6,000,000 florins. One Vienna house alone exported in the course of last year the value of 400,000 francs. A good journeyman should earn as much as 2 florins (96 cents) a day. Piece-work is general in this trade.

Johners.—There are about 8,000 of them in Vienna, and the supply of labor in this

trade is considerably under the present demand, which within the last two or three years has been rapidly rising, in consequence of the great number of houses now building and furnishing at Vienna, and the large export of furniture to the principalities. The average rate of wages in this trade is from 2 florins 60 kreutzers to 3 florins (about

\$1.20 to \$1.44) a day for good workmen.

Tailors.—This trade is perhaps the most prosperous of all. During the civil war in the United States a great part of the Union army was supplied with clothing from Prague and Vienna. A little later a single Vienna firm provided clothing for the whole of the Egyptian army. Yet, in spite of these facts, the complaint is general that the Austrian army, in 1866, was very insufficiently clothed, although, at the same time, the Server army was provided with good and arm fail or the same time,

the Saxon army was provided with good and sufficient clothing by the Austrian tailors.

The circumstance complained of must be entirely attributed to the jobbing of contractors. In this trade, also, the supply of labor is below the demand. Several master

tailors of Pesth, and other towns, recently endeavored to engage at Vienna 2,000 journeymen workmen, but in despite of high offers they were unable to obtain half that The rate of wages in this trade is from two to three florins (96 cents to \$1.44) A system of piece-work carried on in this trade is very generally complained

of by all the most respectable workmen in it.

There are about 2,000 master tailors at Vienna, employing about 6,000 workmen and

apprentices. They have good markets in the principalities and along the Lower Danube. The capital of the Vienna tailors is about 400,000 florins, (\$192,000.)

Weavers.—There are about 10,000 silk, wool, cotton, shawl, ribbon, and lace weavers in the capital, residing chiefly in its western suburbs. Their average wages are low, and rarely exceed five florins (\$2,40) a week. Lately, however, the trade has improved, and the present wages of the Vienna ribbon-weavers average at about eight floring (\$3.84.)

Plumbers and lamp-makers.—With a considerable export market; average rate of

wages twenty florins (\$9.60) per week.

Smiths and iron-workers.—Supply of labor below demand; wages from two to three florins (96 cents to \$1.44) a day. The engine-factories of Messrs. Seigel, at Vienna and Wiever-Neustadt, (which last year exported fifty locomotives to Russia,) employ upward of 2,000 hands.

Carriage-builders.—Business brisk; good home-markets in Austria and Hungary. Considerable export to the principalities and Russia. Wages high.

Tanners.—Work heavy and wages low. A strike of the tanners for higher wages in 1866 was summarily settled by wholesale imprisonment, and many of the men emigrated. But within the last year the rate of wages has been somewhat pushed up by the determined resistance of all the men to the old rates.

Saw-grinders.—Men and masters together, this trade numbers about 1,200 representatives at Vienna. This year the men struck for higher wages, * * * which has had the effect of raising the rate of wages in the trade from four to five florins up to seven and eight florins (\$3.36 to \$3.84) a week.

Builders.—The rapidity with which houses are now being constructed at Vienna, to meet the wants of an enormously-increased population, has given an immense impetus to this trade. Although one establishment alone produces a million of bricks per diem, the supply of material is very inadequate to the demand, and the price of bricks is twenty-three florins (\$11.04) per thousand. The average rate of wages in this trade is, for a head workman, 62 cents a day; (the day's work being from 6 a. m. to 7 p. m.,) for an assistant workman, 48 cents, and for a woman 40 cents.

Brass, bronze, and German-silversmiths.—There are at Vienna about 900 workers in bronze; \$380 of them are married men. About 30 women are also employed in this trade. Of these 900, from \$2.88 to \$3.36 a week is earned by 200, from \$3.36 to \$4.32 a week by 500, and from \$4.32 to \$5.32 a week by 100. About 100 others earn by piece-work from \$3.36 to \$4.80 a week.

The German-silversmiths number 300 at Vienna. About 200 of them earn from \$2.88 to 3.36 a week, and the rest from \$3.36 to \$4.80 a week. The working-hours in this trade are from 6 a. m. to 6 p. m., with only one hour's rest for the day's meal. Many of the men work extra hours, at the rate of from 6 to 10 cents per hour. During the months from January to August, however, this trade is slack, and the masters then discharge the majority of their workmen. An unmarried workman cannot support himself at Vienna under 40 cents a day for board, at the rate of \$72 a year for lodging

and clothing.

Printers, setters, and type-founders, number at Vienna about 2,000 workmen, and from 700 to 800 apprentices. The apprentices, after two years' service, earn from 96 cents to \$1.92 a week, but cannot become workmen until after four years' apprenticeship. The workmen and apprentices have their own sick relief-fund, to which the monthly

subscription is 24 cents

The working-hours at the Vienna printing-offices are ten per diem, with extra wages for extra work. The men are now agitating for a reduction to nine hours. The average wages of a type-setter are from \$1.44 upward per diem. The number now employed at Vienna is 1,400.

Bakers.—Inferior workmen only earn about 72 cents a week, and head workmen about \$1.68 a week in this trade.

RAGUSA.

The following is condensed from a report made by Mr. Paton, British consul at Ragusa, under date of February 12, 1872:

The chief cause of the miserable state of the agricultural laborer, and also of the embarrassed state of the proprietor, is the inequality of the olive-crop—one year most abundant, and then for two or three years not covering the expense of culture. In the good years, occasional olive-plantation labor is, relatively speaking, not ill paid, the

laborer receiving from 24 to 30 cents a day, without food; but when permanently em-

ployed not more than 10 or 12 cents a day, with food.

The following are the present rates of wages of the town-operative class in Ragusa:

Workmen employed in the manufacture of the thick woolen long-pile blanket receive about 24 cents a day, without food. Hatters receive a little more; hoe-makers, about

The pay of a tiuman, a plain house-painter, or a plumber is 32 cents; shoemakers earn from 24 to 28 cents; women who sew on the elastic part with the machine receive

16 cents; barbers, tailors, and smiths, mostly natives, earn 30 cents per day.

Among the more highly-paid work-people are boatmen, who, if they own a boat, make 40 to 48 cents per day. Masons and carpenters are also paid about 48 cents a day. Skilled apothecaries earn about 84 cents per day; street-porters about 20 cents. worst-remunerated condition is that of the seamstresses, who do not make more than 12 cents per day; but a female dressmaker earns 24 cents. The best-paid artisans are jewelers, who receive from 60 to 72 cents per day.

CONDITION OF AUSTRIAN INDUSTRY.

Since this page was first but in type the following information has been furnished by Hon. Philip Sidney Post, consul general of the United States at Vienna:

During the years between 1867 and 1873, Austria enjoyed a high degree of industrial prosperity, but the year 1872 was characterized by extraordinary speculations, consequent upon the acquisition of most of the industrial establishments of the country by banks and joint-stock companies. In 1873 came a monetary crisis which deranged the entire industry of the country. In some branches of production there is still (August, 1875) the greatest distress. At Brunn the weavers, a particularly ill-paid class, whose condition has recently been rendered worse by the introduction of new machinery and an increase in the cost of living, have been on strike for several months, and a large body of military has been required to preserve the peace. The iron-industry of Vienna is now generally paralyzed. The railways are economizing and few orders are given. In the great works of the Staatsbahn, where in 1872 good workmen received from \$3.36 to \$4.80 per day, none are now paid more than \$1.44, and it is feared that the establishment will close entirely.

The workmen, attracted in good times to the manufacturing centers, are sent back in times of distress to the districts in which they were born or had acquired a residence,

these districts being chargeable for their support.

HABITS AND CONDITION OF WORK-PEOPLE IN AUSTRIA.

The improvidence of the Austrian workmen is illustrated in the result of an effort to increase the production of pearl buttons, the demand for which in Austria has long exceeded the supply. An increase of wages produced an effect directly contrary to the one anticipated, for the men finding it possible to live by three days work per week, instead of the five to which they had been accustomed, devoted the other two days to recreation. The people are industrious, but fond of amusement, and few of them work as energetically as do persons of their class in England or America, though when not interrupted by the numerous holidays observed here, they are usually steady and methodical in their labor. They all drink beer or wine, but there is no such thing as intemperance in the American sense, and cases of drunkenness, if they occur, must be rare indeed.

In the large cities house-rent is high, and the houses of the workmen are far from comfortable. In Vienna the state and municipal tax on rent approaches 50 per cent. of the rent paid. It was a fraction over 42 per cent. last year. The enhancement of prices consequent upon an excessive paper currency has not been attended with a proportional increase of wages, and the laboring classes are now in a suffering condition even when employed, while the unemployed are dependent upon public assistance in

the districts to which they belong.

Extract from the Baltimore American of June 29, 1873:

All the most menial work in Vienna is done by women, such as cleaning and sweepand carrying inortar in buckets, and handling the brick used in building. There are, no doubt, many thousands of them to-day doing this species of laboring-work in Vienna. They are of all ages, young, middle-aged, and old; but all seem to be strong and healthy. The wages are one florin (48 cents) per day.

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LABOR IN SWITZERLAND.

The various industries of this little state, which, in its mountain home, has for nearly six centuries preserved its judependence, are of deep interest to the citizens of a newer but more widely extended republic. It is to be regretted that the labor of so worthy and industrious a people should have received so inadequate a reward, for in few parts of Europe have the earnings of the working people been so poorly paid. These low rates of wages have induced a comparatively large emigration, chiefly to the United States.* where the rewards of industry were moré abundant.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The manufactures of Switzerland, which to any considerable extent find a market in the United States, are chiefly confined to two, viz, silk goods and watches.

The following table, which gives the value of the principal articles of Swiss production which were exported into the United States in the decade from 1864 to 1873, is translated from a statement published by the Statistical Bureau of Switzerland:

Statement showing the exports from Switzerland to the United States in the ten years from 1864 to 1873, inclusive.

Articles.	1964.	1965,	1966.	1867.	1968.
Silk, and manufactures of	\$4, 963, 126 321, 230	\$5, 744, 240 832, 436	\$6, 194, 491 1, 008, 793	\$3, 669, 594 397, 474	\$4, 133, 531 242, 367
Embroideries	68, 694	220, 785	631, 047	615, 047	594, 775
Braiding straw and horse-hair	157, 307	296, 631	620,060	474, 319	409, 987
Watches and parts of		2, 203, 881	2, 553, 215	2, 020, 672	2, 041, 597
Music-boxes	14, 134 47, 107	21, 138	58, 501	51,713	67, 667
Leather	4, 314	95, 525	138, 525 21, 623	161, 391 30, 563	906, 990 42, 506
Sundries	36, 081	94, 774	214, 216	235, 058	316, 349
Total	7, 965, 045	9, 509, 410	11, 440, 471	7, 655, 761	8, 054, 974
Articles.	, 1869.	1870.	1871.	1879.	1873.
Silk, and manufactures of	85, 567, 812	\$6, 989, 733	\$8, 370, 963	\$7, 948, 384	\$5, 976, 981
Tissues of cotton and wool		232, 996	385, 027	516, 414	579, 998
Embroideries	759, 857	1, 357, 669	2, 007, 288	2, 230, 949	2, 116, 397
Braiding straw, and horse-hair	546, 539	757, 392	605, 805	258, 326	430, 879
Watches and parts of	9, 597, 903 50, 454	3, 219, 872 66, 524	3, 335, 699 68, 374	3, 570, 940 86, 161	2, 545, 539 84, 547
Cheese	247, 341	304, 280	329, 223	434, 697	403, 961
Leather	8, 698	113, 525	136, 768	87, 141	83, 109
Sundries	998, 664	451, 108	492, 687	366, 504	263, 498
Total	10, 516, 629	13, 493, 099	15, 731, 757	15, 498, 816	11, 776, 404

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	1831–1840	4. 821
	1841–1850	4 644
	1851-1860	95,011
	1861-1870	93 839
Year	1871	9 894
A COLL	1872	A 031
	1979	9 993
	1074	0, 496
	1012	z, 400

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The following statement, compiled from the records of the United States Bureau of Statistics, shows the values of the principal articles which were imported from Switzerland during the fiscal year 1874, and the countries through whose ports the various commodities reached the United States:

Statement of imports (indirect) from Switzerland into the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1874.

Commodities. Quant	ities. Values.
FREE OF DUTY.	
Bolting-cloths	\$133, 7
Books, &c	
Chemicals dvas &o	7,0
Horse-hair used for weaving	1.110 1.4
Silk raw do	2,658 23,4
Horse-hair used for weavingpounds Bilk, rawdo All other articles not elsewhere specified	2,6
Total	166, 6
DUTIABLE.	i
Books, &c	32.8
Brass, and manufactures of	12.5
Buttons of all kinds	1.5
Themicals	6,5
Clothing	
Cotton manufactures	2, 653, 8
Fancy goods	9.3
Flax manufactures	20.1
Hass-ware	5.0
Hair manufactures	68, 6
ron and steel manufactures	
lewelry	97, 5
	9,800 80,0
manufactures of	9,1
Husical instruments	
Paintings, &c	8, 9
Precious stones	30, 0
Provisions	396, 7
Silk manufactures	4, 504, 1
Straw manufactures	362, 2
Watches	2, 066, 6
Wine and spirits	6, 1
Wood manufactures	11, 8
Wool manufactures	
with opingly weathers hot sissanders abscilled	1,7
Total dutiable	10, 424, 1
Total free of duty	166, 6
Total imports.	10, 590, 7

The above imports into the United States from Switzerland were made through the ports of—

Belgium	1, 488, 452 972
Total	10, 590, 796

WATCH-MAKING.

Although the exports of silk manufactures exceed in value those of watches, yet the latter industry is more widely extended, and of more advantage to the country, in consequence of the employment which it affords to the people, especially to women and children. Geneva and Locle are celebrated for the extent of the products of watches, but the

principal seat of the industry is at Chaux de Fond, which is the largest settlement where watch-making is carried on. In the valleys of the canton of Neuchâtel (in which this town is situated) you will hardly pass a farm-house without seeing one or more windows designed to let

light fall upon a workman's bench.

The statement above presented gives the value of watches and watch-materials which were exported to the United States during a decade; but the value of the whole annual production of Switzerland is stated to be \$17,600,000. It must be borne in mind that this is but the original cost of manufacture, without the addition of profit or duty. Indeed, the exports consist largely of watch-movements, and, therefore, afford but an inadequate idea of the value of Swiss watches to the wearers, after gold and silver cases have been supplied, and the various dealers and the government have imposed their respective tariffs. The following is the estimated production of watches:

Estimated comparative production of watches in the principal manufacturing countries.

Countries.	Number of watches.	Value.
Switzerland France	1, 400, 000 300, 000 900, 000	\$17, 650, 660 3, 300, 660
England United States.	900, 000 100, 000	3, 900, 600 1, 500, 609
Total	2, 900, 000	25, 680, 600

From the general census of Switzerland of December 1, 1870, and the report of Dr. Hirsch on the industry of watches at the Vienna Exposition, the following information is obtained:

Number of laborers in the manufacture of watches in Switzerland, by cantons and sur.

Cantone.	Males.	Fornales.	Total.
Neuchátel Berne Vaud Goneva.	11, 081 9, 302 9, 439 2, 330	5, 383 4, 743 1, 313 1, 288	16, 464 14, 135 3, 732 3, 619
Total	25, 242	19, 797	27, 900

Dependent on these 27,969 persons are about 47,000, making (in a round total) 75,000 persons living from the industry of watches in Switzerland.

RATES OF WAGES.

As the author was unable to visit the manufacturing towns of Switzerland, and make personal inquiries in regard to the cost and condition of labor therein, he is able only to present such limited data in that regard as has been recently furnished by the consuls of the United States. For less recent but more full information he has drawn largely from the British consular reports.

Owing to the varied sources of information, it is impossible to make the same classification as has been made in the case of Germany and

other countries.

MECHANICAL AND FARM LABOR.

The figures in the following tables were furnished by the United States consuls of the districts indicated, in November, 1873.

Rate of wages paid for mechanical labor in Chaux de Fond, Zurich, and Balse, Switzerland, in the year 1873.

Occupation.	Chaux de Fonds.	Zurich.	Basle.
SKILLED WORKMEN, BY THE DAY ONLY.	\$1.50		\$0 G0
Blacksmiths Bricklayers or masons Cabinet-makers. Carpenters	75 1 00	\$1 00 90 90 90	76 60 1 00
Coopers	1 20 1 00	\$1 00 to 1 25 90 1 00	1 20 73 80
Shoemakers Stone-cutters Tailors Tamore	75 1 00 80	70 1 90 80 60	70 90 60 70
Tinemiths	80	60 80	70 70
For workmen, per week, October, 1873	9 50 1 75	2 00 to 3 00 1 50 to 2 00	•••••

Rate of wages paid for farm-labor in Basle, Zurich, and Chaux de Fond, Switzerland, in the year 1873.

Occupation.	Daily wages in Basie, with board.	Daily wages in Chaux de Fond, with board.	Daily wages in Chaux de Fond, without board.	Yearly wages in Zurich, with beard.
FARM-LABORERS. Experienced hands in summer Experienced hands in winter Ordinary hands in summer Ordinary hands in winter Common laborers at other than farm-work	\$0 40 24 32 20	\$ 0 45	\$ 0 75	\$120 to \$160 100 to 120
Common laborers at other than farm-work	40 16		\$ 0 50 to 65	50 to 60

WAGES IN A SILK-RIBBON FACTORY.

Mr. Consul Erni forwards the following statement of the rates of wages paid in 1873 by Messrs. Fichter & Sons, manufacturers of ribbons at Basle:

Various inferior work done by girls from fourteen to fifteen years Ribbon finishers or cleaners, girls from fourteen to twenty years Work by the piece:	\$1 40 to \$2 00 1 80 to 2 40
Silk-winding, women and girls	3 20 to 5 00

WAGES AND COST OF SUBSISTENCE.

The following letter from Mr. Consul Byers, dated Zurich, March 29, 1873, accompanying a statement of wages in 1873, and the prices of

Per week.

articles of subsistence at different periods since 1800, affords some indication of the condition of the laboring classes:

SIR: In accordance with your request, I have made out a schedule of prices for the leading articles of subsistence at this city during the different decades of the last seventy years. I also include present wages paid workmen here. The wages paid now are proportionately larger than the prices paid for provisions seventy years ago. The workmen's houses are good, built of stone usually, but are poorly ventilated, and often crowded with many families in a house. The distinction made here between common laborers, mechanics, &c., and the upper or non-laboring classes, is one not easily realized by an American. A gulf extends between the consumer and the producer. The simple truth of the matter is, the workingman lives very poorly here, as in Germany. He works ten hours a day, with one hour's rest at noon, and has, until since the labor "strikes," been very poorly paid. The prices shown in the table, as well as the wages mentioned, are those of to-day in Zurich, and not of yesterday.

Poor pay and poor living, as a rule, have not tended to make the best or the most rapid workmen. The dress of the working-classes is tolerably good. Many holidays

Poor pay and poor living, as a rule, have not tended to make the best or the most rapid workmen. The dress of the working-classes is tolerably good. Many holidays are allowed, and this is a relief, of course, to the usual hum-drum life led by a commen workingman. Much wine and beer is used by all classes, especially the lower, who make up in quantity what is lacking (and there is a good deal) in quality. Drunkenness does not, I think, prevail among the working-classes as much here as in America or in England, but tipsiness is not always the exception. Since the great battle between capital and labor has commenced, the condition of the workingman of Switzerland has been visibly, and I trust permanently, improved. One of the greatest influences at work here in behalf of the poorer classes, is placing authentic information in the hands of the people in regard to the opportunities that await industry and honest labor in the New World, and I hold it to be a religious, as well as an official, duty of our consuls and diplomatic officials abroad, to scatter the truth regarding our country to the people here in Europe whenever opportunity is to be had. The accompanying table will give an idea of the workingman's living earnings in Zurich, all of which are rapidly increasing.

Daily wages of mechanics.

			nts.	1	Cer	
Machinists	. •60 t	to	80	Stonemasons	90 to	100
Tinners			60	Bricklayers		90
				Saddlers		60
				Shoemakers		
Cabinet-makers	. 80 t	to	90			

First-class engravers and good jewelers earn much higher wages, reaching sometimes from \$1.20 to \$2.40 and even \$3 per day. Common laborers earn from 40 cents to 60 cents a day. In silk establishments and cotton spinning mills, &c., a large number of women are employed who earn daily from 30 cents to 40 cents. Number of working hours, ten a day, with one hour's rest at noon. Rent for one floor of four to five rooms for working-people from \$80 to \$120 per year.

Statement of prices of articles of subsistence in Switzerland from the year 1800 to the present time.

[The franc computed in U.S. coin at 20 cents]

Year.	Two pounds of bread.	One pound of beef.	One pound of butter.	One quart of milk.	One pound of potatoes.
1825 1850	5 3-5 cents 6 3-5 cents	5 1-5 cents 5 4-5 cents	13 cents	1 4-5 cents 4 4-5 cents	3 3-5 cents

Flour, 6 cents a pound; sugar, 11 cents a pound; cheese, 18 cents a pound; beer, 3 cents a glass; pork, 17 cents a pound; ham, 24 cents a pound; veal, 20 cents a pound; wine, 10 cents a bottle.

INCREASE IN EXPENSES OF LIVING.

The following is an extract from a pamphlet by Mr. A. Chatelant of the statistical bureau at Berne:

The increase of expenses of living in Switzerland was a constantly progressive one from the year 1840 up to the year 1850, and not an irregular augmentation. The total difference now amounts to from 75 to 100 per cent., as will be proved by the following statement, showing the percentage of rise in the price of each single article:

	Percentage of increase.
Brown breadper pound.	
White breaddodo	
Middling white breaddodo	. 31.2
Vealdodo	
Mutton	
Beefdodo	
Bacondodo	
Date /live hore)	. 49.2 . 54.5
Pork, (live hoga)dodo	. 61.6
Butter in bulkdodo	. 64.2
Larddodo	
Potatoes, (white)	. 40
Detection (willto)	. 46.3
Potatoes, (red) do	
Eggsper piece.	
Sweet applesper piece.	
Sour applesdodo	
Sliced dried applesdodo	
Sliced dried pearsdodo	. 21.9 . 86.7
Peasedo	
Beansdo	
Oatmealdo	
Cheese	. OU 10 90
Milkthe measure of 4 pounds (Swiss "mass").	. 166.6

The price of foreign provisions increased in nearly the same or even at a higher ratio than those of home production, as appears from the statistical price-lists of Hamburg: Domontom

	of inc	rease.
Wine		120.2
Coffee	••••	71.9
Sugar		14.7
Tobacco		54.3
Rve-flour		139.3
Beechen fire-wood		101,6
Fire-wood of pine		
Coal		50

And there was also a great augmentation in the prices of clothing, shoes, house-rent, light, washing, taxes, and medicine.

In the period from 1861 to 1872, the general increase in the expenses of living was from 35 to 45 per cent., and of provisions from 30 to 40 per cent. Mr. Chatelant arrives at the conclusion that in the cities of Berne and Basle, (expenses at Zurich and Geneva are fully as high,) an income of from 3,500 to 4,000 francs (\$700 to \$800) barely furnishes a tolerable existence without any aspirations as to comfort or any savings for time of need.

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PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, ETC.

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, also of house-rest and board, in the manufacturing towns of Basle, Zurich, and Chaux de Fond.

	Basle		Zur	ich.		nz de nd.	Bvorpgo.
Articles.	Retail price	s in—	Retail p	rices in—	Re	tail s in—	ral ave
	1872.	1873.	1872.	1873.	1872.	1873.	General
PROVISIONS.						i	
Flour, wheat, super per bbl. Flour, wheat, ex. familydo Flour, ryedo Corn mealdo	\$9 00 10 00 6 00 6 00	\$6 00 6 40 5 60	*\$0 06 <u>1</u> *06 *05	* 80 07 *06 <u>1</u> *05 *04	05° 05° 04°	₹0 05° 04° 04°	
Doef fresh reset non-nound	1 15	18	16 16 16	18	18 18	95	14
Beef, fresh, soup pieces. do. Beef, fresh, rump steaks. do. Beef, corned do. Veal, fore-quarters. do. Veal, bind-quarters. do. Veal cutlets. do. Matter fore-quarters. do.	15 16	20 20	10 19 19	18 21 21	18	20	184 164 174 18.84
Matten les	18 14 15	23 17	19 13 13	21 14 14	17 18 18	99 20 20 25	194 16 17
Mutton-chops do. Pork, fresh do. Pork, corned or salted do. Pork, bacon do. Pork, bams, smoked do.	15 14 21	18	13 14 13	14 17	1년 항공 25	\$5 \$5 25	17 17 21
Pork, bacondo Pork, hams, smokeddo Pork, shouldersdo Pork, sausagedo	26 14	18 28	18	24 28 26	25 25 25		20 रा
Lard. do. Codfish, dry. do. Butter do. Cheese do.	13 04 25	25 24 26	19 26	16 10 30	25 25	25	19 07 274
Cheese do. Potatoes per bushel Rice per pound	13 to 18 95 05 to 06	24 *013 06	16 1 10 06	20 *01 06	20 50 06	18 50	19 74
Beans do do Milk per quart Egge per dosen	04 to 05 034 36	06 06 20	04 05 18	03 03 20	08 05 18	06 06 20	05 1 04 5
GROCERIES, ETC.							
Tea. Oolong, or other good blackper pound.	1 20 19 to 20	24	1 44 25	1 00 24 to 28	1 00 20	1 00	1 16 25
Coffee, Rio, green do. Coffee, Rio, roasted do. Singar, good brown do. Singar, yellow do. Sugar, coffee do. Mulasses do.	13 13	30 13 02	20	32 14 14	24 12 10	19	924 19.8 11.6
		104	12 16 16	10	10 09 08	12 06 10	11 101 111
Soap, common do Starch do Fuel, coal per ton. Fuel, wood, hard per cord.	08 to 09 08 to 09	08 08 8 50	0 0 10	07 08	10 10	08 18	903 104 8 50
Fuel, wood, hardper cord. Fuel, wood, pinedo Oil, coalper gallon.	8 00 96	8 00 96		9 00 5 60	10 00 7 00	8 00	9 90 6 87
DOMESTIC DRY GOODS, ETC.				i e			
Shirting, brown, 4-4, standard quality per yard. Shirting, bleached, 4-4, stand-	21 to 24	1	23	24	20	20	22
quality per yard. Shirting, bleached, 4-4, standard quality per yard. Sheeting, brown, 9-8, standard quality per yard.	39	39 30	31 38	91	24 98	24 23	31.4
Sheeting, bleached, 9-8 stand- ard quality per yard. Cotton fiannel, medium quali-	37 to 40						384
ty per yard. Tickings, good qualitydo Printsdo	76 19 to 22	76 19 to 22	67 24	221	50 20	 50 90	73 50 214
Monsseline de laines do Satinets, medium quality do Boots, men's, heavy do	15 to 45 45	15 to 45 45	25 29 5 00		50 5 00	50 50	201 42.8

^{*}Per pound.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, ETC.

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, &c.—Coutinued.

	Basle.			Zurich. Retail prices in—							Chaux de Fond. Retail prices in—				атегаде.								
Articles.	Retail prices in—																						
		10	372		•	18	73.		1	.879	L.				187	73.		18	372.	18	73.		General
HOUSE-RENTS.																							
Four-roomed tenements, per month		••		•		\$ 13							1					1		\$14		1	
monthBOARD.	\$10	(40	то	12	w	20	00			`	y	50	*	w	to	10	00		00	10	50	12	33
For men, (mechanics or other workmen) per week. For women employed in fac-	1	70	to		-		89	1				28	1				00	1	00	2	50	9	30
toriesper week.				1	3 0	1	50	1	33	to	1	52	1	40	to	2	00	2	50	1	75	1	66

EXPENDITURES OF WORKINGMEN'S FAMILIES.

Table showing the income and expenditures of the families of five workmen in Basle, Switzer-land, in the year 1872.

[Furnished by Professor H. Kinkelin, of Basle.]

		:	Family—		
	I. Ribbon-weaver, wife, and four chil- dren.	II. Silk-ribbon weaver, wife, three children, and one female serv- ant.	III. Mechanic, wife, and two children.	1V. Founder in ma- chine-shop, wife, and three children.	V. Carpenter in ma- chine-shop, wife, and two children.
Weekly earnings: Man	\$5.88 % 88	\$5 60 5 20	\$5 70 2 40	\$7 39 40	\$6 60 1 80
TotalTutal, say 52 weeks	8 76 455 52	10 80 561 60	8 10 421 20	7 72 401 44	8 40 430 80
Weekly expenditures: Flour and bread	60 40	1 48 48 39	90 1 09 40	1 11 1 12 28	1 12 56 22
Cheese Sugar Milk Coffee, and substitutes	10 1 00 20	11 1 26 24 12	20 11 70 24 10	11 53 20 09	13 48 92 12
Soap, starch. Salt, pepper, vinegar, olive-oil	20 54 14 40	08 80 12 28	10 50 24 1 40	06 52 13 84	08 40 20 24
Other articles Total Total for 52 weeks	5 00 260 00	5 56 289 12	6 28 326 56	4 99 259 48	3 93 204 36
Annual expenditures: Coal and wood Rent of house School and church Clothing and shoes	60 00 10 00 58 00	24 60 68 00 6 00 52 00 60	14 00 52 00 50 00 2 14	18 00 60 00 1 80 66 00 2 05	20 00 52 00 3 00 30 00 1 65
Total	409 80	459 72	444 70	407 33	311 0

REMARKS BY PROFESSOR KINKELIN.

Family I. The weekly earning of the husband, as workingman in the factory, is only \$2.80. He makes about \$140 during the year, by extra work. The mother earns her money by cleaning two school-houses. To the expenses must be counted \$10 for insurance of the family in a society for relief during sickness, &c.

Family II. The mother works also as ribbon-weaver. Husband and wife work in

the same factory

Family III. The mother works as ribbon-weaver: the husband as mechanic. It is believed that the expenses are given very high, and the earnings too small. The husband has given his earnings as \$4.20, but his employer gives it positively as \$5.70.

Family IV. It is not known at what the wife works.

Family V. One child works in the ribbon-factory. Boots, &c., worth about \$20, are

not included.

In families III, IV, and V, the weekly earning of the husband is given by the employers, calculated from the months of June, July, and August, 1872.

The expenses as well as the earnings are not at all times the same as given, but

sufficiently accurate for comparative statements.

Concerning the expenses of the five families, I wish to state that the first estimate was given to me by the husband of the family in question; the second one was made

by a competent and experienced man; the same as to the three others.

I regard the same as good as can be made. An account of expenses is seldom kept by workingmen. (An exception seems to be family IV.) They use the money as long as they have any. With little money they use little; with more money they live better.

Mr. Consul Byers, under date of Zurich, October 16, 1873, in transmitting a statement giving the cost of provisions and other articles of subsistence, and another of the expenses of a family of five persons, makes the following remarks:

In the list of the weekly expenses of a teacher's family of five persons, the average is about the same as for workingmen, and shows plainly that the income is less than the expenses. There are cases authentically reported showing that an industrious workingman cannot, even with the help of his wife's hands, earn nearly the amount required for the common necessaries of life, not to mention such a thing as luxuries. The figures were exactly these: Earnings of man and wife, 1,700 francs; expenses of the family, 2,212 francs. These figures tell the simple tale for Switzerland, and no amount of fine-spun theories and loose assertions can alter them; they are there, and the workingman knows them to be sober and fearful facts.

The rates of wages now paid in Switzerland to all kinds of workingmen are very much higher than they ever were before. I might add that house-rent is continually on the increase, and the tenements that are rented at the prices stated, 15 to 20 francs (\$3 to \$4) per month, are by no means over-comfortable or pleasantly and

healthfully situated

RATES OF WAGES AND COST OF SUBSISTENCE.

Average rates of daily wages in the cotton, flax, wool and silk factories of the canton of St. Gall, Switzerland.

[Condensed from the British consular reports.]

	Men.	Women.	Children.
COTTON. Wadding factory.	Cents. 32 to 60	Cents.	Cents.
Cotton, thread, and knitting-yarn factory Spinning-mills Mechanical spooling and twisting mills		22 to 30	14 15 to 90
Ordinary hand-weaving mills: 1. Plain stuffs. 2. Cheokered-weaving mills	13 to 50 18 to 50	12 to 36	
3. Figured-weaving mills. Jacquard-loom weaving mills. Power-loom weaving mills: 1. Plain stuffs.	22 to 60	94 to — 15 to 40 24 to 36	7 to — 15 to 16
2. Checkered stuffs Stocking and hosiery weaving mills Hand embroidery Mechanical embroidery	40 to 50	30 to 40	14 to 20
Mechanical embroidery	38 to 80 20 to 30	20 to 40	19 to 25

RATES OF WAGES AND COST OF SUBSISTENCE-Continued.

	Men.	Women.	Children.
Spinning-mills	Cents. 54 to 54 16 to 40	Oents. 97 to — 10 to 40	Cents. 90 to — 10 to 30
Spinning-mills	20 to 30	20 to -	
Spinning and throwing mills Weaving mills: a Stuffs. b Ribbons c Pocket handkerchiefs. d Half-silks. SINGEING, BLEACHING, DYEING, AND PRINTING.	20 to 50 50 60	20 to 24 16 to 30	10 to 14 6 to 20
Singeing	40 to 60 30 to 60 36 to 59 36 to 50	30 to — 20 to 32 28 to 36	
of broché goods: By hand By machine	10 to 39 40 to 55	12 to 36	

NOTE .- The franc computed at 20 cents United States coin.

Average daily rates of wages in various industrial establishments in the canton of St. Gall.

Extraction of metals and manufacture of hardware—	Cents.
Copper and lead mines	40
Iron mines	
Forges and smelting-furnaces	
Iron-works	
Founderies—gray pig-iron, men	
children	20
soft pig-iron	52
metal casting	
Engine factories, men	
children	
Machine-shops, men	
Arms factories	
Cooking-utensils and stove-factories	40 to 44
Grinding and filing down	38 to 60
Wire, tack, and nail factories	34 to 60
Wire-mills	40
······································	
Preparation of minerals and other substances for scientific, industrial, and military purposes—	
Lime-kilns, men	40 to 60
children	12 to 20
Brick-kiln, potteries, and drain-pipe factories, men	30 to 50
children	20 to 22
Powder-mills, men	100
Glass-manufactories	. 60
Gas-works	48
Color-factories	40
Lucifer-match factories	40
Chemical laboratories	30 to 60
VALUE INVESTMENT OF THE PROPERTY OF THE PROPER	55 10 00

Factories of surgical and optical instruments	50 to 70
Tool-factories	60 40
Threshing-machine factories	36 to 40
Furniture-factories	72
Preparation of vegetable and animal substances for industrial purposes—	
Oil-mills	
Tan-mills	
Hemp-crushing mills Frame-saw mills and parqueteric factorics	24
Frame-saw mills and parqueterie factories	40 to 70
Reed-makers, men women	24 to 30
Bone-mills, men	40 to 50
Tanneries	30 to 60
Brush-factories	34
Starch Dyed and varnished leather factories	40 to 44
Ull-cloth and waxed paper isctories	40
Waxed goods factories	40
Straw-hat factories	30
Printing-establishments, &c.—	
Printers, men	
womenchildren	20 20
Lithographers, men	50 to 80
children	20
Photographers, men	40 to 50
Paper, wooden, and hardware manufactories—	
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	50 to 60
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	50 to 60 16 to 20 40
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40 40
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40 40
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40 40 50 40 to 60
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40 40 50 40 to 60 50
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40 40 50 40 to 60
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40 50 40 to 60 30 to 50
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40 40 50 40 to 60 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 20 to 40 20
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40 50 40 to 60 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 20 to 40 34
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men. Maize straw-paper factories, men. women Carpet and stained paper factories, men. Playing-card factories. Window-blind factories. Bone-turning mills. Wood-carving factories. Gold-band factories. Articles of consumption— In corn-mills. In manufactories of Italian pastes, men. women children Chiccory-factories, men women children	16 to 20 40 40 40 40 50 40 to 60 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 20 to 40 20 34 14
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40 50 40 to 60 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 20 to 40 20 34 18 18 14
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 20 40 40 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 20 to 40 20 31 18 14 40 36 to 60 40 to 60
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 40 40 40 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 20 to 40 20 34 14 40 36 to 60 35 to 80
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 40 40 40 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 20 to 40 20 34 18 18 14 40 36 to 80 40 to 60 31 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 40 40 40 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 20 to 40 20 34 14 40 36 to 60 35 to 80
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men	16 to 20 40 40 40 40 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 20 to 40 20 34 18 18 14 40 36 to 80 40 to 60 31 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81
Paper-mills, paper and pasteboard factories, men. Maize straw-paper factories, men. women Carpet and stained paper factories, men. Playing-card factories Window-blind factories Bone-turning mills Wood-carving factories Gold-band factories Articles of consumption— In corn-mills In manufactories of Italian pastes, men women children Chiccory-factories, men women children Mustard-factories, men Breweries Distilleries Tobacco and cigar factories, men women children	16 to 20 40 40 40 40 50 40 to 60 30 to 50 20 to 40 20 34 18 18 14 40 36 to 80 40 to 60 31 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81 81

LABOR IN SWITZERLAND.

A 1 10 111 111 1111	04 4- 40
Agricultural laborers, men Day-laborers Men engaged in breaking up ground	24 to 40
Day-laborers	20 to 40
Men engaged in breaking up ground	40 to 50
Mowers	60 to 70
	80 to 100
Printers	46 to 60
Bookbinders	40 to 50
Watchmakers	20 to 36
Mechanics	20 to 40
Tailors	40 to 50
Shoemakers	30 to 56
Saddlers	20 to 60
Locksmiths	40 to 70
Smiths	28 to 50
Joiners	40 to 60
Tanners	20 to 36
Gardeners	36 to 60
Bakers	22 to 28
Millers	40 to 60
Cartwrights	30 to 42
Tinkers	36 to 60
Gunsmiths	80 to 120
Cooks, men, engaged by the year	20
women, for 250 days	žš
Seamstresses	20 to 22
Milliners	20 to 22
Masons	20 to 56
Washerwomen	36
Washer would be a second back and a second s	20 20
Head waiters engaged by the year	
Waiters	20
Chambermaids	20
Parlor-maids	20
Hostlers	20
Maid-servants	8 to 10
Carpenters	40 to 56
Stone-cutters	50 to 60

CANTON OF GENEVA.

Occupation.	Average wages per week.	House-rent per week.	Living per week.
Working jewelers, (men). Working jewelers, (women). Tinkers Potters. Saddlers. Coopers Bakers Butchers Joiners. Joiners. Joiners. Jouneymen tailors Hair-dressers and barbers Locksmiths Gilders. Watchmakers, (men) Watchmakers, (women) Bookbinders. Gunsmiths Cabinet-makers Unusedensel	\$6 60 4 30 2 76 3 124 \$2 36 2 64 3 360 2 40 2 40 3 360 3 60 3 360 3 60 4 32 4 56 3 36 3 36 3 36 3 36 3 36 3 36 3 36 3	**************************************	\$2 80 \$2 00 \$2 25 \$2 \$2 \$2 \$2 \$2 \$2 \$2 \$2 \$2 \$2 \$2 \$2 \$2
LithographersBlacksmiths	3 fi0 3 24	69 69	2 25 2 25

^{*} Employed seven days per week.

CANTON OF APPENZELL.

Occupation.	Average wages per week.	House-rent per week.	Living per per week.
Saddlers	. \$2 52	\$0 32	\$1.4
Coopers		32	1 1
Bakers		32	1 4
Butchers		32	1 4
Joiners	2 40	32	1 4
Tailors		32	1 4
Tinkers	2 76	32	1 4
Silk-factories, (men)		32	1 4
Silk-factories, (women)		23	1 1
Ribbon-factories, (men)		32	14
Ribbon-factories, (women)		23	1 1
Yarn-factories, (men)	3 84	32	14
Yarn-factories, (women)	1 92	23	1 1 1
Wool-factories, (men)	. 360	32	1 4
Wool-factories, (women)	1 1 68	23	11

^{*} Employed seven days per week.

CANTON OF BERNE.

Average rate of wages of the working-classes, with and without board.

Occupation.	Average wages per week.	Occupation.	Average wages per week.
WITH BOARD AND LODGING.		Cabinet-makers	\$3.6
Working watchmakers	*\$1 39	Plasterers	
	1 19	House-decorators	
Coopers	4 00	Smiths.	33
Brewers	1 40		
hoemakers		Locksmiths	33
ardeners	†1 85	Toolsmiths	
Barbers	†1 07		
Curners	1 00	Brass-founders	
ortera	2 40	Founders	
Office-porters	2 52	Tinmen	
Bakers		Engravers	4 5
Butchers	1 49	Lithographers	4 :
arm-servants	80	Lithographers	3 7
Vomen-servants	63 30	Compositors	3 (
	•	Printers	3 6
WITHOUT BOARD AND LODGING.		Bookbinders	
		Goldsmiths	4 9
fasons	3 00		3 1
Foremen	\$4 20 to 4 80		3 9
Stone-cutters	3 00	Sadulers	
Foremen	Up to 4 80	Potters	
		Cartwrights	
Carpenters			
	Up to 4 80	Photographers, operators	
oiners	3 00	Photographers, assistants	3 1

^{*} Provide their own tools. ‡ Work on Sundays.

NOTE.—The above artisans often earn more by piecework.

Table showing the average prices of provisions and fuel in the canton of Berne.

		Cents
Bread, rye mixed with wheat	per Swiss pound $= 1.103$	\$0.04
Beef, first quality	dodo	13
Beef, second quality		
Veal	dodo	13
Pork		19
Potatoes.		6
Butter		20
Suet		18
Lard		18
Pine-wood		5 80
Beech	do	9 20
Turf		5 00

[†] Engaged by the mouth. § Per month.

Table showing the quality, quantity, and average prices of provisions	con-
sumed per week by an ordinary day-laborer's family at Berne, consi	stina
of 8 persons—2 adults and 6 children.	ovvy
• -	
Bread, 8.823 pounds English per day, at 4 cents per pound	\$ 2 24
Milk, 48 imperial pints per day	67
Coffee, 1.103 pounds English per week Coffee made of chiccory, ("sparkaffee,") a small packet per week	20 2
Coffee agence of	3
Coffee, essence of. Flour, 1 pound per week, at 5 cents per pound Meat, 1 pound Swiss, (about once a month,) of lean bacon, at 18 cents	5
Mest. 1 pound Swiss. (about once a month.) of lean bacon, at 18 cents	4
Potatoes, 104 imperial quarters per month	22
Potatoes, 104 imperial quarters per month Cabbage, made into sauer-kraut	4
Lard	20
Salt 3 cents; iruits and vegetables, 10 cents	13
Total	4 04
Amount disbursed by the same family for house rent, fuel, taxes, and	rar i -
ous other necessary household expenses during the year.	
	9 90 00
Rent for one large room for the whole family, and part use of a kitchen	\$30 00 18 25
Fuel to warm the room in winter—one large cart-load of turf	5 00
Lighting, during the winter months, a pint of oil per week, at 10 cents	2 60
Lighting, during the winter months, a pint of oil per week, at 10 cents Municipal gas rates Blacking, one small box, per month, at 4 cents; soap and matches, 3 cents	40
Blacking, one small box, per month, at 4 cents; soap and matches, 3 cents	84
School-books and slates for children attending school, per annum	4 00
Breakage, thread, needles, &c., per annum Soap, washing done at home, (1 Swiss pound,) 9 cents per week	3 00
Pig's grease for boots and shoes, 1 Swiss pound, 20 cents per week	4 68 2 40
- 11g 8 grease for boote and shoes, I Swiss pound, 20 cents per month	2 40
Total	71 17
Table showing the annual average expenditure for clothing of an ord	
	inary
workingman.	inary
workingman.	
workingman. Coat, price \$6, usually lasts three years	\$ 2 00
workingman. Coat, price \$6, usually lasts three years	\$2 00 1 40
workingman. Coat, price \$6, usually lasts three years Waistcoat, price \$1.40, usually losts one year Trowsers, price \$2.80 to \$3 Shirt, price \$5 cents: two required every year	\$ 2 00
workingman. Coat, price \$6, usually lasts three years. Waistcoat, price \$1.40, usually losts one year Trowsers, price \$2.80 to \$3. Shirt, price \$5 cents; two required every year Stockings, cotton, price 40 cents, usually last one year.	\$2 00 1 40 2 90
workingman. Coat, price \$6, usually lasts three years. Waistcoat, price \$1.40, usually losts one year Trowsers, price \$2.80 to \$3. Shirt, price \$5 cents; two required every year Stockings, cotton, price 40 cents, usually last one year.	\$2 00 1 40 2 90 1 70
workingman. Coat, price \$6, usually lasts three years Waistcoat, price \$1.40, usually lasts one year Trowsers, price \$2.80 to \$3 Shirt, price \$5 cents; two required every year Stockings, cotton, price \$0 cents, usually last one year Stockings, woolen, price \$1, usually last one year Boots, price \$2.20, usually last one year, require being twice resoled, extra ex-	\$2 00 1 40 2 90 1 70 40 1 00
workingman. Coat, price \$6, usually lasts three years Waistcoat, price \$1.40, usually lasts one year Trowsers, price \$2.80 to \$3 Shirt, price \$5 cents; two required every year Stockings, cotton, price \$0 cents, usually last one year Stockings, woolen, price \$1, usually last one year Boots, price \$2.20, usually last one year, require being twice resoled, extra ex-	\$2 00 1 40 2 90 1 70 40 1 00 3 60
corkingman. Coat, price \$6, usually lasts three years. Waistcoat, price \$1.40, usually losts one year Trowsers, price \$2.80 to \$3. Shirt, price \$5 cents; two required every year Stockings, cotton, price 40 cents, usually last one year. Stockings, woolen, price \$1, usually last one year. Boots, price \$2.20, usually last one year, require being twice resoled, extra expense \$1.40. Shoes, price 80 cents, usually last one year, resoled four times, extra, 68 cents.	\$2 00 1 40 2 90 1 70 40 1 00 3 60 1 48
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Stockings, woolen, price 50 cents, two required every year. Underclothing, price 42 cents, usually worn one year. Jacket, price \$1.60, usually worn two years. Neckerchief, price 60 cents, usually worn one year. Bonnet, price \$1, usually worn four years. Gloves, price 30 cents, usually worn two years. Shawl, price 40 cents, usually worn ten years. Comb, price 14 cents, usually worn one year. Shoes, price \$1.80, usually worn one year, but require being twice resoled; extra expense \$1.12. Shoes, price 60 cents, usually last one year, but require being resoled six times, extra expense, 92 cents. Pocket-handkerchief, price 12 cents, two required per year. Under-waistcoat, usually wears one year Hood, price 60 cents, usually worn two years	1 00 42 80 60 25 15 4 14 2 92 1 52 42 30
Total	18 90
Table showing the average annual cost of clothing for a boy under 1 longing to the working-class.	4, bo-
Coat, cotton-warp linen, price, including lining, 90 cents, make, and accessories, 50 cents, one required per aunum. Waistcoat of the same material, one usually lasts a year. Trowsers, of the same material, \$1.10 each, three pairs per annum. Shirt, cotton, 50 cents each, two per annum. Stockings, cotton, at 20 cents, two pairs per annum. Stockings, woolen, at 50 cents per pair, two pairs per annum. Shoes, at \$1 to \$1.40 per pair, resoling them twice a year, 44 cents each time. Neck-tie Cap, woolen. Pocket-handkerchief, 8 cents each, two per annum. Braces, 12 cents per pair, one per annum.	\$1 40 70 3 30 1 00 40 1 00 2 28 20 32 16 12
Total	10 89

CONDITION OF THE WORKING-CLASSES.

There is no establishment in Switzerland where workmen can obtain cheap clothing, at least at all commensurate with the small price of other necessaries. This is, no doubt, a singular omission in a country pre-eminently distinguished for its associations organized with a view of ameliorating the condition of the working-classes, and dispensing charity generally. On the other hand, there are to be found in nearly every town and village public fountains and washing apparatus, protected by roofing, where linen can be washed with ease, and at little or no cost.

If it be a matter of importance to the workman to obtain food at moderate rates, it is of no less consequence to him to find cheap lodging, for the necessity of paying rent is one of the severest, if not the heaviest load by which his finances are oppressed.

A society for erecting improved dwellings for the industrial classes was founded at Lausanne in 1860, with a capital of \$40,000. Another more recently, with a capital of \$60,000, at Geneva, where the charge for a single room and kitchen amounts to \$30 a year, and the rent of a kitchen, which can be let separately, is as low as \$2 a month. Again, at Neuchâtel, another society has erected a considerable number of lodging-houses, and proposes to build others for the working-classes. The apartments are grouped in fours, with a common entrance, two apartments being on the ground-floor, and two on the first floor. Each lodger has his own garden, and the rent paid is very moderate.

As in other manufacturing countries, certain occupations are more prejudicial than others to the industrial classes. Domiciliary labor, too, so prevalent throughout the confederation, and which at first sight would appear to have a favorable effect in a sanitary sense on the operative, has not all the advantages it is generally held to possess. It produces the evil effects of too sedentary a life, and also entails constant application to work subjected to no direct control. The manufacture of watches, both in this respect, and as regards the strain on the eyesight, is considered to be one of the most injurious occupations, although the authorities have everywhere taken the best precautionary measures, both to protect the workman, as far as possible, from its attendant evils, and to prevent children from being employed in this trade at too early an age-

In the glass-blowing works, also, men are exposed to a very high temperature, and to long night-watches, both of which are very prejudicial to health, especially in the Valais and Bemeze Jura. In the potteries situated at Horgen, in the canton of Zurich, a particular disease is prevalent, called the "lead" colic. Again, wherever the straw-plaiting establishments most abound—in Fribourg and Ousernone especially—the workman is subject to a disabling affection at the extremity of the fingers, in consequence of his being repeatedly obliged to dip the hands in cold water, and keep them wet. In the northeast of Switzerland, where industry is most developed, the injury to health, resulting from manufactures, is naturally excessive. The only exception is to be found at Schaffhausen, where there are large iron and steel founderies, and where machinery, wagons, arms, and watch-cases, &c., are largely manufactured. In the dyeing-works generally, especially in those where Turkey-red is much used, certain operations necessary in the process of drying require a high degree of heat, which is held to be fattal to the lungs. In the cotton-printing establishments there is not sufficient ventilation to counteract the dangerous exhalations, arising from the coloring-substances in use. Cotton-spinning, moreover, produces a fine dust, which attacks the respiratory organs, and is found very injurious to health in Switzerland; while weavers, who mostly work in cellars or on the ground-floor, are subject to diseases of the lungs, produced by damp.

In Switzerland agriculture is carried on to the greatest perfection that the climate and soil of such a country will allow. By means of trenches and sluices, water is conveyed from the mountains to any required point; extreme care is taken to economize and render available the manure obtained from their herds, and great judgment is shown in the culture of the different kinds of soil. Even apparently sterile and unavailable slopes are made use of, mold being carried up from below and spread upon them in the form of terraces. The use of animal labor in agricultural operations is not extensive, chiefly owing to the rugged surface of the country; and nearly everything is done by hand. The grain-crops are inferior in quantity, but the pasturage is extremely good, and its bright verdure such as to render it a distinguishing feature of the country. The vine is cultivated in several localities, and some of the wines produced are of a very good quality. The cultivation of tobacco is undergoing great development, especially in the northern part of Vaud, which yields a cheap, though rather indifferent produce. The domestic economy of a Swiss country household is very simple; from their land and cattle they can supply nearly the whole of their wants, and the profits of their dairy afford them the small sums of money they require. The quantity of timber at present exported exceeds \$430,000 in value, but this must ultimately have a very bad effect on the country, as it is so far beyond the rate of growth.

In 1861 an association was formed at Berne for the purpose of erecting workingmen's dwellings, with a capital of \$60,000. It has constructed houses containing sixty-eight separate tenements, twenty-eight of which consist of only one room, a kitchen and its dependencies, with a garden attached, at a rent of \$30, and the remainder at from \$49 to \$55 each per annum. A second society was started at the capital in the course of the same year on a more extended scale, since its resources represent a fund of \$200,000, although the shares are not all paid up. It has built some forty houses, also divided into tenements, for which an annual rent (in round numbers) of \$40 for each apartment is demanded. In the accounts hitherto given of the provision made for lodging the working-classes, those dwellings only have been mentioned which are constructed for married men and their families settled in particular districts, since this class of workmen, having the first claim on public solicitude, has naturally received the greatest share of public attention. But there are two other classes of operatives, the unmarried and the itinerant workmen, which must not be forgotten, and which, indeed, well deserve to be included among the objects of those philanthropic exertions which we have just been considering. It is to be feared that, as a rule, both fare ill in Switzerland as regards lodging, their hardships in this respect being mainly caused by the circumstance that they have no other resources to look to but those which flow from their daily wages. Yet it cannot be said that charity is not largely extended to these less fortunate members of the industrial classes. The itinerant workmen frequently and gratuitous accommodation in some public institution, such as the "Hospital des Bourgeois" at Berne and the old hospital at Stanz. Throughout the communes, in the canton of Neuchâtel, beds are at his disposal free of charge. At the railway junction at Olten, he is provided with food as well as with a bed for one night. Many other instances of similar hospitality might be cited. All operatives are, moreover, very considerate to each other, and are sure to give a hearty welcome to their itinerant fellow-laborers, in the fullest sense of the term.

The International Workingmen's Association is particularly active at Lausanne, and has accomplished important practical results, such as finding labor, organizing clubs, banks, &c., for its members. Omission must not be made of the society of "Grütli,"

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which, though of a more political character than the foregoing, is exclusively Swiss, and while constantly discussing the problem of "capital vs. labor," (for the reason that a large majority of its members are laboring men,) and whose political character is closely allied to the question of labor, exercises, by its principles and popularity, wholesome influence over the laboring classes.

This association has founded many important institutions, such as societies of mutual support, savings-banks, cheap eating-houses, &c., and erected various resorts for in-

struction and amusement.

There are also other societies, purely religious, both Protestant and Roman Catholic, exercising special supervision over the education and well-being of the operative class Similar results have been experienced in other countries, and led to the creation of the International Congresses of Brussels, Frankfort, and London. The Genevese "Society of Public Utility" early recognized the importance of the suggestions proposed at these congresses, and with a view to avert the evils of localization, and for the general dissemination of knowledge, have founded a library of 2,000 volumes on social questions, comprising many books not found in other collections. All these various philanthropic efforts to ameliorate the condition of the Swiss population at large, and of the operative in particular, meet with valuable aid from the native employers. A purely democratic spirit prevails, in this regard, among employers and employed. The employer would not be considered by his subordinates, or even by himself, as entirely capable to conduct the affairs of his establishment, had he not in his younger days ascended, step by step, the ladder which brought him up from a room-sweeper to the level of the most skilled in the trade. In Glarus, which may be considered a model canton as regards the relations between proprietor and employés, and where a third of the population consists of operatives, the communes encourage every new enterprise, superintend the schools and local libraries, and, in critical periods, find labor, provide soup-kitchens, and buy provisions for the purpose of reselling them at cost price to their distressed workmen. At Olten, in the canton of Soleure, where the company of the Great Central Railway gives employment to 700 workmen, we find perhaps the most striking example of the prosperous condition of the operative in Switzerland. While the rate of wages is higher in the company's works than in the factories situated in other cantons, the hours of labor are limited to from ten and a half to eleven hours. In case of sickness the operative is always certain of being kindly cared for; or if high prices prevail, prompt measures are taken to relieve his distress. Cases of ill behavior have never been known to occur at Olten. The operatives are much attached to each other, and look upon the director of the works in the light of a father rather than a master.

The laws of Switzerland oblige every Swiss to attend the "primary" schools for a certain number of years; and it may be said here, the government has now under consideration, also, a law regulating the hours of labor.

So wide-spread, however, is education in Switzerland that every commune has its

schools, and absence from these institutions is exceedingly rare. Generally speaking, the laws oblige them to commence attendance at the age of six or seven, and they are bound not to leave the primary school until they are fifteen or sixteen. The law which requires that children should attend the primary schools virtually imposes an obligation on the state, or, more correctly, on the communes, of endowing numerous schools throughout the country. These institutions are of a first-rate character, both as regards system and management. It is generally allowed that the primary schools offer a solid basis to the education of the people. The industrial classes here as elsewhere are better educated than the agricultural population; but on the whole few countries can boast of so general a diffusion of knowledge throughout the masses as is met with in Switzerland. What are called "industrial" schools are also very considerable in number. There the subjects of study include drawing, modeling, calculation, (especially in its application to industry and commerce,) German, French, the elements of geometry, chemistry, and physics. There are many such institutions in the cantons of Geneva, Vaud, Neuchâtel, Berne, Lucerne, Zurich, Tessin, St. Gall, &c. At Lugano gratuitous instruction is given in the application of chemistry to art and industry. Various other institutions of a like nature are found in different parts of Switzerland, testifying to the general interest taken in the education of the artisan and industrial classes. Lectures on scientific, historical, and social subjects are given in the different cantons with beneficial results. The Swiss operative undergoes his apprenticeship either under parental supervision at home or more frequently under the eye of his employer. Whenever any new branch of industry is introduced a number of apprentice schools are immediately instituted. Among other numerous examples we find in the carton are immediately instituted. Among other numerous examples, we find in the canton of Tessin a school where silk-weaving is taught. At Fribourg and Geneva there are institutions where apprentices receive instruction in plaining straw, &c. But clock and watch making, demanding prolonged and difficult studies, is perhaps the branch of trade, above all others, in which the practical education of the apprentice is carried to the highest pitch of perfection. Schools have been founded for this purpose at Geneva, Chaux de Fond, and Locle, the establishments at the two former places being municipal institutions, and the latter exclusively for the poor. The watch and clock institutions at Chaux de Fond was founded as recently as 1864. Instruction is given to pupils either devoting themselves exclusively to watch and clock making or to workmen desiring to receive finishing lessons in any particular handicraft. They are, however, obliged to satisfy the examiners that their previous studies in other schools have been sufficiently complete. Prizes are given and certificates of general capacity on leaving the establishment.

The following from another source affords information of an interesting character in regard to the condition of the working-people of Switzerland:

Perhans the Swiss artisan is the most fortunately situated of all the continental workingmen. This is the result of various causes. "In most countries," observes Mr. A. G. G. Bonar, "the laboring classes are, as a rule, wholly dependent for their means of existence upon that one department of labor in which circumstances have individually placed them, and are, therefore, exposed to the disastrous results of whatever fluctuations may affect it. In Switzerland, this is happily so far from being the case that it may almost be said to constitute the exception. The peasant, when not actively engaged in agricultural pursuits, finds useful and profitable occupation in a hundred different ways, from felling timber on the mountains to making portions of the complicated and delicate works of watches. The artisan, likewise in his leisure moments, or when unable to find work, cultivates the small plots of ground which he often owns, while his wife, and even his children, after school-hours, contribute more ress directly to the support of the family." The Swiss is never ashamed of work, and if it be not obtainable in his own country he will seek it in others. Combined with this love of labor is to be found an habitual thriftiness which enables the Swiss workman, although in receipt of lower wages than are to be obtained in many other countries, to save money, and even enjoy a state of comparative ease. Were the English artisans, with their high rates of wages and abundant means of employment, to display anything like the economical propensities of their Swiss brethren, the whole social condition of the industrial classes in England would become completely revolutionized. That low wages necessarily mean poverty and suffering is refuted by the example of the Swiss. With wages frequently lower than those of a Dorsetshire peasant, he contrives, by the smallness of his wants, his indomitable thrift, and dislike of idleness, to acquire a more independent position than is possessed by many of our best-remunerated workmen.

In the history of the Swiss working-classes we have a significant view of the value of education, if not carried too far. There are comparatively few Swiss who cannot read or write, and not unfrequently we find the artisan rising to the post of manager, and from thence to that of partner or employer, by reason of the educational advantages possessed by him. From his earliest childhood principles of the strictest economy are instilled in his mind, and the habit of saving encouraged by every possible means. He understands the industrial value of education, and, consequently, never omits an opportunity of extending his knowledge. While our artisans are wasting their time and money at a public house, the Swiss workman is busy with hand or brain preparing for the contingencies of the future. Compared with the wages obtainable in England the average earnings of the Swiss workmen must appear very low. In the canton of Zurich, for instance, they range from 17 cents to 96 cents per day, the number of working-hours being from 12 to 14. In the various cotton and silk factories the rate of wages is far below those obtainable in Lancashire and Warwickshire, although the quality of the labor is scarcely a whit inferior. In the canton of Basle unskilled hands in the silk-trade obtain about \$1.56 per week, while first-class dyers average \$4.84. Like the Germans, the Swiss have successfully adopted the principles of co-operation, extending their application to productive purposes, but the liberality with which most employers treat their workmen—a circumstance which renders strikes almost unknown in Switzerland—tends to retard any extensive development of the latter class of co-operative associations.

Owing to the excellent system of education among the Swiss, and their frugal and industrious habits, the workingman has many advantages over his fellow-competitors in other lands. To provide the Swiss workingman with the means of spending his leisure hours pleasantly, and perhaps usefully, is the self-imposed task of numerous societies, not a few of which are founded by workmen themselves. Under their auspices local circulating-libraries have been formed in many parts of the country, even in some of the most secluded rural communes, the works of which they are composed being carefully selected in order that they may suit the taste and position of those for whom they are more particularly intended. In 1866 the canton of Geneva already possessed forty-three of these libraries, with 39,000 volumes, and that of Lucerne forty-one. The number in the remaining cantons has not yet been ascertained. There are also numerous other public libraries, containing works of a much higher class, as well as museums in all the principal towns. Almanacs, reviews, and

newspapers are likewise published for the special use of the working classes, and many of the daily papers give out on Sundays an extra sheet with the object of affording them additional reading matter. Lectures on the social and political questions of the day and other attractive subjects are frequently given, not only in the great centers of population, but also in the remote communes, where, in the absence of regular lecturers, the village clergyman or schoolmaster, and sometimes even ordinary workmen, undertake this task. There are innumerable workingmen's associations which have some regular place of meeting, where books, periodicals, games, and refreshments are provided for the members, whose time is chiefly engaged in debating, getting up dramatic performances, and acquiring a knowledge of modern languages, book-keeping, drawing, arithmetic, history, &c. Much attention is also devoted to music, both vocal and instrumental, as a means of innocent recreation, singing being taught in all the primary schools. There is hardly a village which does not possess one or more choral societies, and in many cases a brass band. The rural districts of the canton of Lucerse may be cited as an example of the general taste for music, the beneficial effects of which cannot be too highly appreciated. In this little strip of territory there are no less than sixteen principal choral societies, seventeen musical societies, thirteen theatical societies, and twenty-five brass bands. Lenzberg, a town of 2,000 inhabitants, could some years back, boast of possessing two hundred pianos. In obscure village dramatic performances are sometimes given by the peasants themselves. In some parts of Switzerland pageants are periodically got up at considerable expense to commemorate some event of extraordinary interest in the local annals. Rifle matches and athletic sports are common throughout the country. All classes without distinction take part in these pastimes.

The following is an extract from a letter to the Boston Daily Advertiser, dated at Zurich:

THE SWISS WOMEN.

There is sad enough need of the elevation of women even in Switzerland. One hundred women climb each day to the splendid buildings which overlook the city of Zurich, the first fountain of learning in the republic; one thousand women toll from sunrise till late evening in the narrow lanes below, dragging heavy hand-carts, staggering under large burdens balanced upon their heads, sawing wood, or gathering the refuse from the streets with basket and shovel; in short, performing the most menial service that the lowest class of male laborers are condemned to do in America. I have often seen two slender women sawing oak and ash wood in the street while a stout fellow stood by leisurely splitting the same sticks. One poor old creature the other day sat upon the curb-stone holding her saw reversed between her knees, and in utter weakness was rubbing the stick of wood upon it to saw it in two.

LABOR IN ITALY.

In this ancient and renowned country there are few if any manufactures which enter into competition with similar branches in the United States. The following statement shows the kind and value of the products of that kingdom which found a market in the United States in the year indicated:

Statement showing the quantities and values of imports into the United States from Italy during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1874.

	Dir	ect.	Indirect.		
Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
Argols pounds	l	\$132, 356 16, 173 5, 498	917, 584	\$35, 964 1, 169	
Hides and skins		58, 557			
Fixed	35, 335	5, 170 169, 573 141, 334 1, 473, 267	6, 091	32, 239 14, 464	
Silk, raw pounds.	30, 302, 421	20, 280	2, 524	21, 223	
Salphur, cradetons Other articles, (principally tropical fruits, including	40, 897	1, 241, 740			
olivea)		2, 373, 461		211, 186	
Total free of duty		5, 637, 409		315, 538	
Books, &c	1, 482	3, 603 2, 065 580, 377	589	3, 220 834 45, 855	
Fancy goods		10, 349 847, 990		14, 234 114, 499	
Hair, human Hemp, raw tons	244	1, 600 50, 450 1, 137	181	18, 598 40, 461 26, 999	
ntair, numan Hemp, raw tons Jewelry Leather of all kinds pounds Glovee dosen pairs Marble and manufactures of	4, 940	3, 993 538, 088	57, 838		
Oils: Olive, saladgallonsgallonsdo	94, 637 29, 260	38, 933 20, 982	4, 336 490	5, 066 407	
Olive, not salad	68, 570	913, 000 150, 679	13, 397	42, 985 25, 865	
Provisions	53, 541, 474	11, 275 42, 613 178, 857		4, 530 583, 197	
Wine: In casksgallons. In bottlesdosen Wood, manufactures of	66, 556 3, 053	93, 435 7, 375 99, 346	5, 978 38	4, 709 119 7, 259	
W col, raw pounds	46, 691	5, 837 107, 601	52, 779	7, 239 11, 876 42, 424	
Total dutiable		9, 861, 885 5, 637, 409		1, 190, 834 315, 538	
Total imports		8, 499, 294		1, 506, 372	
The indirect imports came through the ports of— Belgium		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		3, 309	
France Germany England				593, 214 14, 502 627, 536	
Scotland				67, 483 22 306	
Total				1, 506, 375	

EMIGRATION FROM ITALY.

The people of Italy, like those of the other Latin nations, are, as a rule, disinclined to emigrate. The following shows the total immigration into the United States from Italy during the past fifty-four years, aggregating but 47,409 in more than half a century. Nor were these all immigrants, as the figures in the table for the years previous to 1870 denote alies passengers, many of whom afterward returned to their native land.

Emigration from Italy by decades, from 1820 to 1870, and by years since 1870.

Years.	Number.	Years.	Number.
1820 to 1830	7, 019 19, 781	1879. 1873. 1874. Total in 54 years.	

RATE OF WAGES.

The following statements, in regard to the cost of labor in Italy previous to 1872, are taken from an official report on the state of the leading branches of industry, which was made in the year 1865:

Iron-mines.—Number of mines worked, 44; number of persons employed, 2,212; adulta, 1,888; children, 324.

Average daily pages in iron-mines.

Location.	Adults	Chil- dren.
Piedmont	f. c. 1 50 1 33 1 61 1 92	70

Copper-mines.—Number of mines worked, 34; number of persons employed, 2,412.

Daily wages.

Location.	Ada	ılta.	Chil- dres.
Piedmont	f: 1 1 1 1 1	e. 73 40 56 2 70 76	80 33

Galena-mines.—Number of mines worked, 13; number of persons employed, 4,165; adults, 3,417; children, 426.

Daily wases.

Location.	Adu	lta.	Chil- dres.
Pledmont	f: 11 11	46 30 33	85
Sardinia	2	•	

Zinc.—Number of mines worked, 1 in Venetia; number of persons employed, 23 adults

Average daily wages, 1 franc 30 centimes.

Gold.—Number of mines worked, 14, in Piedmont; number of persons employed, 635 adults and 7 children. Daily wages, (average,) adults, 1 franc 80 centimes; children, 91 centimes.

Quicksilver.—Number of mines worked, 2; number of persons employed, 288; adults, 274: children, 10. Average daily wages: adults, Venetia, 1 franc; Tuscany, adults and children, 1 franc 80 centimes.

Nickel.—Number of mines, 2, in Piedmont; number of persons employed, 24, adults.

Average daily wages, 1 franc 70 centimes.

Average daily wages, 1 franc 70 centimes.

Iron pyrites.—Number of mines, 2, in Piedmont; number of persons employed, 36 adults. Average daily wages, 1 franc 76 centimes.

Manganese.—Number of mines, 4; number of persons employed, 213; adults, 188; children, 25. Average daily wages, Piedmont, adults, 1 franc 90 centimes; Liguria, adults, 1 franc 43 centimes; children, 94 centimes.

Anthracite.—Number of mines, 2; number of persons employed, 4 adults. Average

daily wages, 1 franc 38 centimes.

Lignite.—Number of mines, 20; number of persons employed, 750; adults, 579, and children, 3, (sic.) Average daily wages: Piedmont, adults, 2 francs. Liguria, 1 franc 79 centimes; children, 1 franc 15 centimes. Lombardy, adults, 1 franc 37 centimes. Venetia, adults, 1 franc 32 centimes; children, 75 centimes. Emilia and Marches, adults, 1 franc 50 centimes. Tuscany and Umbria, adults and children, 1 franc 76 centimes.

Sulphur.—Number of mines, 379; number of persons employed, 22,935; adults, 13,678; children, 9,257. Average daily wages: Emilia, adults, 2 francs 61 centimes; children, 80 centimes. Marches, adults, 2 francs 48 centimes; children, 1 franc 40 centimes.

Sicily, adults and children, 1 franc 74 centimes.

Gas-works.—Number of persons employed, 1.117. Average rate of wages, 2 francs 17;

Petroleum-works.—Twenty-one men. Wages from 1 franc 25 centimes to 2 francs. Asphalt-works.—Sixty-three men and boys. Wages from 1 franc 57 centimes to 3 francs 20 centimes.

Chemical-works.—Four hundred and twenty-six persons. Wages varying from 44 centimes to 4 francs.

Coke-burners.—Thirty-eight; their highest rates of wages being from 50 centimes to 5

Bell-founders.—Seventeen. Average wages from 1 franc 26 centimes to 2 francs 35 centimes.

Porcelain and earthenware.—Number of persons employed, 1,493. Average rates of wages for skilled workmen, 2 francs 15 centimes; for adult laborers, 1 franc 70 centimes; for children, 58 centimes.

Salt-works.—Average wages from 1 franc 3 centimes to 2 francs 75 centimes.

Some useful data are contained in an interesting account of the progress and present state of the woolen manufacture in Italy, which was published in 1868, by Mr. Alexander Rossi, a senator of the kingdom and the owner of extensive mills at Schio, in the province of Vicenza. The total number of persons employed was estimated at about 25,000, and the average rates of wages which they received were as follows:

For men and children, from 14 cents to 25 cents per day.

Foremen: Spinners, from 40 to 70 cents; weavers, from 45 to 60 cents; others from **24 to 4**5 cents.

These rates are said to be from 20 to 25 per cent. lower than in France, Belgium, or England.

From a tabular statement, giving in detail the rates of wages paid for different kinds of work in the woolen manufacture in Italy in 1868, the following are selected:

Occupation.	Per day.	Occupation.	Per day.
Sorters, (women)	34 35 62 50 20 18	Finishers, (women) Pressers Seamstresses Menders, (women) Carpenters Smiths Stretchers and shearers Laborers.	\$0 17 36 25 20 40 50 30

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The lower price of labor is a set-off in favor of the Italian manufacturer against the higher price which he has to pay for machinery. At the same time Mr. Rossi contends that, in spite of the difference of wages, Italian operatives are really not in a worse condition than those of Belgium. House-rent in manufacturing districts is 50 per cent. lower in Italy than in Belgium, and food is also cheaper.

The frugal habits of the Italian operative, and the mildness of the climate in which

he lives, tend to diminish his wants.

Two-thirds of the persons employed in manufactures are taken from the agricultural class. They live in houses, of which they are sometimes the owners, in the country, frequently upon the mountains, and their habits are those of agriculturists. They either leave their homes for the mill in the morning, and return in the evening, or, if the distance is too great, they go on Monday and return on Saturday. The amount of their house-rent cannot be calculated; but at any rate it is not a heavy burden. The rest of the operatives, who live in towns, are crowded together in small and often unhealthy habitations, for which they pay a correspondingly low rent, varying from \$10 to \$24 a year for two or three persons, and more in proportion for a larger number.

The food of the poorer classes is said to be exceedingly bad. By the exertions of

benevolent persons, however, economical kitchens have lately been established for sup-

plying wholesome and well-cooked food at moderate charges.

The general condition of the habitations of working-people is described by those who have examined them, as being most deplorable; wet, filthy, full of vermin, and confined. A company has been formed for the construction or purchase of substantial houses to be let out to workingmen at moderate rents. Two large houses for that purpose had been built in August, 1869.

NAPLES.

The following statistics of the working population of Naples were published by the municipal administration of that city in 1868:

Farmers, 222 males; daily wages from 26 to 80 cents. Employed on railways, 231 males; wages from 30 to 93 cents. Workmen in iron-founderies, 2,140; wages from 32 cents to \$1.

Workmen employed in soap-manufacture, 43; wages from 17 to 55 cents.

Pipe-makers, 30 men; wages from 17 to 26 cents. Potters, 313 men; wages from 24 to 54 cents.

Shoe-makers, 241 men, and 55 women; men's wages from 34 to 60 cents; women's wages from 10 to 20 cents.

Dyers, 117 men; wages from 20 to 50 cents.

Goldsmiths, 168 men; wages from 40 cents to \$1.20.

Iron-bedstead and spring-mattress makers, 67 men; wages from 20 to 50 cents.

Hatters, 100 men; and 28 women; wages for men 30 cents to \$1; for women, from 10 to 20 cents.

Coppersmiths, 46 men; wages from 20 to 40 cents.
Carpenters, ordinary, 38 men; wages from 17 to 42 cents.
Carpenters employed in coach-building, 66 men; wages from 26 to 52 cents.

Carpenters employed in furniture-making, 387 men; wages from 26 to 70 cents. Men employed in breweries, 31; wages from 30 to 80 cents.

Glovers, 80 men and 313 women; men's wages from 26 to 50 cents. Lace-makers, 34 men and 58 women; men's wages from 37 to 60 cents.

Tailors, 243 men and 27 women; men's wages from 40 to 72 cents.

Saddlers, 17 men; wages from 30 to 80 cents.

Linseed-oil makers, 41 men; wages from 20 to 40 cents.

Men employed in the preparation of white lead, 9; wages from 20 to 40 cents.

Men employed in glass works, 28.

Men employed in stearine manufactories, 10; wages from 17 to 40 cents.

Persons working in wax-manufactories, 54 men and 6 women.

Printers, 341 men and 18 women; men's wages from 40 to 80 cents; women's wages from 10 to 20 cents.

Pianoforte-makers, 66 men; wages from 34 to 80 cents.

Gilders, 53 men; wages from 40 cents to \$1.

Type-founders, 8 men; wages from 30 to 60 cents.

Gas-litters, 5 men; wages from 30 cents to \$1.

Coral-workers, 195 men; wages from 34 cents to \$1.60.

Employed in the tobacco-manufactory, 587 men and 1,239 women; men's wages from 68 to 99 cents; women's wages from 14 to 50 cents.

Chocolate-makers, 5 men; wages from 24 to 66 cents.

Paste-makers, 24 men; wages from 24 to 40 cents. Lucifer-match makers, 8 men and 10 women; men's wages from 17 to 34 cents; women's wages from 7 to 17 cents.

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Men employed in tallow-works, 5; wages from 17 to 40 cents.

Men employed in lime-works, 12; wages from 20 to 60 cents.

Employed in the manufacture of chemical products, 18 men and 6 women.

Workers in tortoise-shell, 5 men.

Seven thousand eight hundred and sixty-nine artisans that are enumerated—6,098 males and 1,771 females—out of a total estimated population of about 600,000. These statistics, however, cannot be considered as complete.

RATES OF WAGES IN 1872.

Statement of wages vaid at Milan, Italy, in 1872.

[Furnished by H. W. Trimble, esq., United States consular agent.]

Occupations.	Hours per day.	Average wages per week of 6 days, first-class work-men.	Average wages per week of 6 days, inferior workmen.	Boys.
Backsmiths Carpenters Masons Painters Plasterers Plasterers Shoe-makers Tanners Stone-cutters Tailors Glove-makers, outters Factory operatives	11	\$3 42 2 85 2 85 3 42 2 85 5 13 3 70 3 42 5 70 3 42	\$2 18 3 42 2 18	\$0 91 1 42 1 42 91 91 1 71
Shoe-binders Glove-makers, sewers Factory-operatives Silk-workers House-servants	10	1 71 1 14 1 71 91 42 85	1 14	

^{*} Per month.

MECHANICAL AND FARM LABOR.

The following statements showing the rates of wages paid in the consular districts indicated, for mechanical and farm labor in the year 1873, were furnished by the consuls of the respective districts.

Statement of the rates of daily wages paid for mechanical labor in the following-named cities of Italy in the year 1873.

Skilled workmen.	Venice, without board.	Genoa, without board.	Brindist, without board.	Messins, without board.	Palermo, with board.
Bicksmiths	50 to 60 40 to 60 80 to 1 00 50 to 60 40 to 60 40 to 60 40 to 60	\$0 75 69 70 69 70 69 75 60 80 80 60 80 60	\$0 68 764 85 85 51 1 02 51 59 34 68 69 68	\$0 80 90 90 90 1 00 80 70 1 20 90 95 1 20 70 65 65 60 60	\$0 40 50 50 60 40 60 60 60 60 60 60 60
Price of board— For workmen, per week, October, 1873 For workwomen, per week, October, 1873		1 80 1 10	Digit	2 10 1 60	pogle

Rates of wages paid for farm-labor in the following-named places in Italy in the year 1873.

	Ve	nice.	Genoa. Brindisi.		1	Messins.					
Occupation.	Daily wages, with- out board.	Monthly wages,	Daily wages, with board.	Daily wages, with- out board.	Monthly wages, with board.	Daily wages, with- out board.	Monthly wages, with board.	Daily wages, with board.	Dally wages, with- out board.	Monthly wages, with board.	Dally wages, with- out board.
FARM-LABORERS.											
Experienced hands— In summer In winter Ordinary hands—	\$ 0 60 50		\$0 40 \$0	\$0 50 30	\$9 00 5 00	\$0 49 <u>1</u> 95 <u>1</u>		\$0 30 50		\$9 00 15 00	\$6 40
In summer In winter Common laborers at	40 30		30 33	43 30	6 40 4 00	494 254		20 25	30 48	6 00 7 50	
other than farm- work	40	\$1 to \$2	10	18	2 40	51	\$1 70 to \$3 40	15 15	38 30	4 50 4 50	32 38

^{*} Board is never given except during vintage, when they are allowed wine ad libitum.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, ETC.

The following statements, showing the prices of provisions and other necessaries of life, were furnished by the consuls of the United States at the several places indicated:

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, also of house rest and board, in the following-named cities of Italy, in the year 1873.

Articles.		Genost.	Brindlad.	Venice.	Palermo.	Mossins.
PROVISIONS. Flour, wheat: Superfineper pound	\$0 05	\$ 0 06	\$ 0 05≩	*\$11 25 (*12 50	\$ 0 10	-\$10 00
Extra family do		054	06	to 14 50	} 19	~12 39
Fresh, roasting-pieces	12	15 15 15	24 20 24 20	18 <u>1</u> 17 19 10	30 25 30	27 18 27
Veal: Fore-quartersdo Hind-quartersdo	17	928 928	25 25	90 93		97 97
Cutletsdo	†25	28	25	33		27
Fore-quartersdo Logdo Chopsdo	10 18 17	15 17 17	10 10 10	13 <u>1</u> 15 134	30 30	14 14 13
Pork: Freshdo Corned or salteddo	17 25	18 35	10	15	20	19
Bacon do Hams, smoked do Shoulders do	25 34 34	35 45	17 95 95	13 36 14	35 25	94 39 39
Sausagesdo	0 25 to	} 35	34	36	25	15
Lard	0 34 22 10	98 10	25 08	18	40 16	21 00
Butterdo	25	40	34	{ 0 94 { to { 0 40	} 60	39
Cheesedo	22	30	{ 0 17 to 0 34	0 21 to 0 36	\$ 98	22

^{*} Per barrel.

[†] Without bone.

Prices of provisions. &c., in the following-named cities of Italy in 1873—Continued.

Articles.		Genoa.	Brindied.	Venice.	Раветво.	Messins
Potatoesdododo	\$0 02 03	\$0 02 06	\$ 0 05	\$0 02 041 0 03	\$ 0 04 10	\$0 07
Beansdo	021	03		to 08	8 05	ļ
Milk per quart	03	05	ļ. 	03	20	17
Eggsper dozen	14	22	17	to 30	36	20
GROCERIES, ETC.				`	,	
Tea, Oolong or other good blackper pound	1 49	1 60	i	1 00 to 3 00	{ 1 50	1 20
Coffee, Rio: Greendo	22	40	34	(0 30 to (0 40	30	34
Roasteddo	37	ļ	42	0 36 to 0 64	} 40	45
Good browndododo	10 12	124 134	10 19	651	15 118	19
Coffee B	14	14 14	14 10	124	09	11
Starchdodo	10	25	75	071 (11 00	15	13
Coalper ton		10 00	13 60	to 12 00	\$ 10 00	ļ
Wood, hardper 220 pounds Charcoalper bushel	78 20				 1 20	
Oil, coalper gallon	48	65	57		75	
DOMESTIC DRY-GOODS, ETC.						1
Brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yard Bleached, 4-4, standard qualitydo	¶17 ¶20	20 25	20 22	12 13		14 16
Brown, 9-8, standard qualitydo Bleached, 9-8, standard qualitydo	(¶) ¶181	28	24 25	14 15		
Cotton flannel, medium qualitydo Cickings, good qualitydo	(¶) (¶)	22	34	75		21 30
Prints, Merrimac do do do do do do do do do do do do do	1124	35	13 ₄ 29	15 30		16 20
atinets, medium qualitydododo	(H)					94
Boots, men's heavyper pair Shoesdo	2 40	2 50	3 40	3 60	1 00	3 20
House-rent.						
Cour-roomed tenementsper yearix-roomed tenementsdo	100 00 150 00	84 00 120 00	**8 50 **11 90	**6 00 **10 00	50 00 75 00	**5 10 **6 70
. BOARD.				C 2 60		
for men, (mechanics or other workmen)per week	(H)	2 00	3 40	to 3 50	} (H)	
or women employed in factoriesdo	(H)	1 50	3 40	2 15 to 2 50	} (#)	•••••

[;] White.
¶ These articles are mostly home-made, very coarse, cheap but of poor quality.
→ Per mouth.
† The American system of boarding is not practiced; everybody keeps house.

EXPENDITURES OF WORKINGMEN'S FAMILIES.

Average weekly expenditures of families living in Milan, Venice, Messina, Brindisi, and Sampiedara, Italy, in 1873.

	Milan.	Venic	6.	Messiz	18.	Brindi	ei.	Sarupiedare
Articles.	2 ad	2 adults and 3 children. 2 adults and 5 children.		2 adults and 5 children.		2 adults and 2 children.		
Flour and bread	\$ 1 53	\$0	70	\$1	70	\$1	28	\$0.90
MeatsLard	97	i	10 08 30	1	00 15	1	43 09	10 12
Butter			15 15		10 18		95 17	06
Sugar Macaroni Milk			28		40	·····	17	18
Coffee		·	16		30 70			19
Fish Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vine- gar, &c			14 90		9 5		43 19	19
Eggs Potatoes and other vegetables Fruits, (green and dried)			10 14		10 15 30		95 60 17	06 25
FuelOil or other lightOther articles	25 17		28 12 15		60 20		43 34 51	92 19
Spirits, wine, beer, and tobacco. House-rent For educational, religious, and	87	1	80 10	1	69 50		19 72	36
benevolent objects			60		40		70	
Total weekly expenses	4 79		55		63		<u></u>	3 %
Total for 52 weeks Clothing per year Taxes per year		340 40	60 09	448 32			00 00 75	174 90 35 9 0
Total annual expenses	245 🕶 4	380	60	480	76	677	75	209 26
Total weekly earnings	5 10	7	50	8	85			4 00
Total for 52 weeks	265 20	390	00	460	90			208 00

COST AND CONDITION OF LABOR IN ITALY.

MILAN.

The following report on the cost and condition of labor in Milan was prepared by Mr. Trimble, United States consular agent, and transmitted to the author September 24, 1872:

Since 1860 wages have increased on the whole about 30 per cent.; the general strikes in August last will probably result in an additional increase of 10 per cent.

Silk forms the principal item in the business transactions of Milan. During the year ending June 30, 1872, the amount of raw silk, tram, and organzine, seasoned, was 34,943 bules. Of this about 75 bales—invoiced value \$110,000—were sent to the United States.

The manufacture of gloves (kid and lamb skin) has, within the last few years, attained a great importance, and Milan now furnishes from 800 to 1,000 dozen per day—exporting to France, Germany, England, and the United States. Large quantities of buttons are manufactured. Carriages to a considerable extent are exported to South America, Egypt, and Switzerland.

Conclusions as to the condition and well-being of the working-classes must, to a certain extent, be modified by considerations of climate, and of hereditary habits and tastes. Accustomed to and delighting in the open air, inured to greater exposure than ourselves, and at the same time possessing a climate less rigorous, they are comparatively indifferent to the price of fuel, which to us is one of the necessaries of life.

So meat, which in our severer and more exhausting climate is a necessary, in theirs becomes a luxury, not being required to sustain life, the place of which is, to a certain extent, supplied by a greater abundance of natural products. Bread, wine, fruit, and vegetables, thus come naturally to constitute the main articles of food. The working-man takes for his breakfast a piece of bread, a few slices of sausage, or a handful of fruit; for his dinner, soup made from pork and vegetables, or a dish of rice and a bottle of wine. And this, which to us would seem poor and meager fare, climate and habit render natural and satisfactory.

On the whole, the working-classes here may be said to possess, in comparison with those of the United States, infinitely fewer moral and social advantages, and at the

same time a lower average of physical comfort, with less extreme suffering.

CARRARA.

Report " on the cost and condition of labor in the Carrara consular district," by Mr. Consul Torrey.

CARRARA, July 30, 1872.

The price of daily labor in this consular district averages as follows: Marble-sculp. tors, from 77 to 96 cents; marble-cutters, from 39 to 58 cents; marble-polishers, from 35 to 48 cents; marble-quarrymen, from 29 to 48 cents; blacksmiths, carpenters, masons, painters, and shoemakers average about 39 cents per day; the common laborer earns from 29 to 39 cents. All mechanics work from sunrise till dark the year round. taking three hours a day for their meals in the summer months, and two hours a day during the short days of the autumn and winter. Boys and women earn from 16 to 19

cents per day in the quarries.

The principal article produced is marble, which gives employment to nearly the whole population of this district. The silver and lead mines of Seravezza are very valuable, but not extensive. House-rent and living-expenses for the mechanics and laborers are very low, quite in proportion to their earnings, but the average rent of a

good house, containing ten rooms, is \$289.35 per annum.

The mechanics and laborers are very poor; they know not what comfort is. They usually have large families, and live in one or two rooms of a house, where they cook, eat, and sleep.

I have known many instances where families of from five to eight persons-men, women, and children-lived and slept in one room. Under these circumstances, their education and morals may be imagined.

Few mechanics and laborers over thirty years of age can read and write; the better

class of marble-cutters only excepted.

Since the revolution of 1859 common public schools have existed, and nearly all chil-

dren learn to read and write.

The value of marble, wrought and unwrought, exported to the United States direct during the year 1871 was \$626,548. A large portion of the most valuable sculpture and architectural work is sent to Florence, Rome, Leghorn, Genoa, and Marseilles, and from thence to the United States as productions of those places.

There is also a large amount of olive-oil produced in this district, and exported to the

United States via Leghorn.

VENICE.

Extract from a letter to the author from John Harris, Esq., United States consul at Venice, under date of December 12, 1873: On the condition of the working-classes in the Venetian provinces:

As regards the moral state of the workmen, particularly of artisans and machinists, in the Venetian provinces, it may be said that they are generally moral, sober, and provident. They take pride in their work, but they study but little, and are unacquainted with drawing or chemistry, and are somewhat prejudiced in favor of the technical processes of ancient usage. Now, however, they frequent schools for drawing and chemistry which have been introduced in the towns and villages contiguous to the manufactories and workshops. In general they execute varied, different, and new works with good will; they are of various and multiform genius, and it must be noticed that the system of division of labor as practiced in England and elsewhere is not here in general use. Here the same workman does many things, and passes from one work or operation to another which has an affinity with it. His habits of living being economical, he is contented with moderate wages. Although a company has been formed in Venice for the purpose of building good and suitable dwellings for workmen, these buildings are, as yet, but few in number, and the laboring-classes in this city live generally in poor, unwholesome habitations, damp and with bud odors. As the company continue their labors, this inconvenience will decrease. On the con-

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trary, in the great manufacturing districts of the provinces the workmen inhabit wholesome dwellings, contiguous to the manufactories. The best are in the province of Venice: Nadaré's paper-mills at Large, and Rossi's spinning and cloth manufactory at Scipio. These are clean, dry, large, and convenient residences. The workman pays the rent, and may eventually become the purchaser.

It may be said that, as regards habitation, the workmen live badly in the city and

well in the country, but the principal industrial establishments are in the country.

BRINDISI.

Extract from a letter to the author from the United States viceconsul, dated Brindisi, November 30, 1873:

As regards the health, morality, and education of mechanics and workingmen, I beg to state that we have here a very sober and laborious class of people, of good principles and health, but not far advanced in instruction.

GENOA.

Mr. Consul Spencer, in apologizing for not furnishing the information desired, adds:

I find, however, that any report that I could have made, based upon your circulars, would have been very unsatisfactory, as the conditions of life here are so different from what they are in the United States; the working-classes here rarely indulging in any greater luxuries than polenta, (or mush,) soup, or minestrone, wine, and chestnut-bread; meat, butter, and other delicacies mentioned in your list of provisions being entirely out of the question.

MESSINA.

Mr. Consul Behn, under date of September 5, 1872, thus writes in regard to labor in Messina:

There is but very little industry in this consular district; no manufacturing establishment except one small cotton-factory, two or three tanneries of no great importance, one flour-mill, and two silk-spinneries, the produce of which is sent to England, France, and Italy. The price of labor for workingmen of all classes averages from 50 cents to \$1 per day of twelve hours, and seldom overruns the latter price.

In a more recent letter, dated October 16, 1873, Mr. Behn adds:

In consequence of a rise in the prices of the principal articles of subsistence, workmen's wages have been raised from 10 to 20 cents over those of last year, and they now vary from 50 cents to \$1.20 per day, not including board, as it is not the custom in this island to board workingmen. The education and morals of workmen is yearly improving, as they and their sons visit the day and night schools, and it is to be hoped that before long this class of people will occupy the same rank as the workmen of all other countries.

[From the British Almanac for 1874.]

In Southern Europe the general rate of wages is on a low scale, although in some parts of Italy the remuneration obtained by several kinds of art-workmen is very good. In the ship-building, iron-founding, and other handicrafts, requiring a combination of manual strength and skill, the workmen can obtain from \$4.38 to \$7.30 per week. There are also numerous trades p culiar to Italy, in which skilled workmen can obtain from \$3.90 to \$5.34 per week; but all descriptions of unskilled labor are very cheap. Strikes are infrequent, disputes between employers and employed rarely proceeding beyond the preliminary stages. Like the Swiss workman, the Italian artisan is patient, steady, and thrifty in his habits. He contrives to live well and to save money on wages which would scarcely keep an English workman from the work-house. If he were equally industrious with the Euglishman, he would take rank among the élite of the European laboring-classes. But the influence of climate is too productive of indolence, although in some of the Italian sea-coast towns the workers display an amount of energy which does them credit. The principles of co-operation are much practiced in Italy, the working of the various associations being not unlike those in England and Germany, and care being taken to keep them free from those dangerous utopian ideas which have in Spain and France found practical development in the form of communism. The quality of Italian work is generally very good, but the principal difficulty of the workman is to gain decent lodging-accommodation at a moderate price and to avoid paying

too much for provisions. These two drawbacks form serious obstacles, against which he is almost powerless to contend, save by living outside the town in which his place of employment is situated, lodgings being cheaper in the outlying villages, where also food can be obtained at lower rates, not having to pay the obnoxious "octroi" demanded at the gates of the town.

From additional information in regard to labor in Italy, recently received, the following facts are selected:

PROVINCE OF PARMA.

Linen.—The principal establishment for the manufacture of this fabric employs from 90 to 100 women; reclers receiving from 7 to 8 cents, and weavers from 13 to 23 cents

per diem. The highest prices are paid for piecework.

Glass and earthen-ware.—The total number of hands employed is 67, of whom 23 (19 men and 4 women) are in the pottery department, and 44 (all men) in glass making. The wages of the potters are from 23 to 28 cents per diem, and for the women, 10 cents. The glass-makers rise from a minimum of 19 cents to a maximum of \$1.15 per diem. They have work for only three months in the year.

Nails.—The nail-makers of the city of Parma only supply local wants; wages about 32 to 48 cents for founders per diem, 24 to 48 cents for blacksmiths, 42 to 46 cents for coppersmiths. Foremen in founderies, &c., received from 62 to 72 cents, and apprentices

from 10 to 15 cents.

Soap and candles.—Men receive 28 cents, and women 19 cents per diem.

Paper.—The wages vary for men from 15 to 28 cents; for women, from 10 to 17 cents;

for children, from 8 to 13 cents.

Printing-offices.—The wages of compositors are from 19 to 38 cents; of apprentices, from 6 to 12 cents; of printers, 33 cents per diem. Piecework is paid as follows: Compositors, from 3 to 4 cents; apprentices, from 1 to 1½ cents, and printers 4 cents

Liqueurs, best, and aërated waters.—The wages given in all these industries are as follows: Foremen, 38 cents and upward per diem; ordinary workmen, 28 cents; women, maximum wages 19 ceuts per diem.

VENICE.

The Neville foundery.—This foundery employs upward of 300 hands, and turns out machinery of every magnitude, description, and quality. In spite of high duty on coals and iron, this factory is highly flourishing; the workmen are equal to the best in Eugland, and so well conducted that no strike has occurred since its establishment, and the men are satisfied with their wages and condition.

Bronze-foundery.-The bronze-foundery of Michieli & Co. deserves notice, and is an establishment where not only the fine bronze works of Italy peculiar to the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries are perfectly reproduced in all sizes, but even works of modern art are cast at the option of the sculptor, after the manner and the time of

Michel Augelo and Benvenuto Cellini.

Glass-works of Venice and Murano.—For many centuries past these works have been celebrated for the fineness of their products. In A. D. 674 St. Benedict engaged Venetian artists to furnish the windows of Weremouth Abbey, and from that time, or even anterior to it, the same manufactory—probably the oldest in the world—has had a continnous existence. The manufacture of glass is still an important Venetian industry, the export of this fabric in 1874 having amounted to £313,200, or about \$1,524,000 in gold. In 1867 the exports of glass were more than twice the usual average, owing to the introduction of glass beads in the fashions of the day.

Burano lace.—The manufacture of this fabric, which receives its name from a small island formerly celebrated for its lace-work, has recently been revived under the auspices of the Princess Giovanelli and the Countess Marcello, who found an aged woman, the last of her craft, who still remembered the method of making this lace, and engaged her to instruct a number of girls in this almost-forgotten art. The immediate demand for the first specimens produced was extraordinary. The cost of the fabric (about 100 francs per meter, of the width of 12 centimeters) is considered to be under its value. It takes 150 days of five working-hours per diem for one workwoman to produce a single meter, the woman's pay being one-half franc per diem.

The "gros point de Venise" is also to be revived at Burano. The distinguished engineer Dr. Fambri (six years a deputy in the Italian Parliament) has published the following estimate of the labor involved in the manufacture of one meter of this lace of a quality never surpassed in

ancient times:

I. Three months' wages of one hand for the net-work.

II. One month's wages of one hand for the flowers.

III. An extra month's wages for the ornamental border.

Dr. Fambri suggests that "this industry should be developed, were it only to save the secret of the art, as no kind of manufacture exists more capable of giving sustenance to thousands with a merely nominal capital."

LABOR IN MODERN GREECE.

In one of the introductory chapters of this work, under the above caption, the condition of labor in Greece in ancient times, (labor then being of a servile character,) was presented. Modern Greece, retaining little else than its classic renown, presents but few points of interest to the inquirer after manufacturing and mechanical industries.

EXPORTS.

The exports to the United States are of small amount, and consist chiefly of fruit and wool. In the fiscal year 1874 the value of the total imports, direct and indirect, into the United States from Greece, reached but \$561,875, of which fruit amounted to \$423,992, and wool to \$105,325.

Hon. John M. Francis, recently United States minister resident at

Athens, thus wrote in regard to the principal exports:

Greece exports annually from \$6,000,000 to \$8,000,000 worth of Zante currants. The larger proportion is shipped to England, but the demand for the fruit in the United States is yearly increasing. Her exports of olive-oil amount to nearly \$4,000,000 annually; and of cotton and cotton yarns, silk, and products of silk, coarse wool, wines, &c., the value is quite large. The exportation of lead and other minerals is increasing. The production of cotton is also becoming an important interest in Greece. Previous to our late civil war but little was raised; now the average crop amounts to about 5,500,000 pounds. Formerly the cotton was all exported; now a large proportion of it is manufactured into cotton yarn, no less than 16 factories having been established for this purpose, employing 25,460 spindles, the yearly manufacture of which amounts to 2,200,000 pounds of yarn. Greek yarn is largely displacing the English article in many of the Levant markets. There are eight silk manufactories in the kingdom. The exports of these manufactories last year were upward of \$750,000.

Fish P. Brewer, esq., United States consul at Piræus, under date of June 29, 1872, writes as follows in regard to cotton and other exports:

Six-sevenths of the cotton-crop is raised in the district of Lebadeia, where it is pressed and baled, and then hauled sixty or seventy miles on a macadamized road to Pirsus. A part of the cotton is bought by the Pirsus twist-factories, of which there are three. One recently began operations; the other two have been making from 32,000 to 35,000 bundles of twist annually. Nearly all of this is used in Greece, but a little is shipped, free of duty, to Turkey.

Various other raw products pay an export duty, as cocoons, acorns, figs, currants,

and tobacco.

Some products pay different rates, according to the district where raised, perhaps on account of an assumed difference in quality, as: tobacco from Argos, \$0. per lb.; from elsewhere, free; acorns from Athens or Kea, \$c. per lb.; from Peloponessus, or elsewhere, 1\$c. Figs pay \$10. per lb., but, if raised on public lands, double rates, apparently as including rent to the state.

Currants pay a little less than 1c. per lb. Cocoons pay 11c. per lb. Emery pays 1c. per lb. On the free list are wool, hides, cumin and sesame seeds, wine, olives, oil,

and silk.

No bounties are paid on any article of export, yet it is noteworthy that articles exported are exempt from local custom-dues in transit to the port, which would have to be paid if the same articles were sold in home markets, for home consumption. These duties are levied to support the local governments, and their amount is very various.

Mr. Francis states that the culture of the vine and the manufacture of wine and spirits are important industries:

The vineyards cover about 500,000 acres of land, or one twenty-eighth of the area of plantations properly so called. About 2,000,000 barrels of wine are produced annually, and of this aggregate, less than 100,000 barrels are exported. The gross value is about \$1,600,000. The cultivation of the olive-tree is also a feature. The latest returns show that there are about 8,000,000 olive-trees in the kingdom, covering an area of 350,000 acres, and producing annually 22,000,000 lbs. of olives. The market reports of the Bulletin almost every day evidence the growth of our Mediterranean trade; and in that growth Greece, as we have said, is a prominent participant.

BATES OF WAGES.

Mr. Consul Brewer, under date July 30, 1872, furnishes the following rates of daily wages of mechanics at Piræus:

Painters, \$1.14; blacksmiths, carpenters, masons, and plasterers, 95 cents each; inferior hands as low as 57 cents; journeymen shoemakers, for each pair of country shoes, 57 cents, and a good workmen will make three pairs in two days. Two boatmen, with a sail-boat, will earn \$1.52 for a long day's work. Three dollars and eighty cents per month is fair wages for a servant girl. Most mechanics work from sunrise to sunset, taking, in summer, an hour for breakfast and two hours for nooning, during which they generally take a nap. House rent is \$7.60 per month for a four-roomed tenement, and \$11.40 for six rooms. A workingman can get his meals for 20 cents a day.

MECHANICAL AND FARM LABOR.

Statement showing the rate of wages paid for mechanical and farm labor in Athens, Pircus, and Syra, Greece, without board, in the year 1873.

Occupation.		Athens and Piræus.			Syra.			
Skilled workmen:				_		_		
Blacksmithsper day	80 90	to	21	20	l en	en.	to !	\$ 0 90
Bricklayers or masonsdo				ã	1	65		75
Cabinet-makers. do					1		to	85
Carpentersdo			î		1		to	80
Coopersdo			•	90	i	75		80
Minersdo			1				to	85
Machinistsdo			î			85		90
Paintersdo			ī			Ã		85
Plaeterersdo			î			70		73
Shoemakersdo	65		•	80		65		79
Stone-cutters do			1			45		50
Tailorsdo			•	90	1	-	w	45
Tinemiths do	60		1	00		40	to	45
Wheelwrightsdo			i			40		45
Shin hailding:	1		-	~~	!	₩.	w	~
4 TM4 -1	1 00	to.	1	40	ı			
Carpenters. Second-class	70	to	-	90		,	••••	
Joinersdo			1					
Calkersdo			î					
Blacksmithsdo		to	•	86			••••	•••••
Farm-laborera:		•		CO		••••	••••	
Experienced handsdo	i			60	1	30	to	40
Ordinary handsdo	ł			50	1	•	•	-
Common laborers at other than farm-workdo	ı			66	1	30	to	<u></u>
Female servantsper month, with board	2 00	to	5			00		4 00
Price of board:	~ **	-			"	~	~	
For workmenper week	1 50	to	9	00		00	to	9 25
For workwomen	1 25			33	. •	•••	₩,	1 8

PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, ETC.

Statement showing the prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, with house-rent and board, in the towns of Piraus and Syra, Greece, in the year 1872.

Articles.	Piræus.	Sуга.
Flour: PROVISIONS. Wheat, superfine, of Trieste { per barrel of 168 pounds. per pound. per pound. } do. Ryo. Corn-meal Beef:		\$0 077 \$0 07 to 08 None. None.
Fresh, roasting-pieces	11 to 12 10½ to 11 18 to 13 None.	12 to 14 12 to 14 12 to 14 None.
Fore-quarters do. Bind-quarters do. Culets do.	16 to 17 15 to 16 13 to 14	13 to 14 13 to 14 13 to 14

LABOR IN GREECE.

Statement showing the prices of provisions, groceries, &c.—Continued.

Articles.		iræu	8.	s	yra.	
Mutton:						
Fore-quartersper pound Legdo Chopsdo	80 10	to i	k 0 11	1		
Legdo	11	to	12	\$0 13	to \$	0 14
Chopsdo	11	to	12	13	to	14
ork:	Ì			ļ		
Freshdo			11	١		10
Corned or salteddo		None		l N	one.	
Bacon dodams, smoked, imported, foreigndo	36	None	38	N	one.	
riams, smoked, imported, ioreign	28	to to	30		• • • • •	
Shoulders, imported, foreign do Sausages, imported, foreign do Sausages, freshly made, in market do do do do do do do do do do do do do	40	to	45		••••	28
Sauceres freshly made in market	15	to	20			***
arddodo	20	to	25		• • • • •	16
Addah dre	08	to	06	J		-6
Codfish, dry do do do do do do do do do do do do do		None		1		03
Butterdodo	22	to	24	24	to	26
Cheese:						
Produced in the countrydo		to	14	15	to	17
Coming and Dortah do	20	to	25			
Potatoes do do		ł to	02	l		02
Rice, Genoa		to	05	l		04
Beans		to	03	02	to	02
dilkper gallon	20	to	25		• • • • •	••••
Potatoes do Rice, Genoa do Beans do Milk per gallon Eggs per dozen	14	to	·15	12	to	14
GROCKRIES.	1			l		
				1		
Fea, Oolong, or other good blackper pound Coffee :	85	to	90		• • • • •	• • • •
Rio green do	25	to	27	25	to	28
Rio, green		٣.		1		
Sugar:	1			1		
Good brown	1 :	None	٠.	l N	lone.	
Yellow C		None	٠.	None.		
White, crushedper pound.	l		10	1		12
Yellow C Yellow C per pound Molasses]]	None	٠.		lone.	
Sirup]]	None			one.	
Soap, commonper pound			06		• • • • •	• • • • •
Starchdodo	07	to	08	1		07
Fuel: { per cwt. { per ton	58	to	65	1	.	
Charcoal per ton	1			12 00	to 1	3 00
Wood, hardper pounddo			1			
Wood, pinedo	i		1			
Oil, oliveper gallon.	65	to	70]	• • • •	••••
DOMESTIC DRY GOODS, ETC.	1			1		
T-clothper piece of 24 yards	2 20	to	2 60			
Shirtings:	1					
Brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yard.		• • • • •	••••	٠		20
Bleached, 4-4, standard qualitydo	1-:-:	• • • • •	*****	יטצון.	to	25
Brown, 4-1, standard quality do Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, standard quality per piece of 40 yards. Cotton-fiannel, medium quality per yard. Fickings, good quality do Mouseline de laines do Satinets, medium quality do	1 50	w	4 00	1	••••	30
Cotton-namen, medium qualityper yaru		• • • • •		1 10	to	19
Managina da lainaa		• • • • •		1 15	to	18
MOUBELLE UP LATINGS		• • • • •	•••••	1 46	to	45
Boots, men'sper pair.	9 00	to.	9 50	· ••		2 00
Doore, men aber barr.	1 ~ ~	•	2 00			~ ~
HOUSE-RENT.	ł			1		
Four-roomed tenementsper month.	8 00	to	10 00	10 00	to 1	2 00
Six-roomed tenements	18 8	to.	15 00		to 1	ลีกั
NATIONMON POHEMONIA	12 00	w		1 -5 00	1	
BOARD.						
For men, (mechanics or other workmen)per week. For women employed in factoriesdodo	1 50 1 20		2 00 1 25		• • • • •	••••
LODGING.	1			1		
				1		
Tolerable unfurnished lodgings can be procured at from \$1.75 per month for one room and \$3.80 per month for two rooms, a kitchen, and a small court. No taxes, no water, nor gas laid on; plenty of public fountains with good water.			••••		• • • • •	••••

EXPENDITURES OF WORKINGMEN'S PAMILIES.

Statement showing the average weekly expenditure of a family consisting of two adults and two children in Pirans. Greece, in 1872 and 1873.

Articles.	1872.	1873.
Flour and bread	\$0.68	\$6.8
Fresh, corned, salted, and smoked meats	57	T .
Cheese, olives, and sundries		l î
Sugar		1 3
Coffee		l
Fish, fresh and salt	19] 1
Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar, &c	19	1
Potatoes and other vegetables	39	1
Fruits, green and dried		
Fuel for cooking only		
Oil or other light.		1 9
Other articles		1
Wine] 1
Cobacco		·····
louse-rent	95 11	6
For educational, religious, and benevolent objects	Щ	
Total weekly expenses	4 24	2 9
Clothing per year, (partly earned by wife)	44 00	95 0
faxes per year	None.	None.
Tookila accorde as	5 13	
Weekly earnings	2 I2	

The average weekly expenditures of a family of two adults and five children in the town of Syra were found to be \$3.50, and the earnings of the same family from \$3.50 to \$4.50 per week.

CONDITION OF THE WORKING-CLASSES.

Mr. J. J. Bucherer, United States vice-consul at Piræus, under date of November 15, 1873, writes:

The working-class of this town is, generally speaking, laborious, and of a quiet and peaceful character. They are not given to drinking and gambling. They live very economically, and like to send their children to school.

LABOR IN BELGIUM.

Belgium, one of the smaller kingdoms of Europe, is a perfect bee-hive of industry, both agricultural and mechanical. A historical sketch of the rise and progress of some of those industries would be extremely interesting, if space admitted of its presentation. Although small in extent of territory, it embraces peoples entirely distinct in language and traditions. The Flemings (Teutonic) and the Walloons, (Oeltic,) distinguished by their peculiar dialects, are still conspicuous among the pure Germans, Dutch, and French. Like the French, the Belgians are strongly opposed to emigration;* the parents being unwilling to part with their children, who all contribute the proceeds of their labor to the common stock, and although the wages are extremely low, even after the advance in 1871 and 1872, as compared with those of England, yet the united earnings of a family amount to a considerable sum.† This stay-athome policy results, of course, in an increase of the population, which, in 1871, was 5,113,680—a larger number per square mile than in any other country in Europe.‡

The government of Belgium is a limited constitutional monarchy, and was established in its present form in 1830. The country had been previously the theater of almost innumerable wars while under the dominion successively of Spain and France, and while forming a constituent part of Holland. Indeed, owing to its geographical position Belgium has been the battle-ground of Europe, more especially in the fierce struggles between the allied powers and the first Napoleon. The possession of Belgian territory had always been regarded by Napoleon as

A Miles and A and

little over 20,000, as will be seen by the following statement:	but a
During the decade from 1820 to 1830	28 22 5, 074 4, 738 7, 416 168 964 1, 306 705

† The director of the paper-mill at Huy stated to the author that the earnings of one family, consisting of father and several sons and daughters, exceeded 10,000 francs (\$2,000) in the year 1871. At Jumet, the seat of glass-works, many families own the houses in which they live; some workmen being worth 50,000 francs.

† The following table shows the population of Belgium by provinces and per square mile on the 31st of December, 1871:

Provinces.	Square kilome- ters.	Population.	Population, per square kilo- meter.	Population, per square mile.
Antwerp Brabant Flanders, West Flanders, Rast Hainant Lidge Limbourg Luxembourg Mamur	2, 831, 73 3, 282, 96 3, 934, 67 2, 999, 95 3, 721, 62 2, 893, 88 2, 412, 34 4, 417, 76 3, 660, 25	497, 017 887, 905 670, 833 840, 512 900, 595 598, 458 200, 668 204, 037 313, 655	175. 52 970. 46 907. 39 980. 17 941. 72 906. 80 83. 18 46. 18 85. 69	454, 50 700, 50 537, 25 725, 75 626, 75 535, 50 215, 50 119, 50 222, 00
Total	29, 455. 16	5, 113, 680	173. 60	449. 50

of vast importance as an advanced post from which he might proceed to other conquests. Under the rule of France, Belgium suffered severely from the conscription laws, which deprived the country of its active laborers. The benevolent and charitable institutions of Belgium are numerous. To prevent the misery and frequently the crime arising from the want of employment among the working-classes, charity-workshops have been established in Ghent, Liège, and other towns. The able-bodied are paid according to their work, and the aged and infirm according to their necessities. In each commune is a bureau de bien faisance for assisting the poor with money, food, and clothing. Belgium is abundantly rich in various kinds of minerals, as coal, iron, calamine, &c., forming a valuable source of employment to many thousands of its inhabitants. Its iron-mines are extensive. Marble also is abundant in many parts of Belgium.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The chief industries which enter into competition with similar productions of England and the United States are glass and glass-ware, iron, machinery, and various other manufactures of iron, paper, and woolen cloths. Its chief export to the United States is window-glass, the abundance of raw materials and cheapness of labor enabling them to compete successfully with New Jersey and Western Pennsylvania. In bar-iron and rails, and in some kinds of machinery, Belgium is able to underbid England in European and other markets.

The extent and variety of the exports to the United States are indi-

cated in the following:

Statement showing the imports of merchandise from Belgium into the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1874.

Articles.	Quantities.	Values.
FREE OF DUTY.		
Articles of the United States brought back		\$941,897
Chemicals, dyes, &c	.	27, 333
Officepounds. Horse-hair, used for weavingdo	. 1, 186, 550	945, 916
lorse-hair, used for weavingdo	. 19,691	6, 79
Tides and skins.		58, 474
Paper materialspounds.	. 10, 515, 093	540, 045
All other articles		29, 07.
Total free of duty.	.ll	1, 148, 70
•		ت خدد
DUTIABLE.		
Seer, ale, &cgallons.	3,108	1.17
Books. &c	.	9, 56
Grass and manufactures of		6 13
Breadstuffs, barleybushels.	99.518	95, 55
Buttons, &c		9.37
Chemicals &c	1 1	33.63
biccory pounds. cotton, manufactures of	108 196	4.64
otton, manufactures of	1	96.15
Carthenware		4.0
Pancy goods		18.53
lax and manufactures of		29, 61
ruits of all kinds		117.0
lass and glass-ware		2.047.5
ron and steel:	l l	-, -, -, -,
Pig-ironpounds	9. 707. 991	200 2
Bar-irondo	894, 898	91. 17
Sheet-iron	114 645	7. 96
Other manufactures of.	1	157.94
estner, manufactures of		59.08
Paintings, &c		47, 51
Paner and manufactures of		57, 71
ilk, manufactures of	.	30, 67
pirits and wines		196 19
Vood manufactures		

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Statement showing the imports of merchandise from Belgium, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Quantities.	Values.
Wool:		_
Raw	58, 717	\$12, 090 429, 170
Manufactures of		104, 196
Zinc, spelter, &c		796, 437
Total dutiable	1	4, 578, 675
Total free of duty		4, 578, 675 1, 148, 766
Total imports of merchandise		5, 727, 441
Total imports of merchandise, 1873.	<u>' '</u>	\$5, 711, 077
Total imports of merchandise, 1872.		5, 580, 461
Total imports of merchandise, 1871		4, 178, 714

BELGIAN HUSBANDRY.

Since 1830 the agricultural condition of the country has been much improved, and while it is not intended to enter at large upon this topic, yet the high state of cultivation, and the attractive appearance of the country presented to the author as he passed through it, in several directions, demands a passing notice. The golden grain was literally ready for the sickle, or the reaping-hook, for, owing to the cheapness of labor, the improvements in agricultural machinery were then used to but a limited extent in Belgium and the countries of Continental Europe.

The following paragraphs from Chambers's Journal afford interesting information on the subject under consideration:

In Eastern Flanders, of a hundred acres of land, seventy-two are sown with cereals and plants used in manufactures; twenty-eight with roots and forage; but to the latter must be added thirty-one acres of after-crop, which gives fifty-nine as affording excellent food for cattle, superior to common meadows, and which shows how poor land can pay a rent of five pounds an acre. The second sowing consists of turnips and spergula, after colza, flax, and early potatoes; and the carrot, which is sold in the spring with the preceding crops, and carefully hoed after they have been taken away. The clovers have occupied the ground during the winter, leaving it clear for April sowing; and the giant cabbage develops during the cold season, making a stem some six feet high, and giving abundant and excellent leaves for milch-cows. Culture thus pushed to the extreme necessarily requires some capital, and it is reckoned that, through a system of rigorous parsimony and saving, double the sum per acre is used in Belgium to that employed in England, and two-thirds more on the best farms. In this way the most dense population in Europe can subsist on a soil so little favored by nature.

Turning to one of the most fertile parts of Belgium, all, as has been said, is charming—every road is bordered with trees; not a rise in the ground is seen; all is calm, uniform, and presents an image of quiet, comfort, and peace. Each house is detached and surrounded with large apple-orchards hedged in by box, holly, or hawthorn, where the cows are brought to feed every morning and evening. It is of one story only and thatched, containing four rooms—the first for meals, the second for the dairy and preparing the food for cattle, and the others for sleeping-rooms. The old-fashioned oak furniture is a model of brightness; tin and copper utensils shine on the walls, which are whitewashed. The garden is gay with wall-flowers, dahlias, and hydrangeas, and the florists' flowers which are to be shown at Ghent.

Outside, everything is in its place; nothing spoils the greensward; the ditch and the manure-heap are banished; the latter is always under the roof of the stable or cowshed. In this stand five or six large cows, the constant care of the farmer's wife, who gives them abundance of green meat in summer, with straw, hay, and a kind of warm soup, mixed with carrots, turnips, or rye, in winter. Thanks to this nourishment, and the constant rest they enjoy, the animals give from fifteen to twenty-five quarts of milk daily. The tools are simple, but of first-class construction: the plow is light, drawn by one horse, and works with ease and regularity. The harrows are of various kinds, triangular, rectangular, and parallelogram; but the special tool with which the Fleming has fertilized lands, dried up marshes, and forced back the sea, is the spade. The proverb on the banks of the Scheldt is: "The spade is a gold mine to the peasant, and different kinds are made for light or heavy soil.

The fields are mostly square, and rarely contain more than an acre; the ground is curved symmetrically, the center being the highest, so that the water drains down equally in all directions. Round the field, and a foot lower, extends a strip of grass, three or four yards wide; still lower, a hedge is planted, which is cut every seven years; and finally, the plot is surrounded by a ditch bordered with trees of larger growth. Thus each piece furnishes rich grass, firewood every seven years, and timber for building every thirty years. The plow is generally used, but every seven years the subsoil is turned to the top by the spade, and thus it acquires a depth unknown to all but the best gardens; the principal object being to produce flax and butter, not cereals. The best farmers never sell their corn, but allow their cattle to consume it.

Unhappily, the farm-laborer there, as well as elsewhere, does not enjoy much comfort; working harder than most men, he is the worst fed. Rye-bread, potatos, beans, buttermilk, without meat or bacon, is the usual fare; chiccory the constant drink; beer reserved for Sundays and fair-days. His wages vary from ten pence to a shilling, and he could never live upon it did not all the members of his family work without ceasing. When the day's work is ended, often by moonlight, the father cultivates his small field; his wife and daughters take up the poorly-paid lace-work, in stead of the old spinning-wheel, which steam has superseded; his sons, when their field-work is done, bring up rabbits for the London market. Their little hands pick up every tuft of herbage on the roadside, and open up a large trade of exportation not to be despised. From Ostend alone there come to us 1,200,000 rabbits every year; these are skinned and cleaned in Belgium, where the skin is used for the making of hats Xet, although their life is so hard, the towns do not attract the rural population. Habit and family traditions bind them to the plow.

While grain is the chief product, flax is largely cultivated, especially in Flanders. The quality and mode of dressing which is practiced there is considered superior to that of any other country, and no doubt the superior quality of the lace fabricated in Ghent, Bruges, Malines, Mechlin, and Antwerp, as well as in Brussels, is in part due to the excellence of the raw material.

The farmers who raise their own flax generally spin and weave a sufficient quantity for their domestic wear, and sometimes for sale in the home market, while the principal part of the crop is reserved for conversion into fabrics as lace, ticks, checks, and thread for exportation.

WAGES AND SUBSISTENCE

Before presenting information in regard to the cost and condition of labor in Belgium, obtained in 1872, personally and through the assistance of others, the author submits some data of a similar character,

but which were collected and published in previous years.

It is to be regretted that the bureaus of statistics of Europe, while they have gathered, collated, and published detailed information on various subjects, in many cases thoroughly classified, which, in this utilitarian age, may be regarded—at least in a country like the United States, whose chief concerns are of a commercial and industrial character—as not of primary importance, have hitherto given but a limited share of attention to the great industrial and commercial interests. All knowledge is valuable, but while we are members of civil communities, the material interests of these communities should not, it is submitted, be regarded as of secondary importance. It is true that commercial information is, to some extent, gathered and imparted by governmental authorities, yet it cannot be denied that nearly the whole of the valuable facts relating to the industrial, and a large part of those relating to the commercial interests, of the various peoples, are procured by individuals or by chambers of commerce and other commercial or industrial associations.

With the exception of Great Britain, which country has made diligent inquiries into the rewards and condition of the working-classes of other

countries, for the purpose of comparison with those of her own workpeople, and of occasional inquiries by other governments into instances of widespread suffering, arising from the depressed condition of some particular industry, no official publications have been found from which to draw such information as was required in the preparation of this

report.

A notable exception to the above is here acknowledged with the more pleasure as it affords occasion to refer to that eminent scientist, the "father of modern statistics," the late M. Adolphe Quetelet, director of the roval observatory of Belgium. To him, more than to any one else, is due the origin and successful establishment of the International Statistical Congress, which held its first session at Brussels in September, 1853. The statistics of industry engaged the attention of the congress and some data were submitted, the forms for which had previously been prepared by the central committee of statistics and approved by the minister of Before submitting the plans to the congress it was deemed wise to subject them to the test of experiment; the blanks were transmitted to the provincial statistical committees with explanations as to the course to be pursued, and many took an interest in the kind of information to be obtained, and zealously set about gathering materials; others recoiled before a task which they did not think could lead to exact satisfactory results. In consequence of delays and hesitations inseparable from a new and difficult work confided to the good will of persons absorbed with their own duties, the time rolled away, and when the congress met the central committee had not received sufficient replies to make their submission to the congress practicable as a test. Later, however, the information was obtained and compiled by M. Ducpetiaux, and was published by the central commission of statistics in 1855.* in the value of the information afforded, in its fullness of detail or its arrangement, this admirable work may be justly regarded as a model, and now that the mutations in the cost and condition of labor have destroyed its value for contemporary purposes, it is a subject of deep regret that it has not been periodically followed by publications prepared upon the same plan, in which full and trustworthy information of a similar character might be brought down to the most recent date. both labor and subsistence have appreciated in the two decades which have intervened since the prices given in the work under consideration were obtained, the author of this report contents himself with the translation and presentation of a few of the tables published by M. Ducpetianx.



^{*} Budget économiques des classes ouvrières en Belgique, subsistances, salaires, population, par. Ed. Ducpetiaux, inspecteur général des prisons, et des établissements de bienfaisance, membré de la commission central de statistque, etc., Bruxelles, 1855.

WAGES IN 1854.

Average daily wages paid in various branches of industry in Belgium.

Industries.	Adult males.	Adult females.	Boys.	Girls.	Industries.	Adult males.	Adult females.	Boys.	Girle.
Coke and coal Metallurgy: Chief establishments. Secondary establish te. Artisans* Slate-factories, &c.: Factory-hands. Artisans Glass-factories: Factory-hands. Artisans Manuf tories of linen, &c.: Factory-hands Artisans Wool. Cotton: Factory-hands.	41. 4 40. 2 98. 6 25. 2 31. 4 29 51. 6 22. 8	Cente. 24.4 91.4 14.4 18.2 90 14.8 13.6 15 10.8 8.4 16.2 21.6	Cente. 17 13.4 9 7.4 11 12.4 14.8 8 9 7 11.6	Oents. 14.4 11.8 8.4 7.4 19 11 14 9.8 6 11.2	Silk Ribbons, fringe, &c. Gas-factory Wood: Factory-hands Artisans Leather: Factory-hands Artisans Paper and printing: Factory-hands Artisans Chemical products: Factory-hands Artisans Various trades	Oenta. 25 26 28 35. 6 24. 2 29 19. 2 28. 8 38. 6 29. 2 29. 6 32	Cente. 18.8 19.2 15.8 14.2 10 29.4 12.2 15.4 13.8 17 8.8 15.8	Oente 7.6 6.8 9.2 9.2 7.6 10 6.4 8.2 7.6 7.8 7.8	Cents. 11.8 6.5 12.4 5 5 8.4 8.4 8.9 6 5
Artisans	25	12.2	5	7. 2	General average	29. 8	14.2	10.8	7.8

^{*} By "artisana" here is meant persons working by themselves for their own account or that of the manufacturer.

WAGES IN LIÈGE.

Average wages per day paid to male laborers in the following industries.

[The franc computed at 20 cents.]

Cannon foundery:	- 4 .	
	Maximum.	Minimum.
Founders	. \$1 00	\$ 0 34
Laborers	. 35	30
Adjusters	. 60	32
Smiths		36
Strikers		34
Turners		36
Joiners		35
Masons		33
Iron-works:	•	
Firemen		
Smiths		
Puddlers	•	70
Laborers		29 '
Zine factory:		
Hours of labor	Voriman	Minimum.
		ALIMIN W.
Foreman	\$ 0 69	
Laborers12	47	
Stone-cutters	50	
Machinist 10		\$ 0 57
Joiner 10		40
Fireman 10		45

GHENT.

Fireman....

Daily wages of factory hands in Ghent.

	Maximum	Minimum.
Males	. \$2 00	\$0 25.4
Females	. 41	18
Boys, (12 to 16 years)	. 26	09
Children under 12 years	a 10 i	96
Digitized by	J00g	e

Taking the number of working days in a year at 278, (deducting for holidays, absence, accidental interruptions, &c.,) the average earnings per year would be—

For males at an average of 48 cents	\$ 131	44
For females at an average of 28 cents	75	
For boys of 12 to 16 at an average of 17 ¹ / ₂ cents	48	65

The lowest possible weekly expenses of a factory laborer's family with four young children in Ghent are thus given:

Bread, (wheat and rye)	2 0 92
Flour	02
Onions	02
Potatoes	45
Butter	48
Clothing	16
Coffee and chiccory	11
Fuel and light	20
Soap and starch	07
Milk	04
Rice	05
Vinegar, pepper, and salt	06 1
Total	2431

In cases of sickness aid is given by relief associations instituted among workingmen, which pay during sickness to laborers—

First class, per week	\$ 1 50
Second class, per week	
Third class, per week	45
Inird class, per week	40

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

Average annual income of workingmen's families in Belgium.

•	othe.		Wage	s or sala	other e.		
Province of—	vince of—		Husband.	Wife.	Children.	From all ot sources.	Total.
Brabant			\$60 19 95 16 143 38	\$17 40 22 25 31 50	\$36 53 44 07 55 00	\$14 60 21 09 28 68	\$128 79 182 57 258 56
Flanders, East	First Second Third.		58 40 99 18 135 30	11 61 15 30 16 39	33 13 31 74 44 44	6 15 12 88 18 12	109 29 159 10 214 25
Flanders, West	First Second Third.	Farm-laborer Shoemaker and one journeyman. Journeyman-carpenter	110 00	15 00 18 00	80 00 21 00 15 00	10 00 41 60 80 00	160 00 174 20 205 00
Antwerp	First Second Third.	Carpenter, with son and two jour-	60 00 74 00	10 00 20 00	12 00 34 00		82 00 128 00
Limbourg	First Second Third.		190 00 52 40 109 98	12 00 27 60	50 00 40 00	39 00 61 00 938 00	252 00 152 00 170 98 238 00
Hainaut	First Second Third.		79 50 160 16 222 60	19 08 76 32	50 88 111 30	7 42	156 88 160 16 410 22
Liege	First Second Third.	Printer	125 30 206 50	46 99 10 00 41 60	20 87 80 00	43 10	193 16 259 60 421 60
Namur	First Second Third.	Joiner	62 60 62 60	15 00 4 92	20 00 40 49	36 00 31 91	131 00 139 92
Luxembourg	First Second Third.	sons. Mason Shoemaker Carpenter	135 00 68 00 174 72 208 40	20 00 62 40 60 00	10 00 44 68 44 80	229 40 68 00 12 00 200 00	364 40 166 00 293 20 513 20

Average annual expenditure of workingmen's families in Belgium.

Province of—	Class of family.	Occupation.	Articles of a physical or material nature.	Articles of a religious or intellectual nature.	Luxuries.	Total.
Brabant	First	***************************************	\$122 60 172 04	89 47	\$4 00 3 40	\$126 60 177 91
Flanders, East	Third. First Second		937 48 114 63 159 80	8 14 1 56 1 50	5 98 1 73 2 15	251 56 117 99 163 45
Flanders, West	Third. First Second		175 21	1 45 10 00 2 28	1 96 8 82	176 35 147 62 177 49
Antwerp	Third. First Second	Journeyman-carpenter Day-laborer Weaver	118 17	1 00	7 46 3 53 4 08	995 46 121 70 127 73
Limbourg	Third First Second Third.	Carpenter, with son and two journeymen. Farm-laborer Foreman of distillery Gardener	216 40 170 19 156 20 218 17	3 80 4 00	24 95 6 00 10 67	945 15 176 19 170 87 224 22
Hainaut	First	Fireman Blacksmith	159 11 146 09	1 50 1 06 3 20 11 66	4 55 3 71 10 94 29 68	156 88 160 16 410 22
Liege	First Second	Printer Workman in warehouse	254 52 239 57	3 40 6 20	15 13 5 49	973 05 951 96
Namur	Third. First Second		119 99 133 04	6 40 1 90 59	11 94 9 00 4 46	403 99 129 49 138 09
Luxembourg	Third. First Second Third.	Coppersmith, family of six persons Mason Shoemaker Carpenter	325 40 156 50 222 68 306 52	15 04 57 87	12 00 9 40 15 06 23 20	337 49 165 90 252 80 387 59

Detailed statement of income and expenditure of a laborer's family, of six persons in the district of Brussels.

[1 hectoliter = 2.84 bushels. 1 kilog. = 2.2046 pounds. 1 frame = 20 cents, in United States equivalents]
INCOME.

From wages:	
Of husband, 270 days, 72 centimes (14.4 cents)	
30 days, 2 francs (40 cents)	
Of son of 18 years, 270 days, 72 centimes (14.4 cents)	
30 days, 2 francs (40 cents)	
Of son of 16 years, 100 days, 54 centimes (10.8 cents)	
	\$ 112 56
From other resources:	
75 acres of land rented:	
4 hectoliters wheat, at \$3.60	
4 hectoliters rye, at \$2.20	
500 kilograms potatoes, at \$1.60 per 100 kilograms 8 00	
78 kilograms butter, at 40 cents	
	62 40
1 calf, \$5; 1 fat pig, \$25	30 00
Products of garden:	
170 kilograms hops, \$22.88; fruits and vegetables, \$9.60; tobacco, \$1.40	33 88
Total income	238 84

EXPENDITURE.

·			•
Provisions:			
1 hectoliter wheat, at \$3.60	\$ 3 60		
20 hectoliters rye, at \$2.20 1,000 kilograms potatoes, at \$1.60 per 100 kilograms	44 00		
1,000 kilograms potatoes, at \$1.60 per 100 kilograms	16 00		
Vegetables	10 00		
75 kilograms pork, at 18 cents.	13 50		
10 kilograms beef, at 20 cents	2 00 8 00		
25 kilograms butter, at 32 cents	3 00		
Milk 400 eggs, at 80 cents per 100	3 20		
Salt, spices, &c	6 00		
25 kilograms coffee, at 40 cents	10 00		
10 kilograms chiccory, at 10 cents	1 00		
150 liters beer, at 17 cents	2 40		
-		\$122	70
Rent:			
For dwelling, containing 1 kitchen, 2 bedrooms, 1 pantry and			
stable, also small garden	\$7 00		
75 acres of farming land, and 20 acres garden	20 00		
<u> </u>		27	00
Clothing:			
Husband—2 pantaloons, \$2.60; 2 vests, \$1.20; 2 jackets, \$1.10; 2 blouses, \$2.40; 2 cravats, 40 cents; 2 handker-			
chiefs, 30 cents; 3 linen shirts, \$1.95; 2 drawers, 50			
cents; 2 caps, 60 cents; 2 pairs socks, 45 cents; 1 pair			
shoes, \$1.20; 4 pairs wooden shoes, 50 cents			
Son of 18 years, \$13.20; son of 16 years, \$8			
	34 40		
Wife—1 cotton dress, \$1.60; 2 petticoats, \$1.60; 2 linen			
shirts, \$1.20; 3 neck-handkerchiefs, 60 cents; 2 pocket-			
handkerchiefs, 20 cents; 2 pairs stockings, 50 cents; 2			
jackets, 80 cents; 2 aprons, 40 cents; 3 pairs wooden			
shoes, 30 cents; 1 pair shoes, 50 cents; 3 hats, 40 cents;			
pins, &c., 5 cents			
Daughter of 13 years, \$4; daughter of 10 years, \$2.40 6 40	14 22		
	14 55	AQ.	95
D. 33!		- 3 -C	•
Bedding:			
1 mattrass, \$1; 2 sheets, \$1; 2 covers, (cotton,) 80 cents; bolster,			
20 cents; straw for mattrass, 20 cents	3 20		
bed and bedding for sons, \$5.20; bed and bedding for daughters, \$2.	5 20	۵	40
Sundries:		0	40
	10 50		
Fuel—3,500 kilograms coal, at \$3.05 per 100 kilograms	1 50		
Light—10 liters oil, at 15 cents	2 00		
Sewing-thread, needles, &co	60		
Maintenance of dwelling	1 60		
Purchase, &c., of furniture	60		
Taxes and other contributions	1 93		
Tools for farming	1 36		
Expense on farm for seeds, &c	8 00		
<u> </u>		28	09
Church, 30 cents; books, pens, paper, &c., 60 cents; amusement, 60	cents;		
tobacco, \$1.40	•••••	2	90
Total expenditure	-	020	~
TOME OF BOHITMES		238	<u>س</u>
	-		
. BALANCE.			
Income		223 8	84
Expenditure		238	
Surplus			80
<u>-</u>		т	

Table showing details of income and expenditure of workmen's families in the province of Brabant, Belgium, in 1854.

(First class includes indigent laborers, partly supported by public charity; second class includes indigent laborers not supported by public charity; third class includes workmen in independent positions.) Amounts expressed in United States gold dollars—the franc computed at 20 cents.

	City	of Nive	ell es.	Comm	une of val.	Borni-	Comm	une of tain.	Hou-
Expenses.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.	First class.	Second class.	Third class
	Day-laborer.	Weaver.	Slater.	Resper.	Paper-box maker.	Sabot-maker.	Day-laborer.	Mason.	Cabinet-ma-
I.—OF A PHYSICAL OR MATERIAL NA- TURE.									
Provisions: Wheat-bread Rye-bread Mixed bread Potatoes and vegetables Mist Milk, eggs, and fish Butter, oil, and lard Spices, salt, &c Tea, coffee, and chicoory Beer, sider, and wine Rent Clothing Bedding Fuel Light Washing Care of health, bath, &c Treatment in sickness Repair and maintenance of dwelling. Purchase and repair of furniture Contributions and taxes Postage and other expenses. For tools, (excluding first purchase). Cost of garden or land	c\$78 62 g\$1 84 3 64 3 12 1 66 3 33 12 06 21 50 1 60 6 34 3 12 4 37 1 04	4 37 p8 73 1 66 3 64 11 96 14 00 2 00 10 40 4 37 2 60	5 200 5 200 7 48 1 46 5 72 15 60 21 60 3 00 11 44 4 16 5 20 1 66 2 00 3 00	\$30 00 16 00 4 00 2 00 2 00 2 00 3 00 12 00 6 00 2 00 1 20 8 00 1 20 8 00	16 00 8 00 3 00 5 00 4 00 2 40 10 00 2 00 8 00 2 00 3 00 8 00	39 00 m10 00 4 00 5 00 2 40 2 40 12 00 12 00 3 00 3 00 1 00 2 00 2 00	5465 52 532 76 60 5 72 8 74 8 00 29 70 4 00 1 56 2 50	#672 80 #32 76 #5 20 4 68 2 08 8 74 2 40 32 00 8 00 2 08 5 92	732 029 4 6 2 10 4 4 8 2 8
				1 60		2 40			6
Total	164 14	171 77	186 80	92 40	116 90	137 60	161 56	180 96	230
II.—RELIGIOUS AND INTELLECTUAL. Church								60	
Total								4 00	5
III.—FOR LUXURIES. Coffee-houses, saloons				60 1 60			1 04	6 65	5
Total	3 04	3 43	3 48	8 80	4 00	5 20	4 37	7 60	6
Total expenses	167 18	175 90	190 28	. 94 60	120 20	149 80	164 97	191 95	949
INCOME. Father's wages	93 86 45 08 22 53	30 00	111 60 54 00 22 52 4 00	54 00 10 00 92 00 10 00	76 00 10 00 22 00 90 00	80 00 12 00 24 00 23 00	60 00 16 00 59 90 6 00	78 00	
	161 47	172 40	192 12		128 00	139 00		195 00	

a 18 kiloga., at.82 cent per week; per pound, U. S., 3.8 centa.
5 21 kiloga., at.00 cent per day; per pound, U. S., 2.7 cents.
c 21 kiloga., at.76 cent per week; per pound, U. S., 3.45 cents.
d 20 kiloga., at.92 cent per week; per pound, U. S., 3.8 cents.
c 20 kiloga., at.07 cent per day; per pound, U. S., 3.8 cents.
f 20 kiloga., at.07 cent per week; per pound, U. S., 3.18 cents.
g 21 kiloga., at.02 cent per week; per pound, U. S., 3.9 cent.
A 17 kiloga., at.02 cent per week; per pound, U. S., 9.0 cent.
A 17 kiloga., at.02 per week.

^{4 14} kiloga, at .03 cent per day; per pound, U. S., 9 cent. 3 5 kiloga, at .018 cent per day; per pound, U. S., .3 cent. 5 kiloga, at .018 cent per day; per pound, U. S., .5 cent. 2 5 kiloga, at .018 cent per week; per pound, U. S., .5 cent. 3 kiloga, at .018 cent per week; per pound, U. S., .5 cent. 5 kiloga, at .00 cent per day; per pound, U. S., 9 cents. 5 kiloga, at .00 cent per week; per pound, U. S., 9 cents. 9 kiloga, at .004 cent per week; per pound, U. S., 9 cents. 9 kiloga, at .004 cent per day; per pound, U. S., 4 55 cents.

Table showing details of income and expenditure of workmen's families, &c.-Continued.

	Comm	ne of W Braine.	authier	Commu	ne of It	erbeck.	Commu	ne of Le Pierre.	e of Leuw St. Pierre.		
Expenses.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.		
	Farm-labor- er.	Slater.	Мавоп.	Farm-labor- er.	Carpenter.	Shoemaker.	Day-laborer.	Day-laborer.	Laborer in china-ware.		
L-of a physical or ma- terial nature.									-		
Provisions: Wheat-bread	\$87 36 \$6 00 \$ 08 15 60	\$109 20 90 80 6 94 1 04 15 60	\$152 88 	\$31 20 \$0 80 10 40 4 68 16 64	\$31.20 20.80 4.68 9.36	\$36 40 20 80 10 40 4 68 16 64	\$52 00 15 60 4 99 16 64	\$72 80 18 72 20 80 4 99 31 90	\$72 80 18 72 41 60 10 00 41 60		
Tea, coffee, and chicocry Reer cider and wine	3 19 5 90 5 90	3 12 5 20	3 33 11 24 7 28 5 00	1 56 3 19	1 56 3 19	1 56 3 19	3 64 8 39	8 32 8 32 5 62	19 48 14 56		
Rent Clothing Bedding Fuel Light Washing Care of health, bath, &c	91 59 1 04 8 73 4 16 1 04	90 80 10 40 8 73 4 37 2 60	46 90 7 80 8 73 4 37 2 60	1 90 4 00 2 08 1 25	5 90 2 08 1 25 1 20	5 90 9 08 1 25	20 00 2 00 8 00 1 60 4 00	48 00 4 00 9 60 2 84 6 00	96 00 8 00 10 40 3 20 8 00		
Treatment in sickness Repair and maintenance of dwelling	1 04	1 04	90 80 5 00	•••••	1 20		2 00	6 00 5 60	8 00 7 00		
Purchase and repair of fur- niture Contributions and taxes Postage and other expenses For tools, (excluding first	1 04 33 8 39	73 83	5 00 3 60 40				1 20 90	3 60 5 00 40	8 00 8 00 80		
purchase)		8 39 63	8 00 2 00				2 40	5 20	5 20		
Total	191 78	994 85	376 90	107 33	90 85	119 53	143 19	967 01	374 36		
II.—RELIGIOUS AND INTEL- LECTUAL. Church			3 19								
School Books, &c Subscription, &c., in charity Savings-bank			5 20 1 04		1 88		•••••	4 80 2 00	6 40 3 00		
Total			9 36		1 88			6 80	9 40		
Coffee-houses, saloons Tobacco		1 04	2 60 1 25				4 16	2 08 5 20	41 60 10 40		
Public festivities, &c Interest on loans				•••••		,		2 00	6 00		
Total		1 04	3 85 389 41	107 83	92 73	112 53	4 16	9 28	58 00 433 36		
Total expense INCOME.	797 19	**** OF	309 11	101 83	## 13	112 33	177 33	#03 UI	303 30		
Father's wages	72 00 20 00 64 00 20 00	90 00 94 00 89 00 36 00	176 00 34 00 150 00 70 00	45 00 94 00 19 00	80 00 8 00 3 40	90 00 18 00 4 53	45 00 6 90 43 00 20 00	121 60 60 50 91 20	991 90 72 80 79 90		
Total	176 00	232 00	430 00	88 00	91 40	192 53	114 00	273 60	443 90		

Table showing details of income and expenditure of workmen's families, &c.-Continued.

	City	of Aera	chot.	City of Tirlemont.			Commune of Lubbesk.		
Expenses.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.
-	Day-laborer.	Day-laborer.	Day-laborer.	Day-laborer.	Tailor.	Machinist.	Day-laborer.	Day-laborer.	Day-laborer.
I.—OF A PHYSICAL OR MA- TERIAL NATURE.									
Provisions: Wheat-bread	\$20 39	\$20 39	820 39	\$ 59 57	\$52 57	\$ 31 90 11 94	\$57 20	\$7 28 52 00	\$10 S
Rye-bread	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •								
Potatoes and vegetables Meat	90 60	20 60 19 40	90 60 18 20	10 20	15 28 20 80	27 20 31 20	9 19	99 19 3 19	30 S
Milk, eggs, and fish Butter, oil, and lard Spices, salt, &c	2 92 4 00	3 20 7 80	5 84 11 65	10 40 1 67	96 00 1 67	11 00 62 40 4 00	5 10 4 96 2 91	10 20 16 12 2 91	91 9 94
Tea, coffee, and chiccory Beer, cider, and wine	11 65	11 65	11 65 14 00	6 88	90 80 6 24	10 40 94 00	4 37	9 67 8 73	12 16
Rent	10 00 35 00	16 00 35 00	19 00 42 60	14 00 3 90	90 00 90 00	40 00 20 00	18 20 16 00	15 00 28 00	99 /
Clothing Bedding Fuel	2 00 6 00	3 00 6 00	2 60 6 00			15 00	5 00 8 00	7 00 19 00	40 10 20
Light	1 00	1 20	1 20	1 05	7 00 2 00	10 40	2 00	3 00	4 (
Light Washing Care of health, bath, &c Treatment in sickness	3 00	3 40	4 00				3 02 1 00	6 03 1 60	6
Treatment in sickness Repair and maintenance of dwelling	2 00	2 00	3 20			6 00	1 00	2 00	10
Purchase and repair of fur-									5
niture	2 00	2 00	5 00	••••••	•••••	••••••	2 00 80 40	4 00 1 40 1 20	6
For tools, (excluding first purchase)			9 00				90	2 40 6 00	8 7
Total	190 56	149 64		99 97	192 36	304 04	141 18	230 78	334
II.—RELIGIOUS AND INTEL- LECTUAL.									
Church School Books, &c			4 80		··.··		•••••		9
Books, &co			*******						1 :
Subscription, &c., incharity Savings-bank							•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	1 :
Total			4 80						11
III.—FOR LUXURIES.									
Coffee-houses, saloons Fobacco Ornament in dress	5 20 1 45	7 80 1 45	15 60 1 45		10 40 1 25	12 00 3 00	14 15	1 95 14 15	14
Public festivities, &c	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	•••••	••••••		•••••	•••••			••••••
Total	6 65	9 25	17 05		11 65	15 00	14 15	15 40	15
Total expenses	197 21	151 69	216 78	99 97	204 01	319 04	155 33	946 18	361
INCOME.									
Father's wages	54 00 18 00	100 00 14 28	150 00 11 00 35 20	73 00 14 00	146 00 29 20	219 00 36 50 36 50	50 00 10 00	73 00 16 00	196 36 54
Children's wages From other sources	36 00 19 21	37 60	35 20 20 67	12 97	36 40	36 50 25 03	16 00 6 00	94 90 18 00	46

IRON, GLASS, AND OTHER INDUSTRIES.

The following extracts from the report of the Chamber of Commerce of Charleroi, in May, 1872, furnish valuable information in regard to the most important industries of that part of Belgium:

Statistics of metallurgy.

Works.	1960.	1870.	1871.
SMELTING-WORKS.			
Workshops, (No. 1). Active furnaces, (No. 1). Inactive furnaces, (No. 1). Number of workmen. Manufactured products tons. Molding-iron do. Refining-iron. do.	95 13 9, 340 307, 446 19, 649	13 25 25 2, 263 397, 743 30, 520 297, 226	13 97 14 2, 319 598, 196 31, 590 327, 600
ROLLING-MILLS.			
Workshops Puddling-farnaces Reheating-furnaces Steam-engines Horse-power of steam-engines Hydraulic wheels Horse-power of hydraulic wheels Products Horse-town employed Products tons	333 132 190 5, 939 3 115 7, 169	90 365 149 909 6, 338 3 115 7, 119 983, 495	90 394 162 923 6, 567 3 115 7, 139 936, 441
PORGING AND CONDENSING ESTABLISHMENTS.			
Workshops. Furnaces with reverberators Open furnaces. Steam-engines Horse-power of steam-engines Hydraulic wheels Horse-power of hydraulic wheels. Workmen engaged. Products tons.	17 49 5 63 34 949 196	90 19 39 5 63 34 419 903 4,023	21 93 41 5 63 34 429 223
FOUNDERIES.			
Workshops in action Cupolas Steam-engines Horse-power of steam-engines Workmen engaged Products tons	79 39 390	43 85 36 909 944 18, 486	42 80 39 318 993 20, 337
TOTALS.			
Workmen engaged Cast iron produced tons Value of cast iron produced france Wrought iron produced tons Value of wrought iron produced france.	10, 607 336, 984 25, 826, 930 264, 449 44, 319, 300	10, 609 346, 234 97, 973, 645 987, 518 50, 883, 608	10, 672 380, 157 30, 578, 224 240, 702 44, 320, 040

CONSTRUCTION WORKS.

The works, or establishments for the construction of machinery, participated in the general favorable movement of the latter part of 1871. The demand for stationary machinery, apparatus, and tools for the coal-mining and for metallurgical workshops, exceeded the ordinary means of producing them, and resulted in the rapid extension of business, which largely benefited our working-classes.

This beneficial effect made itself also felt over the repair-shops of our country.

In our last report we had to call attention to the limited relations our works had

This beneficial effect made itself also felt over the repair-shops of our country. In our last report we had to call attention to the limited relations our works had with foreign countries. This year we are enabled to make the most satisfactory statements on this point, as orders of importance were transmitted to some of our principal constructors from Russia, Germany, and France, and everything tends to indicate that these relations will continue and increase. A considerable number of pieces of machinery and locomotive-wheels, of wrought iron, were delivered to Prussia, although they were taxed at the rate of 4.35 francs (87 cents United States coin) per 100 kilograms on entering the German Zollverein.

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NAILS.

The wrought-nail manufacture continues in the state of balf existence mentioned in our last report, and threatens to decline more every year to finally be reduced to a few specialities for exportation.

The buyers, foreseeing the rise in the prices of split iron, hastened to secure the stock on hand, thus still more advancing the prices which, together with high labor,

rendered difficult the manufacture of this article.

The machine-nail manufacture has maintained itself during the past stormy period in good condition, not having had to contend with French competition. It is expected to continue to prosper, owing to the perfected and economical modes of fabrication acquired by the Belgian manufacturers. There is but the slightly advanced price of raw material, which could in any manner affect the position of the Belgian trade in this article.

GLASS-WORKS.

The disastrous events which have so strongly marked the last months of the year 1870 continued to exercise their depressing influence on the commencement of 1871. Notwithstanding this, the situation of the window-glass industry could be called a relatively good one. Owing to the small exportation to France and Germany prior the war, our manufacturers suffered less during the same, and survived without much difficulty the terrible days of 1870, and while the fears of a general European conflagration were about being quenched, the furnaces recommenced work. Their number had sunk to 89 during the war, but by the 1st of January, 1871, there were 118, and a short time after 128, in activity. The number of active furnaces before the war was 119.

First-quality glass found ready sales in England and the United States, which are

still our best customers.

The statistics of the window-glass exports for 1871 show a large decrease on those of the previous years; the quotations show a constant rising of the prices, both on account of high wages for labor and the upward tendency of the market fluctuation, as well as the defective quality of the raw material. The sulphate of soda, which rose from 9½ to 10, 11, and even 12 francs, and the impossibility the manufacturers are placed in to procure the necessary qualities for the manufacture of a good article—an impossibility arising from the poor means of transportation—are serious obstacles to the prosperity of the window-glass trade.

TOTAL EXPORTS OF WINDOW-GLASS.

	1869.	1870.	187L
Kilograms	45, 898, 254	40, 847, 233	28, 487, 933

It will be seen that the increase of 1869 over 1871 amounts to 17,410,321 kilograms, and is consequently yet greater than that of 1870 over 1871, the latter being of 12,359,300 kilograms. There was a marked decrease in our most important outlets.

Countries.	1871.	1870.	1869.
	Küograms.	Kilograms.	Kilograms.
Ingland	12, 664, 179	18, 194, 241	19, 251, 047
Inited States	5, 369, 775	8, 167, 166	9, 906, 334
weden and Norway	17, 350	56,587	10,604
Denmark	329, 146	796, 050	758,949
Ianseatic cities	2,082,571	2, 536, 118	3, 666, 218
taly		447, 145	373, 24
witzerland	83, 362	204, 024	395, 32
Austria	186, 091	403, 405	498.00
Curkey	962,688	2, 481, 210	2, 164, 39
gypt	204.020	346, 555	590, 10
iritish possessions	720.880	1, 333, 464	1, 239, 16
uba and Porto Rico	202, 962	320, 538	56.57
Brazil	155, 534	336, 272	545, 40
Rio de la Plata	317. 324	582,438	755, 47
bili and Peru	532, 680	596, 658	451.88
All other countries	163, 616	207, 024	751, 13

The greatest occupation of the manufacturers during the last winter was the difficulty of obtaining the necessary coal for the supply of their establishments. Notwithstanding all the steps taken by the special delegates of commerce and industry to the government, or the repeated reclamations made by all the heads of workshops,

the state of affairs at our establishments remained in the same critical condition. The want of the material did not only prevent the shipment of the products to Antwerp at certain stipulated dates, but, and what is worse, caused the forced interruption of work at the shops.

Such was the position the owners of our glass-works were placed in for several months; expecting to be forced to stop their establishments at any moment, and in the mean time continuing to work with coal of improper quality, procured wherever it

could be had.

BOTTLE-MANUFACTURE.

The manufacture of bottles has kept pace with the movements of the window-glass industry. Under the influence of the general resumption of business, the last month of 1871 brought with them a more favorable situation. There are in this country fourteen bottle-works, twelve of which were in operation during the year 1871, and each of them produced an average of 900,000 to 1,000,000 bottles per year. Each of these kilns consumes some 200,000 kilograms of coal per month.

JUMET. BELGIUM.

Jumet, the seat of the window-glass manufacture, a village some four miles distant from Charleroi, was visited in September, 1872, by the author, some of whose notes are appended. He regretted his inability to see Mr. André, to whom he bore a letter, but that gentleman subsequently furnished the desired information in regard to the glass industry of Belgium in a letter, extracts from which are here presented:

JUMET. November 18, 1872.

DEAR SIR: *

Urgent business prevented me from answering your inquiries

before this day.

I inclose herewith, 1, statements of the rates of wages, &c., paid in this country to blowers, gatherers, teasers, flatteners, glass-cutters, packers, pot-makers, laborers, clerks, foremen, managers, &co., in window-glass works; 2, the percentage of the cost of manufacturing 100 feet, &co.; 3, names and number of establishments which are owned and worked by glass-makers.

You are no doubt aware that the Belgian window-glass manufacturers export their roduce to all the markets of the world; and they are able to undersell any nation that exports glass. I should think the fact that the Belgian manufacturers can sell their glass cheaper than any foreign manufacturer, is mainly owing to cheap labor and large production for each man. For, (except this year,) coals and sulphate of soda have always been much cheaper in England than they were here; the former 30 per cent. to 50 per cent. lower for coals used in glass-works, the latter 10 to 12 per cent. lower. Now, coals and sulphate of soda are used in very large proportion in glass-making.

The Belgian window-glass manufacture has not been a profitable business for many firms during a great number of years. Of thirty-six establishments which have failed or suspended with loss of money since the year 1842, fifteen were owned and worked by men who had previously been employed as glass-makers, foremen, managers, and

clerks.

Rates of wages paid to window-glass makers in Belgium in 1872, per calendar month.

Occupation.	No. 1.	No. 2	No. 3.	Occupation.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.
Blower		\$120 100	\$100 80	Glass-cutter, (supplies his own diamonds.)	\$20	\$20	\$16
Do	80	80	70	Sorter, (to select the qualities of	32	30	24
Teaser, to melt	35	35	30	glass.)		ł	ĺ
Teaser, to refine	40	40	40	Packer	20	18	16
Teaser	32	32	30	Miller, (to grind materials, &c)	18	18	18
Teaser helper	18	18	18	Mixer, (to mix material)		18	18
Flattener	40	36	30	Pot-maker	40	30	30
Do		32	28	Pot-maker helper	90	20	16
Do		30	26	Blacksmith	25	25	£5
Flattener helper		16	16	Carrier	20	20	20
Flattener, 5 lads	12	12	12	Laborer in the yard	18	18	18
Glass-cutter, (supplies his	30	30	26	Girls in the yard	10	10	10
own diamonds.)	1	1	"	Foreman		36	30
Do	26	24	99	Manager		70	50

Percentage of cost of window-glass.

	In 1860.	In 1879.
abor	Per cent.	Per cent.
Materials	99	99
Fuel		10
Packing Ottery Jeneral expenses	5 7	5
	100	100

REMARKS BY MR. ANDRÉ.

Each blower employs his own gatherer, and pays him his wages out of his own earnings, at the rates of \$40 for the very best; \$35 for good hands; \$30 for second class; and \$26 for third-class gatherers. There are not above ten blowers whose monthly wages average \$180. They blow very large and heavy pieces; which article is in very limited demand. Glass-makers work about forty-eight to forty-nine weeks a year; the three or four weeks remaining are required to repair the furnace.

As a matter of course, managers and clerks earn higher salaries in large glass-works than those employed in small concerns; with regard to the salary of foremen, there is little difference in large or small establishments.

Window-glass blowers, gatherers, flatteners, and teasers work on Sundays and feast days. The Belgian window-glass manufacturers do not lodge their workmen, nor do they supply them with any fuel, as the English manufacturers do.

There are no unions among the Belgian glass-makers; and there has been no strike among them since the year 1826.

Though the Belgian glass-makers are not now so hardworking, so steady, so saving, or so sober as they were twenty or thirty years ago, yet I consider them superior in the above respects to the French and the English glass-makers. When I was manager of glass-works in England I used to employ English, Belgian, and French glass-makers; and it is from the experience I have of them that I give this opinion. I may observe that I am not biased by any national partiality or prejudices, as I am a native of France.

Among the saving Belgian glass-makers, there are several who are now manufacturers. These firms are the following:

Name of firm.		Formerly—
Schmidt, Devilley & Co. Joseph Devilley & Co. L Mondron Schmidt Fròres. Bastin & Wilhelms Schmidt Bratten & Co. Monoyer, Defer & Co. A Andris & Co. Manderlier & Co. L Greff & Co. Mayem & Co. E. Deweyre & Co. Dellent Fròres. A Missone. Deulin Goffe & Co. Coquiamont & Co. Laurent, Lettines & Co. Laurent, Lettines & Co.	5552231222222211	Blowers. Teasors. Blowers. Do. Managers. Blowers. Glass-catters. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Blowers. Do. Blowers. Do. Blowers. Do. Blower. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do.

The foregoing information from Mr. André, who has had experience as a manager of glass-works in France and England, as well as in Belgium, and who has a thorough and practical acquaintance with the subject, renders any extended extracts from the notes of the author

unnecessary. A few facts may, however, be presented from the author's note-book:

Jumet, September 24, 1872.—Came from Namur to Charleroi by rail, 36 miles, passing through the southeastern part of Belgium, which is devoted to the manufacture of iron and glass. From Charleroi, came out to this place in a carriage, and visited the large glass-works of Messrs. Bennert & Bivort. They employ nearly 1,000 work-people, some of whom have been with them for twenty years, and have laid by considerable money, some being worth 50,000 francs. Many of them own the houses in which they live, and even where this is not the case, each family occupies a whole house. If otherwise, there is a separate entrance to each tenement or suite of rooms. The rental of dwellings is as follows: For four or five rooms, 20 francs (\$4) per month; larger houses, 40 francs, (\$8.) For the very best, only 60 francs, (\$12.) each house having a piece of land for a garden attached.

The earnings of the workmen are as follows: A few blowers of great skill earn as high as 40 francs (\$8) a day, or 1,000 francs (\$200) per month, out of which they pay

the gatherer.

the gatherer.

The net earnings of blowers average 7½ francs (\$1.50.) per day. Those who press the glass average 4 francs, (80 cents.) The great mass of the workmen, including those who cut the cylinders into panes, each from 3 to 4 francs (72 to 96 cents) per day. Unskilled laborers from 2 to 3 francs (40 to 60 cents) per day. Women and girls earn but ½ francs (30 cents) per day. In the fields near Jumet, and in the towns on the railway where they are employed in shoveling coal and in other unpleasant work, women earn almost ½ francs (30 cents) per day. Here, as elsewhere, there has been a considerable advance from the rates formerly paid. The price of provisions is moderate, though much higher than formerly. Went into a little shop which sold bread and ascertained that the price of a loaf of good white bread (weighing 2½ kilograms) was one franc, (20 cents,) being a little under 4 cents per pound. This firm does a very extensive business, and sells largely to the United States. Afthough there is no passenger railway to Charleroi, they have built a railway on which they transport their merchandise to the station. The facilities which Jumet presents for the manufacture of glass consist in the abundance of raw material—sand, lime, and coal—all being in the vicinity. Coal has doubled in price, costing now from 22 to 25 francs (\$4.40 to \$5) per 1,000 kilograms, (about an English ton,) the price a year or two ago being but from 10 to 12 francs, (\$2 to \$2.40.)

I did not stop, as I intended, at Floreffe, where most of the plate-glass used in the

United States is made.

PAPER-MAKING.

The manufacture of paper, although now one of the large industries of Belgium, was not introduced into that country until toward the end of the seventeenth century; its progress was not rapid during the eighteenth, but during the last fifty years it has so much developed that the exports of paper have since that time been very extensive, especially to England. Although the exports to the United States have been greatly curtailed by our high tariff, yet they reach a considerable aggregate.

The extent of the paper industry, and the extremely low rates of wages which prevailed in 1849, are indicated in the following state-

ment:

Number of work-people employed.—Adults: males, 771; females, 789; total, 1,560. Children under 16: boys, 232; girls, 152; total, 384. Aggregate, 1,944.

Daily wages.—Under 50 centimes, (10 cents:) 6 men, 24 women, 158 boys, 115 girls; under 1 franc, (20 cents:) 121 men, 756 women, 70 boys, 37 girls; from 1 to 1½ francs. 442 men, 33 women, 4 boys; from 1½ to 2 francs: 173 men; above 2 francs, 35 men.

Percentage of adults earning less than 1 franc: men, 15.7; women, 96.

Percentage of adults earning under 1½ francs: men, 7.3; women, 100.

Percentage of adults earning over 1½ francs: men, 27.

It appears, therefore, that all the women, and 73 per cent of the men, received, in 1849, a daily wage of less than 30 cents, while 96 per cent. of the women earned less than 20 cents per day. The advance in the rates of wages paid in this industry in 1872 over 1849 was nearly, or quite, 100 per cent.

GODIN AND SON'S PAPER-MILLS.

In the exhibition of the World's Industry at London, in 1851, Belgium

was only represented by one firm, Messrs. J. L. Godin & Son, of Huy,* and attention was particularly called to the extent and excellence of their collection of paper of every description. A prize medal was awarded to them "for a large variety of printing, writing, and drawing papers, in all of which great perfection was attained." period the products of the mills at Huy have obtained a high reputation in foreign markets, especially in England, to which country large exports are made.

As it was deemed important to ascertain the cost of labor in an industry whose products enter into a spirited competition with similar productions of the United States, the author took occasion to visit Huy for that purpose in September, 1872. The following extracts from his notes

are presented:

Huy, Belgium, September 23, 1872.—Came here from Liège and Seraing on Saturday and remained to visit the paper-mills of Mesers. J. L. Godin & Son, which are said to be the largest in the world. I was cordially received by Mr. Dusenburg, the director, who courteously gave me the information asked for, and sent a clerk to show me through the mills which are close to this old town, the other mills being some six or seven miles distant. The senior partners are deceased, and the mills are owned by a company, which retains the name of the firm, which had obtained a high reputation.

company, which retains the name of the firm, which had obtained a high reputation. The daily production is about 25,000 kilograms, (nearly 25 tons.) I saw the record of three machines which made last year (1871) 3,192,103 kilograms of paper. They are now working to full capacity, running on Sundays, or about 363 days in the year. Limestone abounds in the neighborhood, and the coal is brought from near Seraing. The price of coal, which was formerly 6 francs, is now 18 francs (\$3.60) per ton, of 1,000 kilograms. The water is said to be excellent for the purpose desired. They make white, colored, and blue writing-papers, (the latter chiefly for the English market,) and fine printing-papers, for illustrated journals. Also, straw paper, using 6,000 kilograms (6 tons) of straw per day. They also use esparto grass extensively. Besides the fabrication of writing-papers, they make and sell ruled paper, and are extensively engaged in the manufacture of envelopes.

They export their products to England, Capada, and other countries, but not much

They export their products to England, Canada, and other countries, but not much to the United States, owing, as the director alleged, to our high tariff.

The machinery was chiefly made in this town, though some of it is of English make.

The mills are very clean and sweet, and everything is done to render them healthy for the work-people. They employ in all about four hundred persons, chiefly women and girls. The latter are cleanly, neatly dressed for work, (except the rag-sorters and cutters,) bright, intelligent, and apparently happy.

The price which the company pays for rags was indicated on a card, of which the

following is a verbatim copy:

"Cotons brut, 40 fr. p. 100 kilos. "Toile à voile, 55 " " 100 "

Which, in United States coin, is 3.628 cents per pound for common cotton rags, and about 5 cents (4.99) for old sail-cloth.

EARNINGS.

Nearly all the employes are paid on a basis established by the late Mr. Godin, after years of study and computation, each receiving pay in proportion to the work performed. The daily earnings are as follows:

zormou. The daily carnings are as renons.		
	Francs.	United States coin.
Women, the most industrious and best skilled	21	\$0.50
ordinary		0.40
inferior, and girls	. 14	0.30
rag-sorters and cutters	. 2	
Men, engine-men and machinists	.7 to 8	\$1.40 to \$1.60
assistants	- 4 to 6	\$0.80 to \$1.20
other workmen	. 4	0.80
Some laborers and youths as low as, but none less than	. 3	0,60

The foremen or superintendents of machines receive about 15 francs per day, or by the year, 2,500 francs, (\$500;) first assistants, 10 francs, (\$2;) other assistants and paper-cutters, 6 francs (\$1.20) per day.

The average earnings of the women are nearly or quite 2 francs per day, the larger

part receiving that amount. Wages have greatly increased, of late, in this and other industries.

Mr. Dusenburg stated that there is but little emigration from this part of Belgium, parents being unwilling to part with their children, although they can do better in the United States. As the cost of living is small and families usually large, the earnings of families amount to large sums in the aggregate. He mentioned the case of one family, of which the father and several sons and daughters worked in the mills, and to whom he paid last year 10,000 francs (\$2,000) as the result of their earnings.

House-rent is low here, four rooms costing from 12 to 15 francs (\$2.40 to \$3) per

month, as I learned from some of the work-people who paid these prices. Others paid

from 150 to 200 francs per year for three rooms.

The price of provisions here is low, indeed the whole cost of living must be low, as indicated by my bill at L'Aigle Noir, the best hotel in the place, which for an excellent room and good fare was about the same for two days as was charged for one day's accommodations elsewhere.

In the earnings of the employés in the Godin paper-mills, as given above, it must be borne in mind that the figures do not indicate the regular rates of wages, but the respective amounts which were earned by women of skill and industry. However unfavorable a comparison may be made between the industry of the work-people of Belgium and those of England and the United States in some industries or in the paper manufacture elsewhere, it is certain that in no mill or factory which the author has visited on either side of the Atlantic have the activity and industry been more apparent than in the Godin paper-

Small in territory as Belgium is, there are marked differences between the inhabitants of the different provinces. The condition of the working-classes of Antwerp and of many parts of Flanders, as described in succeeding pages, is much worse than in many other portions of the king-The industry and thrift, the neat appearance and good conduct of the employés of the paper-mills at Huy are more apparent when contrasted with those of

THE PAPER-MILLS AT DUFFEL, NEAR ANTWERP.

Being unable to visit this establishment, the author is under obligations to J. Riley Weaver, esq., United States consul at Antwerp, for the following translation of a statement, prepared by the proprietor, Mr. De Kuyff Demeurs, dated 1872:

My manufactory employs about 130 operatives, men, women, and children, producing about 70,000 kilograms of paper per month. These work-people are grouped into more than thirty different classes. They are all paid by the piece, that is to say, they are paid more or less according to the quantity and quality of the work effected at the end of each fourteen days. It would require several tables to explain the regulations, and persons unacquainted with our industry would not readily comprehend them.

Some of our special workmen make from 3 to 10 francs (60 cents to \$2) per day. Ordinary laborers make from 1½ to 2½ francs (30 to 50 cents) per day, and the women earn from 1 to 1.20 francs (20 to 24 cents) per day. The factory goes night and day, the operatives attending every six hours. The workmen observe fête days, Sundays, the

great church festivals, and two annual fête days of the commune.

They are in general ignorant, poor, and miserable; but few can read; none have any idea of hygiene, of morals, or of economy. They are all addicted to drink, and carry to the estaminet (liquor-shop) a large part of their earnings, which they ought to bestow upon the well-being of their families. It is only by the strictest supervision that we can secure the proper execution of the work.

As to the expenditure necessary to sustain one of our workmen's families, I am unable to give you any indication, as that depends upon and varies according to the habits of the family. A good wife is the providence of the workingman. Here the wives are

not, in general, much superior to the men.

As compared with the mills at Huy, it will be observed that the earnings are much less, the women in the one receiving, on an average, 40 cents, and in the other but 22 cents, while the difference in the wages of the men is equally marked. In the relative condition there is also a wide divergence; in the one place good conduct and thrift, in the other intemperance and poverty. Digitized by Google

ANTWERP.

Antwerp is the principal sea-port of Belgium, situated on the river Schelde, where magnificent steamers and sailing-vessels from every part of the world are to be seen in its commodious docks. It was formerly one of the most important commercial cities in Europe. In the height of its prosperity it is said to have contained two hundred thousand inhabitants. An old author says that twenty-five hundred vessels were to be seen at one time at its docks, laden with the productions of all quarters of the globe. It is said that Napoleon endeavored to make Antwerp the rival of London in its commerce and the rival of Portsmouth as a naval establishment. He regarded the frontier of the Rhine, with Antwerp, as indispensable to the prosperity of France. Antwerp, though not celebrated for its manufactures, enjoys a high reputation for its encouragement of the arts. It is either the birth-place or the home of Rubens, Van Dyke, Teniers, Jordaens, and Quentin Matsys, whose great works still remain in their native or adopted city. In past centuries there were over thirty silk-factories in existence, employing more than four thousand operatives. In the manufacture of sewing-silk the city is still conspicuous.

COST AND CONDITION OF LABOR IN ANTWERP.

The following letter and its accompanying statements were transmitted, at the date indicated, by Mr. Consul Weaver:

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES, Antworp, December 23, 1872.

DEAR SIB: In response to your request I inclose a tabular statement showing the average weekly wages earned by the laborers in the several trades, and also a statement showing the average prices of provisions, groceries, and house-rent for laborers at Antwerp during the year 1872.

Upon a superficial examination of this entire question, I found it utterly impossible to do anything like justice in reference to it, taking into account the difficulty of getting at the facts, and then deducing correct averages; but the question is one of so much importance that I thought it best to let you have what facts I have personally collected, and such suggestions as have occurred to me. I have been aided greatly by the reports for 1871 and 1872 of Mr. Grattan, British consul at Antwerp, with which I have compared and verified my figures. You are aware of the almost distrust that is manifested by the laboring people of the scountry when you question them as to their wages or mode of living. Even people of the better class have to be approached very judiciously to get anything like the correct prices. Either from fear or shame, they prefer not to disclose their actual condition. To give the various rates in each trade would be extremely interesting, but I have not the means of doing so accurately enough to be valuable. The rate of wages depends entirely upon the ability of the laborer and the time employed. Generally they work twelve hours per day in summer and ten in winter, and are paid by the hour. A record of the time worked each day is kept, and at the close of the week they are paid. Day-laborers are paid daily, but in the regular employments weekly; boys, girls, women, and men are employed, and receive wages as various as the number of hands employed. In but a few employments can the workmen be induced to work by the job; they prefer the hour system. As a general thing they are very deficient in skill, and very slow; one hand in the United States performing easily the work of three in Antwerp, and doing a better job. The manufacture of cigars is quite a specialty at Antwerp. At one of these factories they employ chiefly women and girls, and I am informed that they succeed fully as well as the men. They use machinery in making the filler or "poupon," which, for common cigars, works well and rapidl

To those who work by the hour, he pays from 4 to 50 centimes per hour, the work

ing time averaging ten and one-half hours in winter, and as the wages average 5 cents per hour, the earnings are 521 cents per day. These are the wages of packers, boxers, and carters

It has been computed that a workman in Belgium cannot, on an average, make more than 500 francs (\$100) per year. How he makes both ends meet is a profound mystery. But the wife and each child, as soon as at all able, counts as a producer. They live very poorly, not being able to indulge in even the necessaries of life, such as butter and meat. The workmen have meat perhaps about once a day in the shape of sonp, but for the other meals they have principally bread of the cheapest quality. Sometimes to give it a relish they sandwich two pieces of bread with a slice of apple or ginger-bread. Clothing costs very little, and nearly all wear the wooden sabots, which cost from 50 centimes to one franc. As for fuel, they never think of the luxury of a wood fire. Even the wealthy could not afford to burn wood, it being employed only by the bakers. In the table I have calculated board per month at from 80 to 120 francs, but this is for the middle class. It is somewhat remarkable that we have no "pensions" (boarding-houses) in Antwerp. Outside of the hotels there are no places where you can engage respectable board and lodging. Work-people are compelled to hire lodgings with breakfast, and go to the restaurant for luncheon and dinners. Put the workman cannot afford this. He is generally married or lives with his parents, and he cannot spend more than 10 francs (\$2) per week for all. For a family of five persons the weekly wages are perhaps about 20 to 25 francs, (\$4 to \$5.) They can save but a few france out of this.

DRINKING HABITS.

Drinking is a terrible misfortune to the workingmen of Belgium. They not only drink beer but gin; and rum being so cheap, thousands of laborers go reeling home daily from their toil. Especially upon the docks women hawk the accursed liquid from man to man, and on Saturday nights begin the revels that often continue until the middle of Monday. The people of late are making an effort to do something to stopthis scourge of the poor man, this chief source of ignorance, superstition, and crime. I regret that lack of time prevents me from placing before you the actual condition of the working-class in this country; such information should be systematized to be of use; to do this demands labor and time.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

JAS. RILEY WEAVER, United States Consul.

WAGES IN ANTWERP IN 1872.

Statement showing the average weekly wages paid the various classes of workmen at Antwerp during the year 1872.

Occupation.	Weekly wages.	Occupation.	Weekly wages.
Bakers Blackamiths Boiler-makers Bookbinders Boot-makers Boot-makers Boot-makers Cabinet-makers Carpenters Cigar-makers Coppers Distillers Dyers Engineers Engineers Engineers Lare-makers Locksmiths Marule-cutters Masons Oil-refiners Printers	4 20 4 80 4 50 5 40 3 00 3 78 3 72 3 72 3 90 4 80 3 36 2 82	Paper-makers Plaster-ornament makers Plumbers Painters Rattan-workers Raten-workers Rate-mills Sait-works Saw-mill Sewing-silk makers Shirt-makers Sperm-candle makers Sperm-candle makers Stone-outters Sngar-refiners Tuilors Upholsterers Weavers Weavers of Antwerp silk White-washers Wood-carvers.	6 600 4 06 3 979 3 76 2 76 2 76 3 60 2 70 3 60 4 23 3 60 4 20 3 60 3 60 3 60 3 60 3 60 3 60 3 60 3 6

^{*}The author paid 12 frames (25 cents) for a pair of the best quality; common, strong sabots for working-people cost 75 centimes, (15 cents.)



STRIKES IN RELGIUM.

Having devoted considerable space to a history of the strikes in England, the following condensed account of the strikes of the workmen employed in several branches of industry, chiefly in Antwerp, is presented. It was prepared by Mr. Grattan, British consul in Antwerp, who formerly occupied the same position in Boston, a gentleman whose long experience and mature judgment eminently fit him for such an investigation. The author personally visited Antwerp, but after consultation with the United States consul, Mr. Weaver, it was deemed unnecessary to make an original investigation.

The Belgian manufacturers have, in general, always endeavored to conciliate the interest and well-being of the working-class with the exigencies of the times, and it may be affirmed that within a few years past there has been a rise in wages of about 25 to 30 per cent. Nevertheless, the operatives are far from being satisfied, and their demands, on the contrary, increasing from day to day, strikes have taken place in the different industrial centers.

For some time past strikes had occurred among the workmen of various trades, with the limited object of demanding an increase of wages or a reduction of hours of labor. The masters, being unable to resist, were compelled to yield; and thus, at Antwerp the masons, shipwrights, tailors, and others have been engaged in disputing the

increasing demands of their men.

The masters in these various trades, not having much capital at their command, and unable, from the nature of their business, to close their establishments, have been procluded from resisting the strike by a suspension of work. At the same time the so-called "nations," or associations of workmen who supply hands for the loading and unloading of ships, and for other commercial operations in the port of Antwerp, informed the mercantile body that they would no longer work either at night or on Sundays, although it must be stated that numerous exceptions to this general rule took place in consideration of extra pay. Strikes had also taken place in Brussels and Ghent among the mechanics, which offer much analogy to the

STRIKE OF THE CIGAR-MAKERS OF ANTWERP.

There are in Antwerp about 45 to 50 establishments exclusively devoted to the manufacture of cigars, and employing altogether about 10,000 workmen and apprentices.

The wages of a workman amount to from 25 to 35 francs (\$5 to \$7) a week; those of the apprentices to 5 francs, (\$1.) which are deducted from the wages of the workman. These apprentices, termed "poupetiers," are children of from ten to fourteen years of age, whose business it is to make the inner roll, the workman's task being the more difficult and complicated one of completing the cigar by means of the exterior leaves. The preparatory labor thus performed by these "poupetiers" tends very considerably to diminish and simplify the work done by the men, and leads of course to a proportionate increase in the productive power of the factory; and hence it follows that the manufacturers attach great importance to having this preliminary work performed by children or apprentices, who by this means also acquire a knowledge of the trade, and become ultimately available workmen.

The rate of wages being very high in proportion, and the competition extremely active, especially in respect to low-priced cigars, it is a matter of considerable importance that the factory should be made to yield as much as possible, as it is only through

large sales that a profit can be realized.

During the summer of 1871 the operatives of all the cigar-factories struck simultaneously. They had formed a considerable reserved fund, and it is also understood that they received pecuniary assistance from England and Germany. They required, independently of a reduction of the hours of labor, that the wages of the "poupetiers" should be paid by the manufacturers, without deduction from their own wages, and that the "poupetiers" should in fact be employed by the manufacturers; whereas, according to the system hitherto prevailing, every workman brought his own "poupetier," for whose work he was responsible. The effect of the chauge demanded would have been not only to increase the wages of the men considerably, but to relieve them of a large share of their responsibility as to the performance of the work, as it would have been in the power of the workman to attribute any imperfection in the article produced to the "poupetier" appointed and paid by the manufacturer himself. They at last went further, and their demands embraced the eventual dismissal of the "poupetiers." This pretension was entirely new, and revealed a settled purpose of diminishing the number of operatives, and preventing the instruction and training of appearatices. Their power was no longer to reside in their numbers, but precisely the contrary; for, according to their calculation, the less abundant the supply of workmen the more indispensable do their services become.

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Not being able to enter into factories either in the capacity of apprentices, in consequence of the opposition of the men, nor ultimately as workmen, from the fact of their not possessing the necessary qualifications, it is evident that the enormous number of unemployed hands will constitute a real danger to social order and public

This movement toward the suppression of the apprenticeship system is doubtless favorable to the present operatives, who will profit by it for a time; but were the tendency to become general, and to be applied to all trades, a most formidable crisis would be the result. This danger was at once clearly recognized by the Antwerp cigar manufacturers, and they took immediate measures to resist the demand. A league was formed among the employers, and it was agreed that in case the operatives should cease work and leave any one factory, all the other establishments should be immediately closed, and hence the strike became general. The masters were quite prepared to consent to a reduction of the hours of labor and to a reasonable increase of wages, but they entirely refused to agree to the new conditions, as far as the "poupetiers" were concerned.

This state of things lasted for some weeks, but it could not be indefinitely prolonged; the workmen, subsidized by foreign agencies, stoutly refused to abate any of their pretensions; while the masters, seriously crippled in their resources by the stoppage of their works, found themselves in danger of being supplanted by foreign competition. The result was what might have been necessarily expected. Certain manufacturers, being no longer able to maintain the unequal struggle, ended by re-opening their establishments, and yielded, to a considerable extent, to the demands of the work-The resistance of the employers was thus weakened and disorganized, while the strike acquired increased strength, and was the better able to persist in its pretensions and demands. Some of the manufacturers endeavored to introduce workmen

from Holland, in order to be enabled to resume work.

Some came, but the Antwerp operatives resorted to intimidation and violence for the purpose of compelling the intruders to return to their own country; collisions and encounters occurred, which in some cases necessitated the employment of coercive measures, but the work of intimidation had produced its effect—the Dutchmen quit the town. Other manufacturers went to Metz and to Strasburg for the purpose of engaging women to do the work, but this attempt was equally unsuccessful, in consequence of the number of the female operatives, coupled with the inferiority of their work, having always been insufficient to make up for the deficiency of male hands. The resistance of the workmen was so well organized, their resources so varied, that they were able to prolong the strike for the period of four months and a half, during which time the great mass of the operatives and their families subsisted without work, no doubt owing to assistance obtained from abroad. The result has been a slight increase of wages to the workmen engaged in some of the branches of the cigar trade, but in some of the principal establishments the "poupetiers" have almost entirely disappeared, and will not, it is said, be replaced, and the hours of labor have been reduced from 11 to 91 hours a day.

The resistance they were for so long a period enabled to make has tended to encourage the pretensions of all the operatives engaged in the cigar-factories, and leaves room to fear that renewed attempts may ere long be made to enforce their ulterior views. These men make a good living, earning on the average about 30 francs (\$6) a week for five days' work. They desire, it is said, to obtain the same amount of pay for four

days' labor.

Work was resumed in all the factories, but the Antwerp cigar trade had received a serious blow; and as far as cigars of ordinary quality are concerned, it would appear that the native manufacturers are no longer able to make headway against foreign competition.

STRIKE OF MECHANICS IN BRUSSELS AND GHENT.

Some time after these events, a strike of mechanics occurred in Brussels. The artisans asked for a reduction of working-hours, additional pay for all extra work, and a general increase of wages. They amounced at the same time that the strike was not to be a general one, but that it would be carried on from one workshop to another, so that, while economizing their own resources, the men might compel the masters, one by one, to accept their terms.

The employers determined to resist, and decided that, upon the occurrence of a strike in any one establishment, a general lock-out should at once be proclaimed. The strike took place, and, whether from want of union among the masters, or from a feeling on their part that the demands put forth were, to a certain extent, well founded, it had a

pacific solution, and ended by a compromise between the parties.

▲ short time later, another strike of a very similar character took place at Ghent Thanks to the conciliatory intervention of the burgomaster of that town, a mutual understanding between the masters and the workmen, based also upon a compromise, was promptly and peaceably attained.

TRON INDUSTRY.

The report of the Charleroi Chamber of Commerce, extracts from which appear on preceding pages, shows the extent of the various branches of the iron industry in that part of Belgium.

One of the first objects which attracted the attention of the author on his first visit to Brussels was a statue of John Cockerill, an English engineer, the founder of the works at Seraing, who received posthumous honors, although in his lifetime he obtained but a small portion of the material reward to which his eminent abilities and enterprise entitled The works were established in 1816, and occupy the former palace of the Prince Bishop of Liège, with the enormous constructions since added to fit it for its present purpose. The vast pile of buildings forms a little town of itself. Iron and coal are extracted from mines within its walls, which also inclose a canal and railroad leading down to the river. Blast-furnaces, puddling-furnaces, rolling-mills, and forges occupy the interior, where iron is wrought into articles of all sorts, from pen-knives up to steam-engines and locomotives, some of them of twenty-five hundred horse power. The lion on the field of Waterloo was cast at these works. Mr. Cockerill was originally in partnership with the King of Holland, and after his expulsion from Belgium in 1830, purchased his share and became sole proprietor. The works are now carried on by an association known as the "Société John Cockerill."

As these celebrated works require more than a passing notice, the following extended and more recent account than that contained in the note-book of the author, extracted from the London Engineering, is here

presented:

THE COCKERILL IRON AND STEEL WORKS, SERAING.

Since the death of John Cockerill the works at Seraing have been further enlarged, and at the present time they occupy a position perhaps second only to those of Krapp at Essen. The collieries are four in number, and are worked at depths of about 500 yards by the aid of twenty-four engines, giving a total of 900 horse-power. They give employment to 2,400 workmen, and their annual production is 350,000 tons. The company always keep from fifteen hundred to two thousand tons of coal on hand in case of a strike or of any other emergency. * * * The coke-furnaces consist af four groups, comprising 143 horizontal kilns, and twelve groups, comprising 216 Appolt kilns. Connected with them are six washing-machines, and thirteen steam-engines of 168 horsepower collectively. The number of workmen is 140, and the annual production of coke is 140,000 tons.

The blast-furnaces are five in number, with stoves for heating the blast and tappingsheds for ordinary pig-iron. In this department are fifteen engines of 480 collective horse-hower, and 300 workmen, the annual yield being 55,000 tons. are four more blast-furnaces now in course of construction for producing steel pigs. There are two founderies for iron and one for copper, employing 280 workmen, and six engines of 90 horse-power collectively, the annual yield being 5,000 tons.

The founderies are large and commodious, and are well fitted with cranes and other appliances suited for the heavy work turned out there. The castings in and about the

founderies were decidedly good and clean.

In the wrought-iron department there are 75 heating-furnaces, 7 steam-hammers, 12 rolling-mills, and 55 engines of 1,900 aggregate horse-power; the workmen number 1,240, and the annual production is returned as 40,000 tons in rails, girders, bar and sheet-iron.

A very fine mill, by Collier of Manchester, was at work rolling tires for railway wheels, and a noticeable feature here was the care taken to insure the identification at any time of every tire rolled in this mill by impressing it with no less than fourteen stamps.

In the steel-works are ten Bessimer converters of from 5 to 7 tons, (six of which are in course of erection,) 16 heating-furnaces, 7 steam-hammers, 4 rolling-mills, and 46 engines of various kinds, of 3,079 horse-power collectively. This department employs 560 workmen, and turns out 17,000 tons of steel annually

In the forges are 12 heating-furnaces, 7 steam-hammers, 70 smiths' fires, and 5 engines of 288 horse-power, the number of workmen being 200, and the annual production

1,500 tons of large and small work.

The machine-shops are well arranged and appointed, and contain 368 tools, including The machine-snops are well arranged and appointed, and contain 308 tools, including lathes, shaping, planing, slotting, drilling, boring, and other machines. There are two hydraulic-presses, a number of portable, fixed, and overhead-traveling-cranes, and 20 steam-engines representing 264 horse-power. The workmen here number 1,400, and the weight of the machinery produced annually is put at 7,000 tons.

In the bridge-building department and the boiler-shops are 55 drilling, bending,

shearing, planing, riveting, and other machines; 3 hammers, 54 furnaces, and 11 engines of 120 collective horse-power, with 500 worken, the annual production being 6000 tons. The work turned out in the helicarchy. .000 tons. The work turned out in the boiler-shops is very good, the marking-off being

done in a systematic and workmanlike manner.

The iron-mines belonging to the company, by which they have secured a supply of iron for one hundred years, are not at Seraing, as already observed, but in the Liège and Namur districts, as well as in Luxembourg and Spain. They are 30 in number, and those in Belgium employ 17 engines and 800 workmen, the annual yield being The company's ship-building yard is at Antwerp, where they construct both ocean and river steamers.

It will thus be seen that, so far, at the Seraing works alone more than 7,000 hands are employed, while the engines represent considerably more than 7,000 horse-power. But this is not all, for there is a brick-field producing 15,000,000 of bricks per year, and giving work to a large number of hands, besides which there are 15 locomotives of small power for hanling purposes, and 420 workmen employed on the system of railways by which the works are traversed, and thus connected with the main railways of

the country

Besides the locomotives, there are also 80 horses employed about the works, 15 of them being in the collieries. From the annual report for 1872 it appears that there were 8,912 persons employed on the works; 254 steam-engines of 7,834 collective horse-power; the wages paid amounted to 8,500,000 francs, (\$1,700,000;) the fuel consumed amounted to 350,000 tons, and the produce is put down at \$6,000,000. It may readily be supposed that an establishment like that at Seraing does not con-

sist wholly of workshops and machinery, but that in such a community the interest and welfare of the employes receive some consideration. This is especially so here, for houses have been built for workmen, and attached to each department of the works is a large dining-room, with a kitchen, proper arrangements being made for the custody of each workman's provisions. Similar arrangements are carried out at the collieries, where there are also baths for the use of the miners. There is likewise a dispensary, from which medicine is delivered gratuitously to all those employed on the works and their families. On the heights of Seraing, a short distance from the works, and in an elevated and healthy situation, is a hospital built by the company. It has a special physician attached to it, and will accommodate between 80 and 90 patients, the staff of nurses and attendants consisting of nuns. There is also an orphanage near the hospital, at which 45 children of both sexes are now being brought up, most of whom lost their parents during a visitation of cholera at Seraing. Besides all this, the company extends its care to the future as well as to the present welfare of the workmen, and has established a society for relief and pensions. It is not compulsory on the workmen to belong to the society, but they are expected to join it, and every inducement is offered to them to do so. The company, however, in really deserving cases, grants, out of its own funds, temporary relief and pensions to those who do not belong to the society. We thus have an establishment possessing enormous resources, and being entirely selfcontained and self-supplying, and independent of external aid, except in the matters of copper and timber. The company is managed by a board composed of five members, the active supervision of the works devolving upon M. Sadoine, as director-general, who is assisted by twelve chief engineers, each of whom is placed in charge of a distinct department. The working staff have suites of offices, besides which there are arrangements for facilitating engineering studies; there is also a library and laboratory attached to the establishment. One thing which strikes the visitor to Seraing is the extreme neatness and order which prevail throughout the works, and which is rigidly insisted upon.

The author's visit to these celebrated works was inopportune, as the Count de Flanders, brother of the King of Belgium, and, as is commonly believed, a large stockholder, was on that day making an examination of the establishment, accompanied by M. Sadoine, the director-general, (on a previous attempt to personally examine the works the presence of the king caused a suspension of all business at Seraing.) From one of the chief engineers much information was obtained in regard to the extent and production of the establishment, which, however, it is unnecessary to present, as the foregoing statement is more complete.

From the author's note-book the following is selected in regard to-

Wages.—The men work chiefly by the piece, and their earnings, consequently, depend upon their industry. The price of puddling was stated to be 1 franc 56 centimes for 350 kilograms, being 90½ cents for a ton of 2,240 pounds, and 97 cents for 2,400 pounds, which latter usually constitutes a ton in English iron-mills. At this rate the men were said to average 7½ francs (\$1.50) per day. The price seemed remarkably low, but the gentleman who gave the information asserted that it was entirely accurate.

In the rolling-mills men earn from 5 to 6 francs (\$1 to \$1.20) per day. In machine-shops, the foremen earn from 6 to 7 francs, (\$1.20 to \$1.40,) the skilled workmen average 3½ francs, (65 cents,) and common laborers from 2 to 3 francs (40 to 60 cents) per day. In the coal-mines men average about 5 francs (\$1) per day. Hours of labor: from 6 to 8, 9 to 12, 1 to 4, and 4.10 to 6 o'clock, being nearly 10 hours per day.

Only about one fifth of the workmen are residents of Seraing; the principal part of the remainder live in the villages of Engis and Amay,

from which they come daily in the cars.

Rents in Seraing: Two or three rooms, 20 francs (\$4) per month. Price of coal: 26 francs (\$5.20) per ton of 1,000 kilograms.

The ore used in the works is chiefly brought from the vicinity of

Namur.

Engineering-shops at Antwerp.—For the purpose of building marine engines and other machinery, the Société John Cockerill has shops at Antwerp. If all the engines built there are equal to the powerful one which propelled a steamboat from Ostend to Dover, in a terrible sea, after the equinoctial storm in September, 1872, the author can commend them—the only thing connected with the boat or passage indicated which deserves commendation.

LIÈGE.

Liege is finely situated at the junction of the Ourthe with the Meuse, in a fertile valley. The clouds of smoke usually seen from a distance hanging over it proclaim the manufacturing city, the Birmingham of Belgium; and the dirty houses, murky atmosphere, and coal-stained streets are the natural consequence of the branch of industry in which its inhabitants are engaged. The staple manufacture is that of fire-arms, employing at least 20,000 persons in and about the town. Liege is, in fact, one great armory, and has produced nearly a million fire-arms annually for some time past.*

The saddlery is also very good here, and a coarse cloth is manufac-

tured in large quantities.

There is a royal cannon-factory and a small-arm factory in the suburb

of St. Leonhard.

The cause of this commercial prosperity is the presence of coal in great abundance close at hand. The mines are worked upon very scientific principles. Some of them are situated so near to the town that their galleries are carried under the streets, so that many of the houses, and even the bed of the river, are in some places undermined.

Here, as well as at other places on the Meuse, at the mines in the district of Charleroi, as well as in many parts of Germany, women are employed in various occupations, which appear, to Americans at least,

^{*}The number of fire-arms made at Liège in 1872 was as follows: Single-barreled fowling-pieces, 179,806; double-barreled, 154,170; barter guns, called "bords," 49,471; holster-pistols, 17,664; pocket-pistols and revolvers, 326,181; muskets, 29,841. Total, 757,133.



entirely unsuited to their sex. The author noticed that manure was swept from the streets and the markets by women, who earned thereby 30 cents per day. In the coal-mining regions of Belgium some were seen shoveling coal, others carrying coal on their backs in baskets made for the purpose. Their work is, however, now confined to the surface, and they do not, as was formerly the case in some places, work in the mines.

WAGES IN MAUBEUGE.

On entering Belgium from France, the rail-mills at Maubeuge, on the French side of the line, were visited, and the rates of labor ascertained. Puddlers work by the ton, and, after paying assistants, earn from 8 to 9 francs (\$1.60 to \$1.80) per day. Other workmen not skilled earn, on an average; 31 francs, (70 cents.)

From farm-laborers at work in the fields cutting grain it was learned

that during harvest they received 3 francs (60 cents) per day.

SUGAR-INDUSTRY IN 1872.

There were 174 manufactories of beet-sugar and 41 sugar-refineries in 1872. After balancing the imports and exports, there remained for home-consumption of refined sugar and treacle 19,599,731 kilograms, which is an average consumption of 4.05 kilograms, or nearly 9 pounds per capita. In regard to this industry the British minister writes:

The sugar-industry is productive of unmixed advantages and profits to Belgium. It enriches the farmer, the landlord, and the treasury; it provides good wages for agricultural laborers near their own homes during the winter months, thus counteracting the noxious temptations offered by the great towns, and promoting the interests of social order as well as of agriculture. This industry doubles the produce of the land in cattle and corn. It thus supplies man with bread and meat, as well as with sugar and alcohol.

BRUSSELS.

At Brussels, the capital of Belgium, French is the prevailing language; and those who are acquainted with the French metropolis will find here many familiar features which give Brussels the character of Paris on a small scale. It has its picture-galleries, its opera, its cafés, a palace-garden in imitation of that of the Tuileries, and boulevards inferior only in extent to those of its great prototype. The Bois de la Cambre is to Brussels what the Bois de Boulogne is to Paris. The most remarkable manufacture at Brussels is that of lace, which is celebrated all over the world. The peculiarity which distinguishes it, in addition to its fineness, is that the patterns are worked separately with the most microscopic minuteness and are afterward sewed on.

The flax employed in the manufacture grows near Hal; the best comes from a place called Rebecque. The finest variety of the manufactured article is worth its weight in gold. The persons who spin the thread for Brussels lace, and also for the French cambric of Saint Quentin, are obliged to work in confined dark rooms, into which light is admitted only partially by a small aperture; and thus, being compelled to pay the most constant and minute attention to their work, they discipline the eye, and attain the faculty of spinning the flax of that web-like fineness

which constitutes the excellence of these fabrics.

Kid-gloves, which are also made at this place, may be purchased

cheaper here than elsewhere.

During the Franco-German war, when trade was diverted from Paris, there was an increased demand for the products of Brussels, which consequently increased in price, and there was also an increase in the expenses of living, and these rates are still continued. Brussels derives substantial benefit from the permanent and temporary residence of large numbers of English-speaking people, who purchase largely of the laces, gloves, and other products for which this "Petite Parie" is celebrated. To statisticians and scientists it is known as the home of that eminent man, Adolphe Quetelete, recently deceased, and the city where the first international statistical congress was held, (in 1853.)

GHENT.

This was formerly one of the largest manufacturing towns in Belgium. and is still a place of considerable manufacturing industry, the principal product being cotton goods. It is chiefly known in this country as being the place where the treaty of peace was signed in 1815 between the United States and Great Britain. In 1804, while united to France, it was rated as the third manufacturing town after Lyons and Rouen. During the discontents which broke out in Belgium in the fourteenth century, Edward III invited to England many Flemings, who brought over with them the art of manufacturing the finer woolen cloths, previously unknown; and by their assistance the English manufactures soon surpassed those of Flanders in point of excellence. In 1801 Lieven Banens, a Fleming, brought English workmen and spinning-jennies from Manchester to Ghent, and their work became so popular that in a few years 30,000 workmen and 80 steam-engines were employed. In 1400, the city of Ghent is said to have had 80,000 men capable of bearing The number of weavers at that time amounted to 40,000. Ghent is especially noted for its celebrated prison, La Maison de France. This prison was visited and approved by Howard, and has been the model for most of the improved penitentiaries of Europe.

Capital punishment is abolished, and as there are no colonies to which convicts can be transported, offenders are condemned to imprisonment in proportion to the atrocity of their crimes. As the rations of food are so calculated as to be barely sufficient to sustain life, the prisoners are thus compelled to contribute to their own support. According to the nature of their offenses, the proportion of earnings they receive is more or less liberal. Part is paid to them at once, with which they are allowed to purchase such articles of convenience or comfort as the governor is authorized to supply at prices fixed by tariff, and the remainder is placed in a savings-bank, in order to accumulate until the period of their liberation. Three meals a day are the allowance, and the hours of work are never more than twelve nor less than six. On his discharge from confinement, the prisoner is frequently in possession of 250 francs from the produce of his industry; and a society has been formed for the purpose of procuring the employment, and thereby guarding against the relapse into crime, of liberated convicts. The prison now contains 1,200 convicts, chiefly employed in the manufacture of linen for the use of the army.

One of the latest novelties in Ghent is the introduction of penny-banks for the children in the schools—an innovation which is already doing much to give the workmen of the future provident habits, and is being introduced into England with good results.

BRUGES.

Early in the thirteenth century Bruges, among the cities of the Hanseatic League was the principal mart of the English wool trade, and became the chief resort of the Lombard and Venetian traders, who brought thither the manufactures of India and the produce of Italy to exchange for the merchandise of Germany and the Baltic. Ships from Venice,

^{*}M. Quetelet, director of the Royal Observatory, died at Brussels, February 17, 1874.

Genoa, and Constantinople might at the same time be seen unloading in its harbor, and its warehouses were filled with wool from England, linen from Belgium, and silk from Persia. Bruges is the cheapest place in Europe in point of house-rents. A first-rate house may be had for \$90, and a very good house for \$60 per annum. The chief manufacture carried on is that of lace.

INDUSTRY OF BELGIUM IN 1872-773.

[Condensed from a report by the British minister, Sir H. Barron.]

The year 1872 has given the most brilliant results in most branches of industry. The prosperity which set in after the peace of 1871 became further considerably increased. Some trades, however, suffered partially from not having been able to command prices commensurate with the enhancement of materials and labor. The working-classes found in the great rise of wages ample means of comfort and savings. But their improvidence increases with their prosperity, as is proved by the actual decrease in savings-bank deposits. On the whole, the activity of all branches of trade in 1872 was

rare and unparalleled.

Above all, the trades connected with the manufacture and working of iron enjoyed an exceptional prosperity. All the smelting-furnaces, iron-works, rolling-mills, machine-works, founderies, and nail-makers worked without intermission during the whole year. Many new factories were erected; many of the old ones were enlarged. At the same time the prices of iron and of its products rose without a check from the beginning till the end of the year to figures previously unknown. Pig-iron doubled in value during the twelve months. These prices left the producers good profits during the first six menths; but the prices of labor and of coal rose to such exorbitant rates as to absorb finally the whole profits of the iron trade. Thus the year which began so rich in promise ended in disappointment. The masters now find that they cannot tempt buyers at the prices of iron, and cannot reduce those prices on account of the excessive cost of production. Many works have been closed and furnaces blown out in 1873, so that this trade is falling into a state of general stagnation. The present year will leave no profits to the iron-masters in general, save to such as possess collieries of their own; as, for instance, the monster establishments of Seraing, Couillet, Scheim, &c.

The zinc and lead works are passing through a real crisis. The former industry, long a specialty of Belgium and a staple element of Belgian trade, employs an immense capital and working population. It is becoming quite crippled by the gradual exhaustion of the zinc-mines of the country, especially of the once rich deposits of Moresnet. The zinc-works thus losing their main source of profits are obliged to look for supplies of ore to Spain, Italy, and Sweden, and have to struggle against the English zinc-trade which has sprung up within the last few years. The English zinc-works, now seventeen in number, producing about 18,000 tons of metal, are better circumstanced for procuring the ore at cheap rates from distant countries. This competition has run up the price of ores, while at the same time all other raw materials and labor have risen by 50 per cent., without a corresponding progression in the price

of zinc.

The glass-trade began the year 1872 favorably, and continued to prosper till October. The demand was abundant; the prices were improving as well as remunerative. But here again the prices of coal and labor outstripped those of the manufactured article. Suddenly, in November, the orders from abroad ceased entirely; the warehouses became encumbered with stocks; the manufacture had to be partially suspended; prices had to be lowered; buyers continued to hold back. The trade is still passing through a crisis, owing, in addition to other causes, to the increasing competition of the French glass-blowers in the London market, aided by the superiority of their coals for this industry.

The year 1872 was, on the whole, disastrous for the woolen-trade. An extreme and unnatural prosperity had marked the whole of 1871 and the beginning of 1872. The prices of wool and of all its products were run up beyond all reasonable limits by a speculative mania. The reaction set in at the end of March, followed by an intense crisis of a year's duration, which caused heavy losses to the trade of Verviers. It subsided gradually in the spring of the present year. The factories have resumed their usual activity. The linen-trade has had a calm and prosperous year. The fax-crop of 1872 was one of the most abundant on record. The stalks grew to the unusual height of from 34 to 44 feet. The bulk of the crop was sold rapidly at high prices, varying from 1,400 francs to 1,800 francs per hectare. The steeping of flax in the river Lys takes a greater development every year. The year was a good one for all the trades connected

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with this textile, notwithstanding the enhancement of the raw material. Some complaints emanate from the makers of flax sewing-threads that this product is losing ground in foreign markets, owing to the increasing use of sewing-machines, and consequently of cotton threads.

COAL TRADE.

Statement showing the movement of the Belgian coal-trade during the following years.*

[Onantities in tons of 1,000 kilograms = 2,204 pounds English.]

	Pro	oduce.		77	Home con-	
	Tons.	Value.	Imports.	Exports.	sumption.	
1960	9, 610, 895 11, 841, 703 12, 774, 669 16, 755, 893 12, 296, 589 13, 697, 118 13, 733, 176 15, 658, 948	\$107, 128, 289, 123, 896, 178 151, 031, 574 158, 252, 893 133, 871, 697 136, 116, 076 148, 636, 823 153, 803, 361 208, 559, 308	76, 044 187, 137 461, 130 247, 749 239, 382 235, 250 204, 583 221, 890	3, 450, 306 4, 440, 488 4, 853, 758 4, 400, 364 4, 659, 000 4, 606, 946 4, 158, 569 5, 630, 197	7, 090, 000 8, 109, 000 8, 816, 594 7, 887, 335 8, 575, 996 9, 967, 594 9, 779, 196 10, 672, 034	

^{*}In this table coke is included under the imports and exports, being reduced to its estimated original weight in raw coal, at the rate of 100 kilograms of coal to 70 kilograms of coke.

It will be seen from the above table that the production, the export, and the home consumption of coal attained their climax in 1872. The quantities raised were—

In the province of Hainault	Tons. 11 616 166
In the province of Liège	3, 653, 094
In the province of Namur	389,688

This is an amount never previously recorded, being an increase over 1871 of 1,925,772 tons. In 1872 the total exports of coal and coke exceeded those of 1871 by 891,800 tons and 259,007 tons respectively.

One extraordinary phenomenon of the year has been the shipment of many cargoes of coal to England, even to Newcastle itself.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, ETC.

The following statement indicates with but approximate accuracy the prices of groceries, meats, and the various articles of ordinary consumption by the families of work people. The blank form was originally prepared for the United States, and therefore the names and classifications are not in all respects suited to Belgium.

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, also of house-rest and board, in the towns of Antwerp and Charleroi.

Articles.		жегр.	Charles vicis	noral av- erago.	
Armoies.	1872.	1874.	1879.	1874.	Gener
PROVISIONS.					
Flour: Wheat, superfineper bbl	\$6 00	\$7 60	\$8 90	\$ 8 20	\$ 7 50
Wheat, extra familydo	9 00	\$ to \$ to	8 40	8 80	8 87
Byedo	5 00 to	 }	4 00	†2	
Corn-mealdo	(7 00 (5 00 { to	1	{4 09 to	4 10 to	3 4 78
Beef: Fresh, roasting-pieces*per lb	7 00	18	174	4 20 18	15
Fresh, soup-pieces do Fresh, rump-steaks do Gorned do do Gorned do Gorned	. 17	14 16 16	171	18 18	17) 15) 17 15

^{*}It is probable that in this and other tables the "pound" is really \(\frac{1}{2} \) kilogram, equal to 1.1 pounds.

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Prices of provisions, &c., in the manufacturing towns of Antwerp and Charleroi-Continued.

Articles.		verp.	Charles vicis	noral av- erage.	
Articles.	1879.	1874.	1879.	1874.	General
eal:	80 14	\$ 0 19		\$0 18	\$ 0 1'
Fore-quarters per lb Hind-quarters do Cutlets do	18	194	•••••	18	
Cutlets	18	20		18	1:
Intton:					
Fore-quartersdo	17	18		16	1
Legdo Chopedo	18	18	\$ 0 24	25	2
Chopsdo	16		· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	25	2
ork: dodo	17	18	174	18	1
Corned or salteddo	16	10	1	18	i
Racon	15		151	16	î
Hams, smoked	25	25	30	20	ءَ ا
Shouldersdo	15	20	l		Î
Sausagesdo	14	17	19	20	ì
arddodo	20	12	10	90	1 0
odfish, drydo	05		10	10	
odfish, dry do	04				9
utterdo	33	38	34	35	1 3
10086	90 75	90 80	23	94	1 1
otatoes per bush.	75 06	08	08	07	1 3
loo	09	10	08	08	1 8
Control of the contro	04	03	04	04	1 7
per lb. per lb. per lb. per lb. per qt.	28	24	23	24	9
				ı -·	
GEOCERIES, ETC.		(60)		l
ea, Oolong, or other good blackper lb	80	₹ to	> 76	80	
offee :		(1 00	15	1	1
Rio, greendo	26		23	24	1 9
Rio, roasteddo	32		27	28	1
ngar:			l	L	
Good brown	15	16			1
Tellow U	16		151 174	16	1
Cones B	18		08	18	1
irnn nor lh	05		07	07	1 6
oan commondo	12		04	04	1 6
rup			10	10) :
uel :	(8 00)		(*1 60)
Coalper ton	₹ to	7 60	5 85	} to	5 6
•	(9 00)		1 600	5
	(5 00)	٠,	ļ.	
Wood, pineper cord	{ to	}	- 		6 (
11 and	(7 00) 10			١,
il, coalper quart	09	10	• • • • • • •		(
DOMESTIC DRY GOODS, ETC.		l		ļ	
hirtings:		(0 16)	ì	1
Brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yard	16	to	} 18	10	1 :
		(0 25)	1	ľ.
Bleached, 4-4, standard qualitydo	19		20	15	:
nectings:	34	1	13	13	١.
Brown, 9-8, standard qualitydo	34	(0 19	13	13	!
Bleached, 9-8, standard qualitydo	36	{ to	37	28	١,
Townson and presented destrol	30	10 27	(**	**	Ι ΄
otton flannel, medium qualitydo	94		21	21	,
• •		(0 16	b		i '
ickings, good qualitydo	95	l₹ to	3 15	15	:
	l .	(0.20)	1	1
rintsdo	10			15	
ouseline de laines	25		97	28	!
миною, шошиш quanty	*****	·······	48	50	٠
oots, men's heavyper pair	(3 00 to	3 00	l (4 00	3
oven mon a mont j per pair	2 4 00	4 60	٠٠٠٠٠٠	ا * ۳	ı •
HOUSE-RENT.		, • w	١,	1	l
our roomed tenementsper month.	8 00	10 00	9 50	10 00	9 :
x-roomed tenementsdodo	20 00	5 00	14 25	15 00	13
		1	1	1 30	ı '
		1	1		
BOARD.		1		1	i
	6 00	7 50 4 20	7 60 5 70	8 00 6 00	7 5

^{*} Per 2,000 pounds.

PRICES OF FARM PRODUCTS AND MEAT IN BRUSSELS.

Mean price of the principal agricultural products and meat during five years, terminating with 1870.

[1 kilogram = 2.2046 United States pounds.]

Articles.	1865.	1967.	1968.	1869.	1870.	
Farm products:	Francs.	Francs.		Francs.		
Wheat per 100 kilograms	23.11	36. 92	35. 22	27. 61	99. 34	\$2.67 per 100 lbs.
Rye	15.80	25. 43	25.97	21.02	21. 10	1.93 per 100 lbs.
Meslindo	18.44	29. 89	30. 35	93.69	24.5%	2.04 per 100 lbs.
Speltdo	17. 41	25.07	95.31	20.65	20.76	1.89 per 100 lbs.
Buckwheatdo		24.39	25. 46	25. 49	94. 40	2.92 per 100 lbs.
Oatsdo	17.77	22, 30	23.51	21.58	21. 24	1.93 per 100 lbs.
Barleydo	18. 25	27. 14	25. 54	23. 13	22.49	2.04 per 100 lbs.
Peasdodododo	91.54	26.66	27. 53	24.80	24.59	2.24 per 100 lba
Horse-beansdo	90.10	84.11	25. 21	24. 79	24.79	9.95 per 100 lbs
' Flaxdo	37. 22	38.37	38. 59	38.85	36.01	3.27 per 100 lbs
Rape-seeddodo		38.61	36.56	39. 90	45.04	4.09 per 100 lbs
Poiatoesdodo	5.00	9.76	8.20	6.05	8.47	77 per 100 lbs
Strawdodo	4.98	4.99	4. 63	5. 73	6.37	58 per 100 lbs
Haydo	10.40	6.88	7.05	9.09	10.39	94 per 100 lbs
Hopsdo	295.00	230.00	135.00	112.00	88.00	8.00 per 100 lbs
Butterdo	2.55	2.36	2.66	2.63	2.97	27 per lb.
Meat. (in Brussels market:)	1					
Ox-beef. { On footper kilogram Slaughtereddo	.71	.83	. 80	. 80	. 81	07,36 per lb.
Ox. Deci. Slaughtereddo	1.38	1,56	1.49	1.41	1.50	13.64 per lb.
Bull-meat. { On footdo	.60	.68	. 60	.69	. 68	06.18 per lb.
Slaughtereddo	1.14	1.37	1.13	1. 17	1.98	11.64 per lb.
Cow-beef. { On footdo	. 62	. 13	. 64	. 66	. 71	06.45 per lb.
Cow-Deer. Slaughtereddo	1.16	1.45	1. 91	1, 29	1.33	19.69 per lb.
T (On footdodo	. 97	. 97	. 94	.97	1. 01	09.18 per lb.
Veal. { On footdodo	1.28	1.50	1, 50	1.53	1. 61	14.64 per lh.
Mutton. { On footdododo	. 63	. 58	. 71	.71	. 73	06,64 per lb.
Mutton. Slaughtereddo	1. 22	1.39	1. 21	1.36	1.33	12.69 per lb.
Pork. On footdodo	. 82	. 97	1.14	1. 15	ī. ii	10.09 per lb.
FORE. Slaughtered do	1.96	1, 46	1.60	1.62	1. 57	14.27 per lb.

EXPENDITURES BY WORKMEN'S PAMILIES.

The difficulty of obtaining from workingmen the amount expended for provisions and other necessaries of life was felt in Belgium as in other countries, arising chiefly from the fact that the laboring-classes keep no account of their expenses. The following indicates a larger outgo than the ordinary workingman can afford, and it must have come from one of those large families whose aggregate earnings amount to a considerable sum; for the amount expended is in excess of the ordinary earnings of the head of a family. It is to be regretted that the weekly earnings were not stated.

Average weekly expenditures of a family consisting of two adults and four children in Charleroi, Belgium.

Articles.	Cost.	Articles.	Cost.
Flour and bread Fresh, corned, salted, and smoked meats Lard. Butter Sugar Milk. Coffee Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar, &c.	\$2 10 2 20 40 70 18 16 28 40	Oil or other light, (in winter) Spirits, beer, and tobacco, (if any) House-rent For educational, religious, and benevolent objects Total weekly expenses	\$6 90 9 00 9 00
Eggs Potatoes and other vegetables Fuel		Clothing per year	40 08 U 08

The following statement comes from Jumet, the seat of the windowglass industry:

The cost of necessary provisions, such as bread, butter, cheese, coffee or chocolate, apples, vegetables, soup and meat for Sundays and fête days, for a laborer's family consisting of two adults and four children, \$5 to \$6. The same for the family of a skilled workman, the number being the same, from \$8 to \$10.

CONDITION OF THE WORKING-CLASSES OF BELGIUM.

In addition to the facts already presented, the following condensed statements from the report of Mr. Grattan, British consul at Antwerp, in regard to the condition of the working classes of Belgium, will be read with interest.

In considering the economical causes which militate against the wellbeing of the working-classes of Belgium, the following are especially to

- 1. The low rate of wages.
- 2. The want of prudence, foresight, and economy.

3. Habits of intemperance.
4. The tendency to have recourse to coalitions and strikes.

5. Certain defects in the mode of taxation and in economical science.

As respects physical causes:

6. Wars and sufferings caused by armed peace.

- 7. Unsatisfactory relations subsisting between masters and men.
- 8. Unwholesome nourishment, insalubrious dwellings, and absence of home life.

9. Defective organization of public charity.

Among the moral causes are the following:

10. Ignorance, prejudice, sophisms, and social errors.

LOW RATE OF WAGES.

The standard of wages, taking all degrees of labor into consideration, is undoubtedly insufficient to satisfy the legitimate wants of the laboring population, and adopting, as insufficient to satisfy the legitimate wants of the laboring population, and adopting, as an illustration, the position of workmen employed in manufacturing establishments, the following facts are brought to light. The average daily wages of mill-operatives do not exceed 2 france (40 cents) a day. Setting aside Sundays, holidays, and days on which the operative remains idle, either on account of stoppage of work, or by his own default, the working-days will hardly exceed 250 in the year, making a maximum wage of 500 francs (\$100) a year, 42 francs (\$8.40) a month, or about 10 francs (\$2) per week. Adding, in the case of a married operative, with wife and three children, 1 franc a day earned by some member of his family, a weekly budget of 16.50 francs (\$3.30) will be reached for five people. The expenses of this family, calculated at the lowest possible rate, will be the following:

Articles.	In ordinary seasons.	In dear sea- sons.
Bread, (24 kilograms per day for five persons, at 30 or 50 centimes) Potatoce, (3 kilograms a day, at 10 or 15 centimes) Coffee and chiccory, (beverage) Vegetables Batter or dripping	\$1 05 42 49 40	\$1 75 63 50 50
Butter or dripping. Clothing. Washing, soap, &c. Rent.	20 40 20 40	30 40 20 40
Total weekly expenditures	3 47	4 68

There is no mention here of beer, meat, sugar, or of anything beyond the bare necessaries of life. Diminish the family by one child, or add one-third even to the wages of the operative, and it still remains next to impossible that he can make both ends meet. This is by no means an exaggerated statement. There are probably 10,000 or 20,000 workingmen's households in Belgium in this sad position.

ABSENCE OF PRUDENCE, FORESIGHT, AND ECONOMY.

No economical truth is more evident or more amply proved by experience than that reckless and improvident habits indulged in by the working-classes inevitably lead to reckies and improvident habits induiged in by the working-classes inevitably lead to misery and ruin. No artisan can cherish the hope of raising himself in the social scale, either in a moral or physical point of view, who is unable, when circumstances are propitious, to put by some of his earnings; and there is probably not one man, however hardly dealt with by fortune, who has not at some time or other of his life had such an opportunity. A small beginning made at an early period in life may bear marvelous fruit in the course of time, and there are workmen in Belgium who can easily earn 3, 4, or 5 francs a day. How many are there of those who actually do lay by money? It is estimated that about 200,000 workmen in this country are certainly in receipt

of the lowest of the above-mentioned rate of wages, and yet probably not one-fifth of them are in the habit of saving money. It is stated that only about 40,000 workmen in the whole country have accounts in the various public or private savings-banks, or hold public securities.

A great cause of misery to the workingman is the loss of one day's work in the week, Monday being almost invariably an unemployed day in Belgium. May not the loss of this one day's wage suffice to put a stop to all possibility of saving, or even in some cases be sufficient in itself to throw a family into inextricable difficulties?

TENDENCY TO HAVE RECOURSE TO STRIKES.

According to a very prevalent opinion, the almost invariable result of coalitions and strikes on the part of the working-classes has been to aggravate their misery and dis-Workingmen, however, do not, as has been seen, admit these arguments; and, following the lead of the English trades-unions, strikes and combinations have acquired of late a wide-spread and cosmopolitan character. It was said, it is true, that at the workingmen's congress held at Brussels in September, 1868, an opinion unfavorable to strikes had prevailed in the assembly; but this was not the fact; the following declaration, among others, relative to strikes, having been unanimously adopted by the

congress:

"The congress declares that strikes, though not an infallible mode of remedying the evils to which the working-classes are exposed, are nevertheless, in the present situation

of capital and labor, a necessity."

UNSATISFACTORY RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND THE EMPLOYED.

One of the greatest drawbacks to the prosperity and well-being of the industrial classes consists undoubtedly in the absence of good-will and confidence between them and those by whom they are employed, particularly in the great industrial centers. This especially applies to the case of large joint-stock companies, where the ties existing between the operatives and the managers are of the slenderest description. So many men are wanted to-day, and they can be supplied at a moment's notice. When their services are no longer required, they are turned off. What becomes of them! They go to the "estaminet," and there their schemes of resistance are concocted, disturbances are organized, and riots planned. Such is probably the real history of the disturbances in Ghent, the Borinage, Marchiennes, Chatelineau, and Seraing. Independently of the evil influences exercised by the leviathan establishments above referred to, M. Dauby does not hesitate to throw the immediate responsibility of this unhappy state of things upon the middle and higher classes, and the spirit of speculation pushed to the extreme which characterizes the present period. The apparent disregard of the rights and interests of others involved in the reckless pursuit of wealth has embittered the feelings of those who have been its victims, and a character of extreme gravity, fraught with much future danger, has been imparted to these recent popular outbreaks.

UNWHOLESOME NOURISHMENT-INSALUBRIOUS DWELLINGS-WANT OF HOME LIFE.

Workingmen in this country are, as a rule, very ill-housed and badly fed. Improvidence and carelessness combine to keep them and their families in a position of inferiority and discomfort, if not of absolute misery and want. A little more experience and knowledge of household economy on the part of the female population might avert in this respect an infinity of mischief. The evils of bad cookery have formed the subject of many a bitter distribe, but they cannot be too frequently pointed out and insisted upon, especially in connection with the industrial classes, to whom an economical and skillful employment of their slender stores is so important a consideraton. That the well-being of all classes of society depends, to a very considerable extent, upon good and wholesome nourishment cannot be contested; but it is not a little surprising

that so small a share of attention is in reality bestowed upon the proper education of women in the various matters connected with alimentation and the preparation of food. Society at large suffers more seriously from this cause than persons who have not devoted some consideration to the hygienic questions involved in the matter would be

disposed to believe.

Suitable and convenient habitations for the working-classes, at reasonable rents, are of the utmost importance also to their well-being. Fortunately this want has been partly met at Antwerp, and the lodging-houses erected of late years have contributed greatly to the comfort of their occupants, besides affording a fair interest upon the capital invested in these beneficent enterprises. It is to be inferred that commodious lodgings may have a tendency also to develop among the working-classes a greater love of home life, ("l'ésprit de famille,") the absence of which has been so often and so justly deplored in this country.

HABITS OF INTEMPERANCE.

Among the causes which tend to aggravate the situation of the working-classes, intemperance may be placed in the first rank. The allurements of the estaminet, (public house,) combined with the cheapness of spirituous liquors in this country, form an attraction which the majority of workingmen are unable to resist, and hence flow incalculable dangers and mischief to themselves and their families. All efforts to extirpate or modify this evil have hitherto proved fruitless. According to calculations which have not been contradicted, it is estimated that there are about one hundred thousand licensed public houses in Belgium, for the supply of five million inhabitants, a proportion which is generally exceeded in the industrial centers. The evils resulting from this state of things were fully exposed in the report submitted to the House of Representatives during the session of 1867–'68.

It appears, however, that nothing was done to check this terrible evil, for in a report to the British government, dated Brussels, December 30, 1873, Sir H. Barron says in reference to this subject:

Nothing whatever is done to check the consumption of spirits, a main source of pauperism, crime, disease, and insanity. On the contrary, the authorities vie with each other in multiplying kermesses and festivals of all kinds, which are mere excuses for dissipation and drunkenness.

This vice more than keeps pace with the national prosperity, and completely prevents any improvement of the working-class. No temperance societies, licensing acts, or liquor-laws exist. The authorities shut their eyes to all abuses and disorders.

The number of drink-shops goes on increasing in the following ratio:

1866	94,671
1867	95, 754
1868	96, 990
1869	
1870	

There is now one liquor shop for every forty-eight inhabitants. The official record of the average home consumption of spirituous liquor (proof-spirit) for the ten years 1861-1870 was 396,152 hectolitres = 8,715,344 gallons, being 1.80 gallons per head of the population per annum. This large figure is, however, really much below the truth, as the quantity produced is, as shown above, certainly much understated.

LABOR'IN SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

The following information in regard to cost and condition of labor in Sweden and Norway is condensed from a report made to the Depart ment of State by Hon. C. C. Andrews, minister resident of the United States at Stockholm, under date of Séptember 24. 1873:

In my report of May 10, 1872, I had the honor to report that there had recently been in Sweden an almost general increase of the wages of mechanics 25 per cent. Since then a similar rise of wages has extended to about all other industries. In

some, in the immediate neighborhood of the lumber-shipping ports, it has amounted to upward of 100 per cent. Substantially the same may be said as to Norway.

The principal causes of this increase of wages have been the excellent agricultural crops for four successive years; the remarkable rise in the prices of iron and lumber, and consequent increased activity in those industries; the emigration, which from both these countries to the United States has reached in the aggregate about 150,000 persons; the demand for labor in constructing new and extensive lines of railway, and the influence of workingmen's organizations. As the importance of the labor question seemed to render it proper that I should take more than ordinary pains to collect reliable data on the subject, I began, personally, the collection of facts bearing on the mater as early as January last, since when I have visited a large number of leading industrial establishments, as well as dwellings of working-people in various parts of Sweden and Norway. Although both of these countries annually publish very thorough statistics—Sweden having annually collected and published population statistics for a century and a quarter past—there are none in either country as to wages of labor, except in Sweden as to the single industry of agriculture, which fact has made it necessary to resort to special and personal investigation. I now have the honor, therefore, to transmit herewith-

1. A table showing the wages of labor in Sweden in Swedish money, and also in money of the United States.

2. A table showing the prices of the necessaries of living, which, in the main, will answer equally well in respect to Norway; also to submit some facts and remarks on the condition of the industrial classes of Sweden and Norway, separately as to each country.

WAGES IN SWEDEN.

Table showing the rates of wages in Sweden (in Swedish and in United States money) in 1873.

[Note.—3.76 rix-dollars 3 rix-dollars and 76 öre) are equivalent to \$1, United States gold. Gold dellars of the United States sell in Stockholm at 3.75 rix-dollars each; but in buying them at a bask in Stockholm one must pay 3.63 rix-dollars. Exchange on New York, payable in gold, is at the same rate, namery, 3 rix-dollars and 83 öre for \$1. Where Swedish money is reduced to money of the United States in this and the following tables, as well as in the text, I have assumed 3.76 rix-dollars to be equivalent.

	ctual	Wages	per day.		
Occupation.	Number of hours of actual labor.	Swedish money, (rix-dollars.)	United States gold.	`Remarks.	
Agriculture:					
Best male hands { Winter. Summer.	7 to 10	1.75	\$0.46		
Bakers:	12 to 13	2.50	66		
Best	12	2.00	53	Free board and lodgings.	
Average	12	1.50	40	Free board.	
Basket-makers:				1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	
Best	10	3.00	80		
Average	10	1. 25	33		
Beet-sugar operatives:					
Best	12	1.75	46	Technical director, \$975 a year.	
Women	12	1.00	96	Engineer, \$530 a year.	
Blacksmiths	11	3.00	80	Free rent and fuel.	
Bone-meal-factory hands Book-binders:	11		\$0 40 to 66	Lies tens sud iger	
Average Women, best	11	3.00	80		
Women, best	11	1, 40	37	Annu . Annu	
Book-keepers, average	• • • • • • • •			\$525 to \$900 a year; cashiers, \$1,800 to \$1,600 a year.	

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Table showing the rates of wages in Sweden, &c.—Continued.

		•		
	ctual	Wages	per day.	
Occupation.	Number of hours of actual labor.	Swedish money, (rix-dollars.)	United States gold.	Remarks.
Boot and shoe makers:	12	3. 00	\$ 0 90	Generally by piece.
Average	12 12	2.50 2.00	66 53	
Women, with machine Brewers:	1	9.50 4.00	66 1 06	90 per cent. of those working on shoes are women.
Foreman	ix to is	2.00	53	Paid monthly; free room, fuel, lights, and & bottles beer daily. \$80 a year; free room and washing.
Cabinet-makers: Best	10	2.86	76) Generally work by hour; several
A verage	10 10	2 00 2 31	62 53	hands at one shop save 200 rix- dollars a year. (Nearly all free rent; the work-
Candle (stearine) makers Candle (stearine) women	12 12	2.00 to 3.00 1.00 to 1.25	53 to 80 26 to 33	C IDASter Das syou a year and der-
Carpenters, house	12 10	3.00 5.00 to 8.00	80 1 39 to 2 12	Centage. Generally by hour.
Carriage-makers: Foreman	11	3. 00 2. 50	80 66	
Average Cigar-makers: Finishers	l	4.00	1 06	By piece; free allowance of cigars
Average		3. 30	87	to males.
Women. { Best	11	. 75 3. 00	80 80	`
Chimney-sweeps, foreman	11	1. 25	33	\$132 a year, board and lodgings; best boys, \$53 a year, board and lodgings; boys under 14, only
Cloth (woolen) factory weavers:				lodgings; boys under 14, only clothes, board, and lodgings.
Women	11	.84 to 1.33	22 to 35	Foreman, \$800 a year; overseers, \$265.
GirlsBoys	11	. 66 . 75	16 20	
Spinners, male	11 101	2.00 7.00	53 1 85	Those with families, free rent and
Best men	104	2. 25 to 4. 00	66 to 1 06	doctor Rorstrand factory.
Boys	101 101	1. 00	26 40 to 80	200.00.200
Confectioners:	11	1. 66	44	Free board and lodgings.
Average	11	1.45	41	
Average	12 12	6. 00 3. 00	1 59 80	
Coppersmiths: Best Average	. 12	3. 60 3. 00	96 80	
Cotton-spinners, male	11	2.00	53	Free doctor and medicine; wages likely to rise 20 per cent.
Females Over 18, average	1 11	1. 33 1. 00	35 26	
Girls under 18 Door and sash makers	11 12	. 65 3. 50	17 93	
Dyers: Foreman Journeymen, average .t	11	4. 16 2. 50	1 10 66	
Engineers on sea-steamers	-			\$320 to \$530 a year and board. \$10 to \$12 per month and board.
Flower (artificial) makers Furtiers:	······	1.00	26	Females paid by the month.
Men Best Ordinary	12 12	3.00 2.33	90 62	
Women. { Ordinary	12	1. 33	35	l

Table showing the rates of wages in Sweden, &c.—Continued.

	ctual	Wages	per day.	
Occupation.	Number of hours of actual	Swedish money, (rix-dollars.)	United States gold.	Remarks.
Gas-makers : Foreman Stokers Mechanics, fitters, &c	12	6.00 9.50 2.50 to 3.00	\$1 59 66 60 to 80	Free doctor and medicine. Free doctor and 13 cents a day when aick.
Common laborers	12	1.75	46	WE'D SIGN.
Workmen	10	2.00 to 2.66 3.25	53 to 71 86	
Workmen Common laborers Glaziers	10 10 11	5.00 1.00 2.00 to 2.50	1 32 26 53 to 66	Free rent, fuel, and lights. Mostly by piece.
Glycerine-factory: Men Women Gold and silver smiths:	12	2.00 1.25 to 1.50	33 to 40	·
Best	11 to 12	3. 35 2. 50 3. 35 1. 66	90 66 90 43	Free rent and 6 per cent. of profits. Paid by month; free board and lodgings.
Harness-makers	. 11	2. 50	66	10481480
Average Female assistants Instrument-makers:	1 11	5. 00 3. 00 1. 60	1 39 80 41	
Chemical	10	2.00 to 8.00 4.00 to 5.00 2.00	53 to 2 12 1 06 to 1 32 53	Free rent.
Iron-foundery: Best hands	19 19 12	3.00 2.00 2.75	80 53 72	Free lodging.
ers. Iron-production: Master at refining-heater. Master at rolling-mills Master at blast-furnace Master-mechanics Workmen at blast-furnace Workmen at roasting-furnace.	12 12 12 12 12	6. 60 4. 75 3. 25 5. 00 2. 00 2. 00	1 75 1 26 96 1 32 53	Lodgings and fuel free.
Workmen at rolling-mills Smiths Laborers, common Lamp-lighters, (60 lamps each) Lithographers:	12	2. 40 2. 37 1. 25 to 2. 00 2. 00	63 62 33 to 53 53	J
Best	12	5. 00 2. 00 4. 44	1 32 53 1 18	Are paid 37 öre (10 cents) per hour.
Cutting trees in winter In saw-mills, average Machinists:	12	2.00 3.00	53 80	Free rent and doctor.
First-class Second-class Apprentices Masons:	10 10 10	3. 25 2. 75 1. 25	86 73 33	
Bricklayers Average Women tenders to	12 12	4. 25 3. 60 2. 50	1 12 95 66	By hour.
Plasterers Masters of steam-vessels:	12 12	1, 50	40	4 to 7 cents per square foot.
FirstSecond				\$13.25 to \$16 per month and 5 per cent. of gross earnings.
Third				\$53 to \$80 per month and 8-10 per cent. of net earnings. \$26.50 to \$40 per month and no per centage of earnings; generally

Table showing the rates of wages in Sweden, &c.—Continued.

		otual	Wages	per day.	-
Occi	pation.	Number of hours of actual	Swedish money, (rix-dollars.)	United States gold.	Remarks.
Mates: Fish steam	m-coasters			•••••	\$16 per month and 1 per cent. of net earnings.
Fish sea-v	oyages				\$26.50 per month.
Masters of a	ailing-vessels	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •			\$20 to \$22 per month. \$13.25 to \$16 per month and 5 per
Mates of sail	ing-vessels:		,		cent. of gross earnings. \$20 to \$21 per month.
Second					\$13.25 to \$16 per month.
	nds	11	4.00	\$1 06	And free rent.
Women	hands	11 11	2. 00 1. 25	80 33	
7 (18)	years old years old years old	11	1. 25	33 21	
Boys { 12	years old	11 11	. 80 . 60	16	
Musket-facto	ory: mds	11	4.00	1 06	
Average l	andsabdaa	11	2, 50	66	
In fresco.			6.00	1 59	
Common,	first-class	11 11	4. 00 3. 00	1 06 80	
Apprentic	ces rs	- 11	1.00 4.00 to 8.00	26 1 06 to 2 12	
Piano-maker Planing and machine.	s. I molding with	19	2.00	53	About the same as cabinet-makers. Free doctor.
Printers:	(Best	10	5, 00	1 33	İ
Composit	ors { Best	10 10	3.00 4.00	80 1 06	
On mach	ine Average	10	3.00	80	
Rope-makers Best): 	11	3.00	80	
A verage . Boys und	er 18	11 11 11	2.50 1.75 2.00 to 2.50	66 46 53 to 66	Also \$10 a year clothing.
On steam	ers g-vessels				\$8 to \$10 per month and board. \$12 to \$14 per month and board.
Ordinary					\$8 to \$10 per month and board.
Shirt-maker	Best, with ma-	10	3. 33	90	One-half of the operatives in a fac-
Women	chine. Average, with	10	2.33	64	tory of 400 sew at home.
	On collars, aver-	10	2.75	73	
Shirt sewing	age. , by hand:	1	_	l	
Over 16 y	ears. { Best Average	10 10	2. 20 1. 00	58 26	
Girls unde Ironers :	r 15 years	iŏ	.50 to .80	13 to 21	Generally at home
Best	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	10	2.00	53	
Average . Servanta :		10	1.58	41	
Male	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •				. 20 to 60 rix-dollars (\$5.30 to \$16) per month and board.
Female 8 to 30 rix-dollars (\$2.14 to \$8) per
Ship-builder Most skil	s, iron : led	11	5. 00	1 32	month and board.
Less skill	led	11	4. 00 3. 00	1 06	
Shop-girls, be	e st		2.00	53	Paid by month.
Bilk-factory: Work-ma	ster	12	5.00	1 32	
Weavers,	$\mathbf{women} \left\{ egin{array}{l} \mathbf{Best} \\ \mathbf{Average} \end{array} \right.$		3. 00 1. 33	80 35	
Stone-cutter	81	l	5. 75		
Best cutte	on monuments	12	4. 50 to 5. 50	1 18 to 1 32	Generally by piece.
Average	on granite	12	3, 50	93	Digitized by Google
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Table showing the rates of wages in Sweden, &c .- Continued.

	ctual	Wages	per day.	
Occupation.	Number of hours of actual labor.	Swediah money, (rix- dollars.)	United States gold.	Remarks.
Stone-biasters	12	3. 75	\$1 00	
Artistic hands Summer		10.00 4.00	2 64 1 06	•
Average workmen	1 11	3.00	80	
Women Summer	12	1. 00 . 80	. 26 21	
Foreman	11	5.00	1 39	
Average male hands	11	4.00	1 06	
Women { Best, by piece Average	11 11	3.00 1.66 to 2.00	44 to 53	
Tailors:	•	1.00 to 2.00	, , ,	
Best cutters				\$400 a year.
Male sewers	12 12	3.00 1.25	80 33	
Tannery:				• .
Tanners	11	3.00	80	
Common laborers Tin-platers:	11	2.00	53	
Best	11	5,00	1 32	
Second-class	11	3.00	80	
Boys	11	1. 25	33	
Women Trunk-makers	11 12	1.00 2.33	96 61	
Upholsterers	12	2.00 to 4.00	53 to 1 06	
Washing and ironing				Finest shirts, per dozen, 3.60 rix-
Wine-factory: Work-master Average men Women	10 <u>1</u> 10 <u>1</u>	2.00 1.25	53 33	dollars, or 96 cents; ordinary shirts, per dosen, 3 rix-dollars or 80 cents; miscellaneous, per 30 pounds, 3 rix-dollars, or 80 cents \$4.25 a year.

Statement of the standard retail prices, in United States coin, of subsistence and other necessaries, at Stockholm, for the year 1873.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Flour, bestper bbl.	\$11 00	Teaper ib	\$1 1
Wheat-mealper 20 lbs	70	Soapdo	1
Rye-flourdo	53	Starchdo	1 1
Rye-mealdodo	40	Stearine candlesdo	9
Data grita :		Kerosene oilper gall.	6
Swedish per lb.	1 4	Wood:	i
Englishdo	6	Birch, in common useper cord	8 04
Barley gritsdo		Pine and sprucedo	5.5
Rice, Carolinado	8		1
Potatoesper bush.	60	Shirting: Bleachedper yd Unbleacheddo	9
Peaseper qt.	6	Unblesched do	1
Fresh beef, mutton, veal, and pork.per lb.	14	Calicodo	i i
Salt pork, Americando	14	Linendo	1 2
Ham, smokeddo	20	Mixed half wool and cotton checkered	_
Larddo		cloth, in common use for working-wo-	1
Baltic herring, freshper 80.	40	men's dressesper yd	33
Salt harring, most	4	Black woolen cloth, double width, suita-	_
Salt herringper lb.	6	ble for trowsers and coatsper yd	9.6
Poultry, undresseddo	35	Shoes:	
Butterdo	28	Diale het desable formamen per pair	17
Cheesedo	20	Plain, but durable, for women per pair. For ladies	40
JUCO80	20	For ladies	, ,,
Mükper qt.	6	Boots:	37
Eggsper dos.	20	Plain, but durable, for workmen.do	
Süğar:		For gentlemendo	95
Lumpper lb.	14	White woolen undershirtseach	25
Browndo	10	White woolen drawersper pair	3 5
Molassesper qt.	12	Woolen stockingsdo] 3
Gingerper lb.	37	House-rent, two rooms, for working peo-	۱.,
Coffee, best Javado	27	pleper month	49

WAGES AND THE PURCHASE-POWER OF MONEY.

It seems natural and just that a man's labor should be worth, and that his wages should be, as much as, with economy and prudence, will comfortably maintain himself and family, enable him to educate his children, and also to lay by enough for his decent

when his laboring powers have failed.

Whether wages are high or low, of course, depends not on their absolute amount, but on their purchase-power. If in one country a dollar will go as far in procuring necessaries as two dollars will in another, other things being equal, then a dollar a day in the first country is equally as high wages as two dollars a day in the latter country.

AGRICULTURAL LABOR.

As to agricultural labor, it may be said that in 1871 the average wages of best workmes by the day in summer was I rix-dollar and 85 öre, and in winter I rix-dollar and 18 öre; and of best female hands, in summer, 96 öre, and in winter, 64 öre. During the past three years agricultural wages have risen on an average 36 per cent. Assuming that they have risen 25 per cent. since 1871, the average day-wages for best male hands in summer would now be 2 rix-dollars and 31 ore, (61 cents,) and in winter 1 rix-dollar and 45 ore, (38 cents;) of best female hands, 1 rix-dollar and 20 ore (31 cents) in summer, and 80 ore (21 cents) in winter. It is common to employ men, women, and children in agricultural labor. Sometimes a dozen or twenty such hands will be seen at work together in a field not larger than twenty acres. Sometimes a gang, one might say, of women may be seen hoeing all abreast, with a male overseer standing in front and facing them. And here I may say that generally, in Sweden, the earnings of workmen's wives will average 150 rix-dollars each a year, though, of course, in most cases, for a woman to work out who has young children must be at a sacrifice of true domestic economy.

I estimate the average wages of mechanics to be 73 cents per day, equal to \$4.38 per week, or for a year of 300 working-days, 825 rix-dollars (\$220.)

COST OF LIVING.

As to the expenses of living, there are no published statistics which go into details. The average value of the allowance of subsistence among agricultural employers for a family, say of man, wife, and three children for one year, is 283 rix-dollars, (\$75.26.) But this would furnish too meager a diet to admit of its being adopted as a standard. To bring it up to what is reasonably nourishing, there should first be added to it 25 per cent. on account of increased prices in towns, which would make it 353 rix-dollars and 75 ore. There should then probably be added the retail value of the meat-ration of a garrison soldier for a year, namely, 85 rix-dollars and 31 ore, which would bring the sum up to 439 rix-dollars and 6 öre, which must cover all expenses of provisions and groceries.

The average value of the ration of a garrison soldier at government price is, as above stated, 56.12 ore (14.9 cents) per day, or 204 rix-dollars and 47 ore (\$54.47) per year. (The commutation value of a single ration in the United States Army during the civil war was 30 cents.) Allowing that the family of a workman, wife and three children, will consume double such a ration in a year, the expense of so much subsistence at government price would be 409 rix-dollars and 67 ore, (\$108.94.) But a workman would need to exercise extraordinary foresight, and buy his subsistence at wholesale, in order to get so much for that sum of money. If we allow, then, for such a family—

	Rix-dollars.					
For subsistence	409.67	\$ 108 94				
House-rent	140.00	37 33				
Clothing		34 50				
Fnel	70.00	18 25				
Miscellaneous		13 25				
Total	799. 67	212 27				

We have, say, 800 rix-dollars as the total annual living-expenses of a family of five members. This would answer tolerably well out of Stockholm, but here one should add the sum of 60 rix-dollars on account of rent, in order to procure two reasonably good rooms beside a small kitchen. This would then make an allowance for the expenses of living in Stockholm, for such a family as above mentioned, 860 rix-dollars, which, with prudent management, would be sufficient to carry them through the year in a tidy and wholesome manner. But the wages of an average mechanic having constant employment will, as we have seen, amount to but 825 rix-dollars per year, so that if he has a family, they will have to live sparingly in order to get along. As a general rule, the

families of workmen do not spend 800 rix-dollars, nor even perhaps 700 rix-dollars, for the necessaries of living. On the whole, considering present prices and the acknowledged scarcity of suitable dwellings for working-people, wages cannot be considered as more than living wages for men with families. A single man, however, can make good savings, and ought to lay up money enough for a good support when he becomes unable to work.

The larger mechanical and manufacturing establishments usually clear from 10 to

25 per cent. on their capital.

CERTAINTY OF PAYMENT OF WAGES.

Wages are paid with certainty, and either weekly or semi-monthly. Not unfrequently they are paid on a Friday, partly that the family can have the money for Saturday's market, and partly to prevent the money from being dissipated away by the workmen on Sunday. In trade the cash-system generally obtains. In the larger towns it is the same here as everywhere else, that a certain class will pay cash at a shop till they can manage to run up a bill, and then will go to another shop to trade. Of course all such losses compel shopkeepers to charge higher prices, and the dishonest purchaser, in the long run, gains nothing by his tricks.

in the long run, gains nothing by his tricks.

As to the legal collection of debts, if one desired, for instance, to collect a demand of 20 rix-dollars, he would, in the country, sue before the "härads-rätt," or district court, or before the provincial executive court, and in a city, before the city executive court.

It is not requisite that an attorney be employed, though it is more convenient to have one. His charges in a city would be about 10 rix-dollars, (\$2 65). In the city a defendant must answer in eight days; in the country, fifteen days, or three weeks if out of the district. Appeal to a higher court may be had in the smallest matter. Fees of witnesses depend on their occupation, and vary from 1 to 10 rix-dollars a day. Everything, except actual or necessary clothing, beds, and necessary tools, can be taken on execution. Half the salary of an official may be attached in the hands of the governments. Imprisonment for debt is allowable, but not often resorted to. A pow debtor can swear out.

CLOTHING.

As to clothing, it may be said, in brief, that the Swedes take a pride in being tidily dressed, and that the clothing they wear is generally serviceable. In the province popularly known as Dalecarlia the peasantry of each parish have a different and fanciful style of dress. A sort of blouse worn by women, and coats worn by men. are trimmed with sheep-skin with the wool on. The men there still adhere to the fashion of tight breeches. Wooden shoes are worn a good deal by working-people in the country for every day, also leather shoes soled with wood. A common article for dresses among working-women is a home-woven cloth of half wool and cotton. There

is a large shoddy manufactory at Stockholm.

Operatives at most of the larger establishments have either a voluntary sick-fund of their own, or else a small amount of their monthly wages is retained by their employers for a fund for the payment of a doctor for medicine, and if need be the expenses oburial. At the Stockholm gas-works the men have their own fund, to which they contribute 1 rix-dollar a month. In case of sickness, a man receives 6 rix-dollars a week during six weeks, and after that time 4 rix-dollars a week, if he is sick so long, and in case of death, 100 rix-dollars for funeral expenses. The book-binders of Stockholm have an old fund, so that by contributing 5 rix-dollars per year, a member can receive 5 rix-dollars a week when sick, and 50 rix-dollars for burial. It does not appear to be usual to incur extravagant expense for funerals.

There is still a great supply of labor of certain kinds, and especially of house-servants. People in rather humble life employ one or more servants; and probably the average of families do not pay for a house-maid over 75 rix-dollars (\$20) a year and board. The 24th of October is the usual time of changing help held by the year.

In the summer the number of hours for actual work often exceeds twelve per day. For the whole year eleven hours per day is probably the average of actual work. There is a desire among workmen to have the time reduced. The tendency to work by the piece or by the hour is rapidly increasing. Some employers have, with advantage, introduced the practice of allowing their workmen a percentage of the whole earnings; for example, as extra compensation, to divide 10 per cent. of the gross earnings among their hands. The leading printer in Stockholm pays compositors 30 or per 1,000 ems, and every three months adds 5 per cent. additional on what has been earned.

The Swedish "Patriotic Society" makes numerous awards of medals every year to persons in humble life who have performed many years of exemplary service.

As the most of the railways in Sweden belong to the state, there are many men thereby employed by the government in their construction.

SAVINGS.

The Swedes are naturally inclined to free living, and are less sparing than most of the other continental nationalities. The practice of saving is, however, much on the The first savings-bank started in Stockholm was in 1823. The whole number of such banks in Sweden in 1865 was 186. In 1870 they had increased to 235. The number of new depositors during 1870 was 66,020; the amount deposited during the year was 19,409,657 rix-dollars; the amount taken out, 12,033,056 rix-dollars. At the end of that year 354,357 persons had deposits in the savings-banks amounting to 57,376,611 rix-dollars, of which 276,863 rix-dollars were in deposits (the whole amount the party had on deposit) of from 1 to 10 rix-dollars, belonging to 80,477 different depositors; 631,624 rix-dollars in deposits of from 10 to 25 rix-dollars, belonging to 38,410 depositors; 1,119,479 rix dollars in deposits of from 25 to 50 rix-dollars, belonging to 30,825 depositors: 2.363,874 rix-dollars in deposits of from 50 to 100 rix-dollars, the largest proportion being in deposits of upward of 500 rix-dollars. It is estimated that at the end of the present year the amount on deposit will be 80,000,000 rix-dollars.

MEANS TO ENCOURAGE SAVINGS.

There is an association in Stockholm called the Fosterlands Union, for the purpose of encouraging savings. During the few years it has been in operation it has gratuitously circulated about twenty thousand pamphlets and circulars, explaining the advantages of even small savings. It also awards premiums in money for exemplary permanent savings, such as investments in the annuity and capital institution of Stockpermanent savings, such as investments in the animity and capital institution of stock-holm, which has branches in various parts of the country. In this institution, for ex-ample, if 25 rix-dollars be deposited at the time of a person's birth to procure him a life annuity when he arrives at the age of fifty-five, it will yield him from that age as long as he shall live 100 rix-dollars a year. In 1872 the Fosterland Union awarded 1,056 premiums, amounting in all to 2,884 rix-dollars, for exemplary investments in this annuity institution; that is to say, for the most regular and praiseworthy deposits of working records. The highest premium awarded was 75 rix-dollars. No premium of working-people. The highest premium awarded was 75 rix-dollars. No premium has been given for deposits amounting in any year to over 500 rix-dollars; and hereafter none will be given for deposits amounting to over 200 rix-dollars in a year.

Savings-banks can be established in any province (the Swedish counties, being large, are habitually called provinces) by the consent of the governor of that province. The depositors or shareholders have right to choose the directors of the bank, and there are no other guarantees of security. The government appoints one director or inspector of the annuity institution of Stockholm, but the other members of the board of direction are chosen by the investors. There are no other guarantees of security.

The following are a few of the instances of savings that have come under my

knowledge:

The operatives at the Gustafsberg china-factory have a union store, to the fund of which each operative is required to contribute one rix-do lar a month, his whole share not to exceed 100 rix-dollars. The sale of goods out of the store last year amounted to 100,000 rix-dollars, with a profit of 25 per cent. on each one's stock. A private savings-bank connected with the factory, which has been in operation less than a year,

has deposits of the operatives amounting to 1,000 rix-dollars.

The hands of the government machine-shop at Stockholm have a private savings-company under their own control, the treasurer being chosen from among their number. The money is loaned out at 8 per cent., generally to such workmen as are erecting

houses of their own, and the income divided pro rata.

At Eshilstuna, where the government musket-factory is situated, and where the number of people working for wages is about 2,000, and the number working at cut-lery on their own account is about 500, the cashier of a savings-bank, in which 88,920 rix-dollars were deposited in 1872, estimates that about 1,000 of the depositors were

working-people living in town.

A second-class workman in the match-factory at Jönköping earns 700 rix-dollars a year; has a family of wife, mother-in-law, and three children, the eldest a boy of ten years old, who goes to school. He has a kitchen 14 by 12, a sitting-room 15 by 15, a cellar, and shed-room for three cords of wood. His expenses for subsistence are 370 rix-dollars a year; taxes, 6 rix dollars 63 öre; and total expenses about 650 rix-dollars.

He lays up annually from 30 to 50 rix-dollars a year in the savings-bank.

A workman in a foundery at Stockholm, who has a family of wife and three children a boy thirteen years old at school, a girl seven, and the youngest a boy three years old—lives in a second-story room up a steep pair of stairs, (down which the youngest child has fallen several times,) which is 10 by 10, and 7 feet high. He earns 2 rixdollars a day, has worked at the same place ten years, and since the eighth year has had

free rent. They have fresh meat three times a week. He has money in the savings-

bank, and saves annually about 100 rix-dollars.

A book-binder in Stockholm, who earns 1,060 rix-dollars a year, has a wife and three children, pays 200 rix-dollars a year for a fair-sized living-room, a smaller room without windows, and a kitchen, all four stories up. His annual expenses are 876 rix-dollars. His wife earns 150 rix-dollars a year, so that their clear income is 334 rix-dollars.

These are all cases of temperate men, who have prudent wives, and they show that where people have the disposition, and do not meet with serious misfortune, they can most always make savings. Many an employer or manager has remarked to me, "Everything depends on the wife," which shows how important it is, by education and otherwise, to improve and elevate the condition of women.

At the Motala Iron Machine Works, where 1,100 hands are employed eleven hours a day, working by the hour, 300 workmen have invested 75,000 rix-dollars in a saving-bank, with interest at 5 per cent. A leading workman has 10,000 rix-dollars in bank. About 150 workmen own the dwellings which they occupy and a piece of land. few own small farms. The workmen have a union, with a building, which cost 10,000 rix-dollars, paid for by a loan, one-third of which has been redeemed.

When I was at Sundswall last summer, and was paying a porter for bringing my

baggage from the steamer to the hotel, our consular-agent remarked, "That young man has 5,000 rix-dollars in the savings-bank. Everybody has confidence in him, and likes to employ him, because he keeps his word." A member of the Diet living at Sundswall assured me that workmen there could earn 10 rix-dollars a day, and, in

respect to wages, could do as well as in the United States.

VENTILATION.

As to ventilation, and the quantity of atmosphere allowed to adult persons in sleeping-rooms, 1,000 cubic feet, equivalent to a room 10 by 10 and 10 feet high, being the acknowledged standard allowance, it would seem that the care in such matters taken by the state for its best soldiers, should afford fair means of forming a judgment as to

what is general.

At a shirt-factory in Stockholm, 40 young women sit through the day sewing in a room 24 by 24 and 12 feet high. At a large paying factory of another kind at Stockholm, 12 female operatives are lodged in one room, two together, in beds only 3 feet wide. At the quarters of chimney-sweep boys it is usual for about 8 to lodge in a room 15 by 12 and 9 feet high. These boys seem to be well fed but poorly paid, though their employers derive a good income.

USE OF SPIRITS AND BEER.

The reports of district physicians to the board of health, for a few years preceding 1870, mention a diminution of whisky-drinking, which probably was partly owing to the scarcity of money caused by several failures of the crops. During the past year or two of flush times it has seemed as if the copious use of spirits was again increasing, and yet there are evidences of a steady abatement of intemperance. In 1829, when and yet there are evidences of a steady abatement of intemperance. In 1829, when the population was a million less than it is now, the annual production of whisky was 32,000,000 gallons, while now it is 10,500,000 gallons. The actual production in 1872 was 16,678,364 kannor, or, in round numbers, 10,500,000 gallons. It was distilled from potatoes, and contained 50 per cent. of alcohol. About the same quantity was produced in each of the immediately-preceding years. Very little is exported. The most, or say 2½ gallons in proportion to every inhabitant, is consumed as drink.

By the license-act any one can sell quantities of 8½ gallons and upward without a license. Two classes of licenses are issued: one for selling quantities not less than three-tenths of a gallon, another for selling by the glass; and both classes are disposed of to the highest bidder. The local authorities can grant all the licenses to a single company, or may even prohibit the sale entirely. It is illegal to sell to minors under fifteen years of age or to persons who are intoxicated.

fifteen years of age or to persons who are intoxicated.

The number of shops licensed to sell whisky by the glass in Stockholm for the year 1872 was 322, which was 5 less than for the year 1869, and 150 less than for the year 1845. Beside these licensed shops there are places which have old and permanent privileges to sell by the glass. The licensed shops are also a cheap sort of restaurants. The applicant for license in Stockholm must pay to the city 40 ore on every kannor (24 quarts) he asks the privilege of selling. The income to the city from licenses was 350,407 rix-dollars. The public expenses for its poor in 1870 were 635,374 rix-dollars.

The ordinary Swedish whisky-glass holds a fifth part as much as a common tumbler, and as much whisky as it will contain is sold at 6 ore, (11 cents.) Five such drinks in the course of a day by a workman, or 30 ores' worth, is not considered an immoderate quantity. The expense of so much whisky in a year, at that rate of use per day,

would be 109 rix-dollars at 50 öre.

The Gothenburg plan for retailing spirits appears to have operated favorably, and is attracting much attention. That city puts the business into the hands of a company of philanthropic gentlemen, which has it sold in orderly restaurants without a view of profit. The theory that the use of beer has conduced to temperance is hardly sustained by experience in Sweden. A great deal of beer has been consumed in late years, and though it is not so strong as the English beer, it is nevertheless intoxicating. The report of one of the official physicians to the board of health in 1869 mentions cases of actual delirium tremens from excessive use of beer. Another physician states that when a doctor visits a peasant family the man of the house always urges him to take a glass of whisky, and is astonished when told that its use as a beverage is unhealthy. The sight of drunken workmen in the streets of Stockholm, especially on Saturday evenings, on Sundays, and on Mondays, is common.

day evenings, on Sundays, and on Mondays, is common.

The phrase "Free Monday" comes from the custom of men engaged in sedentary and manual trades spending Monday as well as Sunday in drinking and frolicking. There are shops employing from sixty to one hundred hands which on Monday will only have a third of that number. There are also shops which have their private temperance societies. At the Motala Machine-Works is a society of 100 members—workmen pledged to abstain from whisky. At no work-shop employing workmen is whisky

allowed to be brought upon the premises.

Among the causes which make the use of spirits so common may be mentioned the fashion among all classes of the male population to partake of a glass of whisky immediately before dining; the common practice, even among the young, of drinking beer with meals; the common use of tobacco among males, in smoking and sauffing, and among the poorer classes of men of chewing snuff; the lack of sources of recreation during leisure hours; and lastly, and perhaps the most important of all, the insufficient diet of the workingman, his lack of elevation, and of home attractions.

DWELLINGS.

In the larger cities the houses are of unpressed bricks; the walls over a foot thick, plastered, and washed in a sort of cream color. The roofs of the larger ones are covered with sheet-iron; those of the common-sized dwellings in city and country are covered with tiles. In the larger houses each story is finished as apartments for a family. There is a spacious fire-proof stairway common to the whole house. Neither balconies nor outer binds are in use. The windows are in two parts from top to bottom, and open outward on hinges. In the winter double windows are universally used, with a roll of white cotton laid between at the bottom, openings of at least one large pane on hinges being provided for in each room in the better houses. In the country, among the working-class, it is common for the double windows to be put in so as not to be opened. The manner of warming is by an earthen stove in each room, generally reaching from the floor to the ceiling, and usually standing in a corner. They belong to and argfixtures of the house. Near the Norwegian frontier iron stoves are used, which is the habit in Norway. An average earthen stove in the Stockholm houses costs 500 rix-dollars, (\$132,) and the most elegant ones as high as 2,000 rix dollars, (\$530.) The interior of the stove is of brick-masonry work, the exterior of white glazed earthen material in the form of hollow panes. The whole can be taken apart and put up with but little labor. Their Swedish name signifies literally earthen-pane ovens. In shape they are about as frequently oval as square, but sometimes are highly ornamented, occasionally having a fine mirror for a part of their surface, and being so put up as to appear as merely a part of the wall of the room. Wood is used for fuel, being cut in pieces about a foot long. All that can be conveniently put in at once, say as much as would ordinarily be taken in one's arms, is laid in at one heating, and after it has burned to coals, and the gas has all escaped, the stove-door is shut and a damper drawn at the top to prevent the heat escaping. In an ordinary-sized room, and if the weather is not excessively cold, such a heating will answer for twenty-four hours. Some of this sort of stoves, from the Stockholm factory, have been imported to the United States. It is probable they are more comfortable and conducive to health than iron stoves. Among most of the peasantry in the country, and among many working-people who only occupy a kitchen, the rooms are warmed solely by the kitchen fireplace, the hearth of which varies in elevation from one to two feet above the floor. Its hearth is often of iron. There is a damper in the chimney to prevent the heat from

It is rare to see equalor in the homes of the working poor. Generally, even in the poorest cottage, there is an indication of pride, tidiness, and taste.

AVERAGE DWELLING OF WORKINGMAN.

The average apartments of a Swedish workman, having a family of wife and three or four children, consist of a living-room and a kitchen, with dimensions and furniture

about as follows: The kitchen is 9 feet high. In it stand a small cupboard and a box for wood. On the raised hearth of the open angular fire-place are some cooking-utensils, among them a copper coffee-boiler. On a pole hanging under the ceiling are strung some thin cakes of rye hard bread, about a foot in diameter. The floor is unpainted, and while not actually dirty, is not white. The living-room is 16 feet by 14, and the same height as the kitchen. The floor is of spruce or pine, the boards closely matched, and scrubbed clean. A couple of strips of home-woven carpet are laid across it. There are two windows, with cheap, yet clean and tasteful, lace curtains hung on each side. On one side of the room is a plain sofa-bed, which can be drawn out so as to make a double bed four feet wide, something over a foot higher than the floor. Commonly in Sweden beds are shut up during the day to half their length. The bedding is laid together on the single breadth of the sofa, resembling a high single bunk, over which is laid a white cotton spread. On the opposite side is a wooden sofa of stained birch, the bottom of which can also be drawn out so as to form a double bed; and there are three or four wooden chairs. At one corner of the room is a plain stained bureau. A white cotton crochet is spread over the top, and on that are some little articles of china—a cup and saucer, or a vase, and a couple of plated candlesticks. Between the windows stands a table with a red woolen cover, and above it is a gilt-framed mirror. On the walls are two or three framed pictures, some little shelves for books suspended with a cord, and a cheap clock. In another corner of the room is a small cupboard or dresser. In still another corner stands the earthen stove, and on the floor against it is placed a spit-box, the bottom of which is covered with spruce twigs. On the window-seats are soveral pote of flowers—the oleander, the geranium, &c.

INFLUENCE OF A WORKMAN'S HOME.

The influence which a workman's home exerts on his own and his family's welfare is becoming more and more recognized. Employers begin to understand that, in proportion as a workman's dwelling is ample in size, neat and attractive within, and wholesome in its surroundings, does his efficiency increase. In Gothenburg, and perhaps in some other places, share-companies have been formed for the building of model tenements for the industrial classes, and a few buildings of the kind have already been put up there. In all parts of the country a few of the principal employers are preparing to erect model dwellings, with the intention that their workmen may ultimately, by annual payments, become the owners of them.

Some of the best model dwellings that I have seen are at the china-ware factory at Gustafsberg, about two hours' distance by steamer from Stockholm. About a dozen have already been erected, and it is the purpose of the proprietors to continue their construction till the most of their hands-400-are supplied, though the old accommodations are as good as the average. The factory is situated in a retired and somewhat romantic region, on what seems more like a lake than a bay, yet with navigable communication with the see and the model dwellings are five minutes' walk distant, with a view of the water, and 30 feet above its level. The land, of which 2,000 acres belong to the factory-owners, is moderately rolling, mostly open timber of birch and oak, with here and there a small pond, and the balance fields. The dwellings in question are pleasantly situated on each side of a graded and macadamized road, and 30 feet from it. Each house is designed for only two families, and is 46 feet long, 28 feet wide, and one and a half stories high. They are built of pine or spruce timber, in tasteful cottage style, and are of light-brown color, being stained so as to leave the grain of the wood visible. They rest on solid stone or brick foundations. The walls are three-quarters of a foot in thickness. The outer boards are planed clapboards, two-thirds of an inch thick; next is a thickness of paper, such as is used in house-building, then battens three inches thick, then paper, then boards, and again thick paper, the latter forming the interior walls of the rooms, so that the whole constitute exceedingly dry and warm walls. The roof is covered with wooden shingles steeped in iron vitriol, which gives them a dark color, and projects from the ends two feet from the walls, with some ornamental work on the edges. There is a brick chimney for each family near each end of the house. Each family has There is a brick chimney for each family near each end of the nouse. Each family near two entrances, at their own end of the house, from a veranda 18 feet by 5, two steps from the ground, and along which runs a neat balustrade. One door opens into the kitchen, the other into the sitting room. There are three rooms to a family, namely, kitchen, bed-room, and sitting-room. The kitchen is 13 by 13 feet, 9 feet high; bed-room ditto, with one window. The sitting-room is 18 by 15 feet, and 9 feet high, with, in some houses, one large window, in others two windows. Under each kitchen is a small cellar. There is also a garret for each family, reached by portable steps from the veranda. Good water is obtained from a well 5 feet deep on each lot. The diocets stand saveral rods in rear of the houses at the forthest edge of the premises. The stand several rods in rear of the houses, at the farthest edge of the premises. dwellings being partly experimental, the relative size of the rooms varies in some, though each family has the full space as above given. But what is most striking about these dwellings is the land which each family has connected with their part of the house, and the beautiful flower-gardens, and nice, thrifty vegetable-gardens which surround them. Each family has the use of a quarter of an acre of good smooth ground, which is divided into a vegetable and a flower garden. There are no fences between the different gardens, but instead hedges have been planted between the different lots. There is a simple rustic fence between them and the road. The gardener of the principal proprietor comes in the spring and assists the people in laying out their gardens, and the rest of the work is done by the housewife and children. The flower-gardens are prettily laid out, with grass margins and graveled walks, and contain an abundance of nice flowers and shrubbery, also fine-bearing apple and pear trees. I noticed on September 8, on a young tree, handsome ruddy apples 2½ inches in diameter. Shade-trees have been planted on each side of the road. The occupants are charged but 60 rix-dollars (\$16) a year for rent, and this sum is about covered by the income from the vegetable garden. They also have free use of a nice hilly park, close to their premises. The cost of each house, exclusive of land, is \$1,322, or 5,000 rix-dollars. Everything about them is thorough and neat, and, with the ample space about them, their attractive surroundings of flowers and shrubbery, and their white lace curtains at the windows, they might readily be taken as the homes of the well-to-do middle-class. Of course the oldest and best hands have the preference in obtaining such dwellings.

FOOD.

It can truly and happily be said that there is scarcely any adulterated food used in Sweden. The poorest people in the country sometimes mix burnt-bread crumbs with their coffee, or use chiccory, of which there were 446,485 pounds imported in 1871, while the import of pure coffee in kernel was 20,693,734 pounds; but, with such slight exceptions, the food is pure. One hears no complaint of adulterated milk being sold in the market-squares of Stockholm. A person may trayel all over Sweden, and find at convenient distances on every public road hotels that furnish clean, good, and palatable food. Some of them, even in remote places, will be found luxurious. The meals at

railway eating-stations and on steamboats are habitually good.

The principal articles of diet for the working-class in scarce times have been potatoes, rye-bread, milk, salt herring, and a porridge of rye-meal, called "velling." In the past year or two, as wages have risen, it has become common to consume salt pork from the United States, which is considered a luxury as compared with salt fish. Much of the rye-bread is of unbolted meal, and after baking is dried hard, so as to last many months. The herring used on the eastern coast, and perhaps half way to the Norwegian boundary, are from the Baltio Sea and Bothnia Gulf, and called "strömoning." They are about eight inches in length, and covered with small scales of a shining, bluish color. When broiled quite fresh their flavor is not much inferior to that of a brook-trout. They are salted at home, and often, in the north part of the country, become half decayed during some days' transportation before getting to their destination.

The Swedish working-people may be regarded as hearty eaters; yet, if their fare is copious, it is at the same time simple. In the towns it is perhaps an unfortunate habit of very many workmen to take their meals and lunches at the common whisky-shops, where cold meats, sausages, and the like are always at hand. The import of coffee shows an allowance of over five pounds to every inhabitant, and its use is excessive among a good many of the common class, especially among the women. It is almost always well and strongly made. It is common to take coffee soon after rising in the morning. Breakfast, among the industrial classes, is eaten at about 8 o'clock. By many coffee is taken again at 11, also at 4 p. m. Dinner is eaten at 1 p. m., when the drink is usually beer. Bavarian beer, so called, though brewed in Stockholm in large quantities, is much liked, and sells by the dozen at 8 ore, say 2½ cents per half bottle. There is, however, a cheaper and weaker beer, called "svogdricker," wholesomely brewed, reasonably palatable, and used by poorer people. The supper will be taken at 6 o'clock, when oat or barley grits, thoroughly boiled, will be eaten with a little sugar or butter. In the long summer days working-people usually eat four times a day, a lunch being taken at 4 p. m. Neither hot bread nor pies are ever eaten, nor is saleratus used in bread-making. The practice of frying instead of boiling meat is universal.

The "smorg&sbord" is peculiarly Swedish. It is preliminary to any formal sitting-down meal, and answers for sharpening—sometimes for satisfying—the appetite. It is a daintily-arranged side table, on which are set some small, thin slices of cold meat, varieties of pickled fish, bread and butter, pickles, and, with very rare exceptions, "brünvin," (Swedish whisky,) a white and somewhat flavored spirit. Medium-sized wine-glasses are set around the decanter, and after the men (for Swedish women do not drink whisky) have taken a few mouthfuls of solid food, they pour out and drink at a swallow a glass of whisky. While eating at this table, on which generally, in private families, there are also milk and beer, people stand or walk about. This table and the glass of whisky—sometimes two glasses—are in daily use among people in comfortable circumstances, and by the industrial classes on any special occasion, or

when their means will allow. At dinner-parties, among the more genteel, instead of the table being set, a part of its contents in more delicate form, yet including the spirit, are passed around on waiters before the guests go in to dinner.

RATION OF GARRISON SOLDIER.

The rations for one hundred soldiers in the Swedish garrisons for one day, for example Sunday, are as follows: Soft rye-bread, 200 pounds; potatoes, 2 bushels; butter, 14½ pounds; salt herring, 18½ pounds; fresh meat, 75 pounds; pease, dry, 10 quarts; bulled wheat, 10 pounds; barley-grits, 35 pounds; flour, 12 pounds; a little

pepper and salt.
The ration varies in kind during the week, but quantities are issued averaging with the above. It will be seen that two pounds of bread are issued to each man daily, the Swedish pound being a trifle less than the pound avoirdupois. For the breakfast, there are salt herrings four times in the week; boiled cod-fish, which has been dry-cured, twice; stewed pease four times, potatoes three times, butter three times. For dinner, fresh meat three times in the week, corned meat twice, salt meat once, fresh perk once, stewed pease every day, potatoes four times, hulled wheat three times, with a little flour, pepper and salt. For supper, daily, boiled barley-grits, with butter and salt. This ration is considered here as a strong one, and is sufficiently ample to admit of the exchange of a portion of it for coffee and sugar, as the regulations permit, and the men in that way obtain coffee with loaf sugar every morning before breakfast. No company savings are made from the ration. Its average cost per day, singly, at government prices, is 56.12 öre, or 15 cents in gold. At retail prices, and in the quantities which working-people usually purchase, the cost would be 20 per cent. additional, namely, 67 öre, or 18 cents.

The daily ration per man for such men as perform labor in the public workhouse of The daily ration per man for such men as perform labor in the public workhouse of Stockholm, including those sent from the institution to clean the streets, is as follows; 1 pound of rye-bread, or as much as is required. Breakfast: ½ pound pickled herring, ½ pound potatoes, ½ pound pease, 1 pennyweight butter, 3 pennyweights flour, 1½ pints light beer, "svogdricker;" in winter, rye-porridge instead. Dinner: ½ pound fresh meat free of bone, ½ pound potatoes, 1½ pints soup. Supper: 1 pint rye or barley grits, ½ pint light beer, with some variations in kind during the week.

The following shows the daily fare for each boy at the Stockholm Institution for Orphan Boys: 1 pound soft rye-bread. Breakfast: 1 pint rye-meal porridge, ‡ ounce butter. Dinner: 1 pint soup, ½ pound fresh meat free of bone, ½ pound potatoes. Supper: 1½ pints barley-grits, ½ pint milk, with changes in kind during the week.

The average cost of maintaining sick persons in all the public hospitals is 92.5 ore each per day, or 25 cents.

each per day, or 25 cents.

As a general rule, working-people do not consume fresh meat oftener than once or twice a week, and it may fairly be assumed that subsistence, amounting to double the quantity of the ration of a garrison-soldier, as above specified, somewhat exceeds what an average industrial family, of husband, wife, and three children, are able to procure. A very common, nutritious, palatable, and at the same time cheap article of food consists of boiled oat-grits, eaten with milk; also, oat-meal porridge, made with milk and slightly sweetened.

CITIES.

Stockholm, the capital, has a population of 150,000, with a picturesque situation on the outlet of the Mülar Lake, and twenty miles from the Baltic, with several ample and charming parks in its environs; the deer-park, for example, being pronounced by competent judges as naturally the finest in Europe. With numerous benevolent and learned institutions and rich collections of art, with a fine opera in the Swedish language, with a fair commerce and growing manufactures—a city founded on granite and built of bricks and of stone—it is the capital of the North, of which every Swede is proud, and may well be supposed an agreeable winter home for many of the country

Gothenburg, on the western coast, has 60,000 inhabitants, a good harbor, and communication with the interior by a canal, and two lines of railway, and without exag-

geration may be pronounced a model city.

Malmö and Norrköping have a population of about 30,000 each. Ten other cities have a population each of 10,000 and upward, while there are twenty others that have from four to ten thousand each. About 13 per cent. of the whole population live in towns.

POPULATION AND RESOURCES.

According to the census of 1871, the whole population of Sweden was then 4,204,171. It has trebled in the last one bundred years. The commercial marine of Sweden in the same year consisted of 3,495 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 367,614. The value of its imports the same year was \$45,260,372, United States gold, and its exports \$42,525,265. The value of the export of grain was \$10,791,600; of lumber, \$17,446,576; of metal. \$10,000,000. The production of pig-iron amounted to 337,363 tons. The value of manufactures and fabrics was \$28,000,000, which sum, however, is under the actual value, and is exclusive, also, of the products of hand-trades, which are considered equal in value to "manufactures" and "fabrics."

The agricultural crops in 1871, according to the statistics for that year, which are

considered to be rather under the actual figures, were as follows:

Wheati	mperial bushels.	589, 288
Rye		
Barley	do	14, 443, 312
Oats	do	37,063,669
Mixed grain		
Pease		
Beans.		
Bnckwheat		
Potatoes		
Other root-crops		
Vetches, fodder of pea species		
Hemp		
Hay	do.	1,768,220

SOCIAL STATISTICS.

The number of households in 1870 was 1,017,323. Of these the number having but a single member was 131,565, a proportion that appears to be on the increase. The average number in a household was within a small fraction of 5. In 1860 the average number was 6.80 The rate of mortality was 1.98 per cent. Eighteen per cent. of the mortality was of infants under one year of age. During the ten years 1861 to 1870 the number of living children born annually in proportion to every 1,000 inhabitants was Of these, the proportion of illegitimate births, including the whole kingdom. was 5.85; but including only cities, the proportion of illegitimate was 14.32. Three and a quarter per cent. of all births were still-born. During the ten years 1861 to 1870 the percentage of legitimate still-born was 3.13; of illegitimate still-born, 4.82. During the same period the average number of marriages annually in proportion to every 10,000 inhabitants was 65.44 For the same period the whole number of divorces from marriage was 1,301; of dissolution of betrothals, 1,549. The average number of suicides per year in proportion to every 100,000 inhabitants was 8.04; number of deaths. from drowning, 1,132; from accidental burning or scalding, 153; from accidental poisoning, 20; from accidental suffocation, 146; from accidental shooting, 32; from contu-

sions, breaking of bones, and the like, 461.

In 1870, the number of blind under twenty years of age was 400; of deaf and dumbunder the same age, 1,500. The number of patients at the insane asylums was 1,247, of whom 46 belonged to the first paying-class, 154 to the second, and 920 to the third,

while 127 were at public charge.

The number of poor wholly supported by the public was 85,147; the number assisted, but not wholly supported by the public, was 119,231. The average number of convicts in all the prisons in 1870 was 5,951.

EDUCATION.

Previous to 1842 there were as many as 786 schools, with 30,773 pupils. Compulsory education was established in 1842, and has operated very successfully. In the more sparsely-settled districts there are "movable" schools; that is, the teacher holds a school for a few days or weeks in one part of a district and then for a certain time in another part of it, which shows that there is always a way for a people to be educated, if they only have the disposition. In 1870 there were 1,164 such movable schools. The whole number of "folk" or common district schools the same year was 7,303, attended by 555,595 pupils. In 1871 the number of male teachers of such schools was 5,029, of whom 52 were clergymen and 1,057 church clerks. The number of female teachers was 2,776. Of the whole number of teachers, 838 were extra or assistants. Of the regular or ordinary teachers, 2,455 received the minimum pay of 400 rix-dollars a year, besides apartments for lodgings, a piece of ground, and hay for a cow, which minimum, beginning with next year, is to be 500 rix-dollars, and in five years thereafter 600 rix-dollars, and only 715 received over the minimum pay. The number of school-houses was 4,413, with 2,166 gardens attached. The amount expended in 1871 for the support of these schools was 3,537,968.62 rix-dollars, or nearly \$1,000,000 gold. Of this the principal part, or 2,573,927.58 rix-dollars, was contributed by parishes, 842,907 81 rix-dollars by the state, and 121,133.13 rix-dollars from interest on endowments. In 1870 there were 98 high schools for boys, having 756 teachers and 12,755 pupils.

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CLASS-DISTINCTIONS.

Aristocratic birth here gives a person great preference socially and politically. The better offices are almost exclusively held by the aristocracy. The number of persons in Sweden of noble birth in 1855 was 11,742. Their political power as a distinct class ceased with the new constitution of 1866. The titles of count and baron, which of themselves are influential, are still used. In one of the guard-regiments the custom is

still adhered to of appointing only noblemen as commissioned officers.

There are five different orders of knighthood, of which one confers rank equal to that of a cabinet minister. Titles are much used. In addressing a person in writing, his title, profession, or occupation is prefixed to his name; so that if a man is a shoemaker it is as natural to address him by that title as to address a captain as captain. Even the surnames of people have a signification of caste. The nobles generally have names borrowed from animals, as "Lionhead," or from some heroic device, such as a shield; while the names of the unnoble are more frequently taken from objects of nature, such as "Meadowstream," "Rockstream," and the like. On the other hand, the peasant very generally have the word "son" attached to their names. It would be singular, perhaps, if a person should rise to the rank of prime minister with an unnoble name. If we go among the peasantry, we shall find that even they are a sort of aristocracy as compared with a class below them. What is technically the peasant is in Swediah "bonde," and implies one of the class of countrymen who own and cultivate moderate-sized farms. Below him in social rank is the "torpar," or cottager, a man with family, who hires a house and small patch of land, which he pays for by so many days' work every week.

and small patch of land, which he pays for by so many days' work every week.

A house man-servant is called a "betjent," and an outdoor hired man a "drang."

A servant-girl of lowest rank, who does some outdoor work, is a "piga," the ordinary house-maid a "jungfru," and a maid intrusted with some responsibility and working with a scamstress a "mamsel." A young unmarried lady is addressed as "früken," the wife of a workman as "madam," and of a gentleman as "fru."

Fashion seems more favorable to young men than to young women. The latter, if employed as kitchen or house servants, generally wear black silk kerchiefs closely pinned over their heads, but not hats or bonnets, notwithstanding that the law prescribing their dress was several years ago repealed. Young men in the humblest occupation can appear, when wearing their best clothes, in the dress of a gentleman. In the country the working man, of whatever trade, wears a leather apron, which extends from over his breast to below his knees.

The relations between the higher classes and those in humble life, and between employer and employed, are decidedly kind. Indeed, it is almost universal to address servants, or those of whom any act of service is desired, as "snäll," meaning very capable and serviceable, and in rather a beseeching tone. In the winter, family-servants among the wealthy are allowed fires in their rooms, two servants generally occupying a room together. The whipping of persons in service was abolished by law in 1855, and the whipping of soldiers in 1868.

SALARIES.

The highest salaries are paid to foreign ministers. The annual salary of the minister to London is \$17,011, and the same for the minister at Paris; the minister to St. Peterburg receives \$15,957; to Berlin, \$10,000; to Copenhagen, \$10,000. The minister of foreign affairs receives a salary of \$6,387 and a furnished house. The other members of the cabinet who are chiefs of the departments receive \$4,000 a year; those not chiefs of departments, \$3,500. The pay of first under-secretaries is \$1,462 a year; the Kings attorney-general, \$1,835; judges of the supreme court, \$2,127 each; the director-general of prisons, posts, telegraphs, and the president of the board of health, \$2,127 each; the director-general of railways, auditors-general, and directors-general of customs, \$2,393 each; the chief engineer of railways, \$2,659; the surveyor-general, \$1,595; the director-general of forests, \$1,835; the attorney general of the Diet, \$1,835; accountants, from \$500 to \$930; copyists, \$267; a general in command, \$2,393; colonels, from \$1,433 to \$1,962; captains, from \$319 to \$1,117; lieutenants, from \$30 to \$516. In most cases pensions, after long and meritorious service, are paid. The constitution prohibits removals from office without good cause, excepting those officers of a confidential character, such as the heads of departments or bureaus and first under-secretaries.

The latest published statistics on this head are for the year 1860, those for 1870 being

in course of publication.

In 1860, the number of persons of both sexes employed in the various occupations were as follows as to each: Agriculture, including fisheries, 664,063; mining and productive industry, 174,073; commerce and trade, 20,431; transportation, 21,054; personal service, 93,350; sick care, 2,371; instruction, 7,400; church service, 5,773; state and local administration, 9,392; army and navy service, 39,090.

The more thoroughly labor is divided, the higher naturally will be the degree of skill. In the government musket-factory, and, indeed, in all industries where a high

degree of skill has been attained, the division of labor will be found very extensive. Swedish skill in the production of iron and steel is widely acknowledged. In the manufacture of chinaware, of paper from wood, and of matches, much skill is shown. A match-factory at Jönköping consumes \$40,000 worth of timber, principally poplar, yearly in matches, and ships off one and a half car-loads of matches daily. It pays every year nearly \$100,000 in wages. The Swedish laws probibit the employment of children under twelve years of age in any factory. Operatives under eighteen years of age are prohibited from being employed in any factory at night.

It is in only a few hand-trades as yet in which more than ordinary skill is to be seen.

Boots, however, nearly as good as the French, are made in Stockholm. A great part of the cloth used by the country people is woven at home by women. Co-operative labor

the cloth used by the country people is woven at nome by women. Co-operative labor has lately been introduced with success in the production of butter and cheese. Sewing-machines are common. During the present year a number of American agricultural machines have been introduced into the country.

Much out-door work is still done by women. Besides doing certain kinds of farming work, they are also generally employed as tenders to bricklayers; they prepare the mortar and carry it in buckets. They sometimes carry bricks, which is done with a rope over their shoulders. They are frequently to be seen hauling small carts in the street, and especially in hauling washing to and from the quays, it being the practice all over Sweden to take clothes, after they have been partly washed, to some stream or lake and there rinse and beat them. Summer and winter, therefore, women may be seen on their knees down by the water's edge, on platforms specially designed for the purpose, in this occupation. In most of the large manufactories the coarsest of the drudgery is done by women. The law has not yet given the wife control of her earnings.

MINING AND MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES IN 1871.

The following statement of the products of the mining and manufacturing industry of Sweden in 1871, was obtained from another source:

The number of iron-mines in operation in Sweden during the year 1871 was 487, from which 636,453.15 tons of ore were obtained, (besides 15,509.54 tons of argillaceous ironstone.) This is the largest annual yield ever recorded in that country.

The products of the iron manufacture were as follows:

	Tons.
Pig-iron	293, 988.85
Bar-iron	184, 696,48
Cast iron	12, 036.45
Stael	8, 389,05
Sheet-iron	6, 455,66
Nails	6.036.83
Other manufactures of iron	14,079.72

Of gold, silver, copper, nickel, and lead, the following quantities were produced:

Gold	13.38 pounds avoirdupois.
Silver	2. 147.78 pounds avoirdupois.
Nickel	40, 568.86 pounds avoirdupois.
Copper	1, 398.18 tons.
Lead	

The total number of factories in operation during the same year was 2,305, employing 40,420 hands, and the aggregate value of the manufactured products of these amounted to \$29,002,930, of which the percentage from each of the principal branches is exhibited as follows:

	Per cet	ıt.
Cotton-factories	23.	. 0
Sugar-reflueries	16.	. 2
Sugar-refineries	10.	.8
Iron-works	10.	. 3
Tobacco-factories.	6.	. 7
Leather-factories	5.	. 0
Paper-mills	5.	. 0
Match-factories	. 2	. 5
All other branches	20	. 5
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CONDITION OF THE WORKING-CLASSES IN SWEDEN.

Although Mr. Andrews has indicated in the foregoing report the condition of the laboring classes in Sweden, yet the following categorical replies to the questions submitted by the author afford, in a concise form, information of value:

A report on the condition of the working-people of Sweden in reply to questions from the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics.

I. They are industrious.

II. Probably 40 per cent. of the males are intemperate.

III. They lose about two days a week in consequence.

IV. The comforts of their families are seriously abridged by the loss of time and money oscasioned by drink, yet more, probably, by that moral degradation and wretchedness occasioned where the head of the family is a drunkard.

V. The condition of the rooms of the working-people is in general tidy.

VI. It is common for one family to occupy one room besides a small kitchen. VII. The advances in wages which have occurred in the past two years have on the whole resulted to the advantage of the families of the workmen.

STOCKHOLM, December 15, 1874.

NORWAY.

The manufactures of Norway are unimportant. Wood and fish are the chief products of the country; and these find their way to every part of Europe, chiefly in Norwegian vessels, which in return bring home whatever foreign articles are required at the cheapest possible rate of freight. The import duties are very moderate. Before the importer pays his duties he is allowed to take his goods to his own warehouse or shop, on giving security for the amount of the duties ascertained by the custom-house officers on landing. He also keeps an account of his sales, and pays the duty every three months on the quantity which appears to be sold.

Coffee, sugar, tea, liquors, tobacco, and some spices, are the principal articles for which the housekeeper has to disburse money; the other necessaries of life are produced by themselves. Shoes, furniture, clothes, and the like, are all made at home. Looms are at work in almost every house in the country. Carding, spinning, weaving, trimming, constitute the occupation of the female part of the household. Woolen cloth, substantial but coarse, excellent bed and table linen and checked or striped cotton or linen for female apparel, are the ordinary fabrics produced. These home-made stuffs, including boots, gloves, and, in bad weather, great-coats, clothe the greater part of the inhabitants with more comfort than is the case with the lower and middle classes of people in most other countries. The upper classes dress as in other parts of Europe.

The principal articles of export are timber, bark, iron, copper, fish, and some others. The principal articles of import are corn, colonial produce, woolen, linen, and cotton goods, wine, brandy, and some others.

BATES OF WAGES IN 1871.

The following statements, showing the rates of wages paid for farm, mechanical, and factory labor in Norway in the year 1871, were chiefly obtained from the British consular reports:

Table showing the weekly earnings of work-people employed in agriculture.

[Computed'in United States gold.]

Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi mum.
Agricultural laborers Head-gardeners Laborers Women weeders	2 70 1 94	\$1 92 3 72 2 12 1 60	Man, horse, and cart	\$5 10 3 84 2 12	\$5 76 4 26 2 54

Weekly rates of wages in woolen-factories.

Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.
Wool-sorters, women Wool-washers Overseers Assistants Carders	\$ 3 20	\$2 12 3 20 6 40 4 26 4 26	Dressers: Foremen Fullers Dressers or giggers Finishers:		3 2
Spinners: Boys Foremen		2 12 6 40	Men Women Press-tenders Drawers		3 2
Warpers and beamers	3 20	4 26 2 12 14 40	Brushers		2 11 3 20 6 40
Assistants Weavers Burlers Overseers	2 12	4 26 3 20 2 12 6 40	Assistants Engineers—foremen Mechanics Laborers	4 26	4 2 4 2 6 4 3 2

Weekly rate of wages in cotton-mills.

Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.
Carding department: Overseer Picker-tenders Drawing-frame tenders Picker-boys Grinders Strippers Spinning department:		2 56 1 70 1 48 3 20 3 20	Dressing department—Cont'd. Drawers and twisters Dressers and twisters Weaving department: Overseers Weavers Drawers in hand Repair-engine room:	2 12 2 12	\$3 20 4 26 6 49 3 20 3 20
Overseer Mule-spinners Mule-spinners Mule-backside piecers Frame-spinners Dressing department: Spoolers, women Warpers		5 32 1 70 1 48 1 48 2 12 4 26	Iron-wotkers. Engineer Laborers Cloth-room: Overseer Second-hand	4 26	

It is to be observed that cotton and woolen goods in this country are all of a second or third rate quality, none being manufactured of a first-rate quality.

Weckly wages in paper-mills.

Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mici- mum.	Maxi- mum.
Machine-tenders Assistant tenders Rag-cutters: Meu Women Enginemen Assistants	2 58 2 58 1 28 3 23	\$5 37 3 22 2 14 3 87 3 22	Bleachers Sizers Carpenters Blacksmiths Carters Boys	3 67 3 67 2 58	

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Weekly wages in sail-cloth manufactories.

Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mun.
Hacklers. Women, spinners, twiners, and preparers Children	\$ 3 87	\$1 53 76	Weaving, by the piece, 36 yards. Hushing or crashing, by the piece, 40 yards	\$ 0 19	81 \$0 21

The sail-cloth manufactory in Christiania employs about 500 people, and appears based on the Dundee system; earnings much the same as in Scotland, but skilled labor proportionately not so good. Two English foremen receive, respectively, £200 and £300.

Weekly wages in iron-founderies and machine-shops.

Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment		Maxi- mum.
Skilled draughtsmen. Mechanics: Best. Second. Ordinary Blacksmiths Blacksmiths' assistants Riveters Holders, &c. Boiler-makers' assistants.	5 16 3 87 2 56 5 16 2 56 2 56 2 18 4 29	\$17 42 6 45 4 96 2 90 5 81 3 14 3 14 2 78 5 36 3 22	Molders Joiners Joiners assistants Laborers, carters, &c. Apprentices and boys Brass-founders	3 22 3 87 2 56 2 56 1 29 3 22 3 22	\$5 97 5 97 5 16 2 90 2 18 4 29 4 29 5 36 3 32 12 90

Weekly wages in the building-trade and its branches.

[Working-hours per day, 10. When on contract, in the summer, men frequently work from 14 to 15 hours per day and receive wages in proportion.]

Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.
House-carpenters, (according to proficiency) Sawyers and timber-huggers, (according to proficiency) Joiners, (according to proficiency) Common Joiners Stone-outlers. Quarrymen, (furnished with tools) Bricklayers Tile-layers	3 87 3 65 3 87 2 56 3 87 2 86	\$6 45 5 14 5 14 4 49 6 45 3 87 6 45 3 22 6 45	Smiths Brick-makers Brick-makers Brick-makers' foremen Common laborers Builders' foremen Journeymen cabinet-makers Plasterers Cornice-makers, &c. Shipwrights Painters Plumbers	4 29 1 94 6 45 4 49 3 22 5 36	\$5 36 3 87 6 45 2 56 9 7 74 3 87 8 96 6 45 3 4 39

Monthly rate of wages of railway-officials, 1870.

Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.			Maxi- mum.
Traffic department: Station-masters, (some with	410.10	A40.00	Locomotive-department—Cont'd.	\$19 3	s \$22.50
percentages)	\$ 16 13	\$43 02	Mechanics, smiths, carpen- ters	15 0	937
tions	14 03	26 86	Laborera	10 6	15 0
Chief telegraph and booking clerks	8 47	23 72	Foremen	26 8	
Telegraph-clerks at interme-	l	•	Foremen plate-layers		
diate stations	4 96	8 47	Plate layers		
Porters		13 07	Laborers	10 8	128
Foremen of goods stations	12 83	17 18	Steamboat-service:		1
Horse drivers		14 03	Captains		
Head guards, (with mileage	ļ.		Mates		. 21 54
and extra for Sundays)	15 00	26 86	Engineers		
Under-guards, (with mileage	1	i	Firemen	14 0	
and extra for Sundays)	12 83	17 18	Sailors	12 8	3 14 60
Locomotive department:	l	1	Clerks in chief office and work-		1
Engine-drivers	37 51	45 25	ahops	12 8	43 66

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Weeklu	wanes of	ahimminhta.	rone-wakers	and sail-makers.
rr consy	wwyce uj	ontputymo,	I Upt-munero,	. will outer illustration

Weekly wages	of ship	wrights,	rope-makers, and sail-makers.		•
Employment.	Mini- num.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.
Foremen Assistant foremen Master-riggers Shipwrights	\$6 46 5 14 6 46 3 23	\$19 90 3 87	Calkers Laborers Boys	\$2 70 2 54 1 29	\$1.81
Monthly	rate of	wages o	f miners, quarrymen, &c.		
Employment.	Mici- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.
Miners Miners on tutwork or contract Cobbers and spallers, (per barrel) Common laborers	\$7 74 8 59 4 29 5 12	\$8 59 12 90 6 45 5 36	Quarrymen (working per fathom) of stone. Smelters Chemical-workers	\$8 59 9 68 9 68	12 90 12 90 14 56
Weel	kly wag	es of gai	workers and fillers.		
Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Minj- mum.	Maxi- mum.
Firemen. Purifiers Engineers Carpenters Bricklayers Blacksmiths Pipe-layers	\$3 22 2 56 3 87 3 87 2 90 2 90	\$3 75 3 87 4 49 4 29 3 55	Gas-fitters Layers of main gas and water pipes Lamp-lighters Laborers Boys Foremen	\$2 90 3 87 1 09 2 13 1 61 3 87	\$5 14 5 14 2 56 1 94 4 29
We	ekly wa	iges of jo	ourneymen-hatters.		
Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mini- mun.	Maxi- mum.
Hat makers	\$3 75 4 29 4 29	\$4 29 5 36 5 36	Common workmen	\$2 68 6 46	\$3 22 7 59
Weekly wage	s of pri	nters, bo	okbinders, and type-founders.		<u> </u>
Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mini- mun.	Maxi- mum.
Printers: Type-setters Printers. Boys Girls. Book binders: Gilders	\$4 29 3 23 1 07	\$5 36 5 36 9 13 1 29 5 36	Bookbinders—Continued. Journeymen Girls Type-founders: Jornneymen Grinders Boys	3 63 1 72 4 29 9 14 54	\$4 84 2 36 6 45 2 99 1 61
	Wages	in misce	llaneous trades.		<u> </u>
Employment	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Employment.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.
Tailors and shoemakers: Journeymenper day. Workmendo. Apprenticesdo. Painters and glaziers: Journeymendo. Boysdo.	\$0 64 30 18 42 20	\$0 84 42 26 54 34	Dress-makers, (needle-women,) per day	\$0 10 •5 42 5 42 3 20	\$0 20 53 52 26 64 4 36
Bakers: Journeymendo Boysdo		84 24 24	ery) per annum. Women-cooks do. Maid-servants do. Cartman and horse per day.	3 15 2 42 93 90	4 36 3 59 2 18 1 32

CONDITION OF THE INDUSTRIAL CLASSES IN NORWAY.

The following is condensed from the report of Hon. C. C. Andrews. United States minister resident at Stockholm, under date of September 24, 1873:

The fact that Norway is united with Sweden under the same crown seems to have led many people into a misapprehension as to the true political situation of the former. Norway is a perfectly independent state, having her own separate written constitution, her own separate legislature, cabinet, administration, system of revenue, army, nav, and flag. Even if Sweden should be engaged in a foreign war, Norway would not necessarily be involved. The Norwegian language, though similar to the Danish, differs much from the Swedish, and it can be said that Norway has a literature peculiarly

her own; so also of her coinage, weights, and measures.

The population of Norway in 1871 was 1,753,000. The number of landed estates in 1869 was 147,453, and the number of such estates cultivated by owners was 131,750, which shows a fair division of property as compared with many European states. The same year the public expenses for the support of the poor was in country districts 883,000 species, (dollars,) and in the cities 454,000 species. In the country districts the number of poor was 38 to every 1,000 inhabitants. During the period, 1862-'66, the number of convicted criminals was 11 to every 1,000 inhabitants.

The classification of persons who had the right of suffrage in 1868 is as follows: Farm-owners, 95,764; tenants, (husmen,) 237; nomads, 172; mill and factory owners, 128: artisans, 6,907; journeymen, 394; merchants and shippers, 5,509; clerks, 23; masters and mates of vessels, 3,784; sailors and fishermen, 4,188; wagoners, 164; laborers, 5,023; officials and pensioned officials, 2,265; persons in public service, 2,665, of whom 877 were in church and school service, 216 in the military, and 1,572 in other

Next to agriculture the principal industries are navigation, the fisheries, lumbering, mining, and the common hand-trades. The state industrial exhibition at Drammen, which I visited, showed a creditable development of mechanical industry.

AGRICULTURE.

The common farm-owners in Norway till the soil themselves, with the assistance of their tenants, a class of people called "husinen." The number of husinen in 1865 was 60,330, of whom many since then have emigrated to the United States. They hire from the "gårdman," or farm-owner, a patch of land that will keep one or two cows and a few sheep, for which and the simple cot in which they live they have to pay a certain number of days' work in each season of the year. The manure made at their barns goes upon the farmer's land. They are so much in the power of the owners that they cannot make reasonable bargains for the payment of rent in money. At home they and their families live chiefly on herring and barley-bread. In most of their houses a barrel of sour whey is kept over for the winter, with which to mix their barley-meal. They scarcely have fresh meat, except perhaps at Christmas, and their diet is extremely frugal. In 1869, when Rio coffee was cheap, it was used by them, but since its rise there are many who have to abstain from it. The cots of these husmen will sometimes be seen far up in a little scallop or natural shelf on the steep mountain side, where it seems dangerous to attempt to dwell. Not only are sheep and cattle pastured wherever there is a green patch on the acclivities of the mountains, but even grass is cut and hay made and lowered on ropes or wires.

The condition of the agricultural laborer, as well as his wages, varies, of course, ascording to whether he is located in a secluded, a poor, a fertile, or a wealthy region. About the Miösen Lake the soil is so rich as not to require manuring. Undoubtedly there are several districts where the condition of the agricultural laborers is better than that of the husmen above described. But generally their homes are very scantily provided. In some localities, such as Setursdal, in the south central part of the country, people are said to live in the same manner they did three centuries ago. A good deal of agricultural work all over the country is done by women. As in Sweden, women have not by law control of their earnings; and here it may be said that the practice of so much field-work by women causes the house to look less tidy. The practice of scrubbing floors is not so common as in Sweden. In Norway, too, the roofs of the dwellings of the poorer country-people are covered with turf, on which the grass springs up.

At Vossevangen, during the present harvest season, good agricultural workmen earn at day-work in the field 31 cents a day and board; without board, from 42 to 55 cents a day. At Gudvangen, in the same section of country, the wages of a capable lad of nineteen years at miscellaneous work were 12 species and board for six mouths, including the summer. In Laerdal, the wages of good farm-workmen are seven species a month and board during the summer, and 5 species a month and board during the winter, which would be at the rate of 28 cents per day in summer and 21 cents per day in winter, with board. In the vicinity of the larger towns wages would be from 50 to 75 per cent. higher.

RISHERMS.

The two principal fisheries are the cod and herring. The latter, carried on along the western coast south and north of Bergen, has from the oldest times been considered one of the chief resources of the country. The so-called spring fishery, beginning in January, employs 50,000 persons for about two months, with a product usually of 800,000 barrels. The autumn herring-fishery is less productive; the spring-catch of 1870 was only 160,000 barrels; that of 1869, 680,000 barrels, valued at 2½ species a barrel. A minute calculation of the expenses of the fishery for that season, made by the governor of the South Bergen Diet, shows that the earnings of each fisherman in the lastmentioned catch were only 3 cents a day, and that the industry is a loss rather than a

benefit to the country.

The cod-fisheries appear to be more profitable. They are divided into the sea-cod fishery and the bay or fjord fishery. The latter, of less extent, is carried on during all months of the year, though least in summer. In this division may be classed the Romsdal cod-fishery, which occupies the latter part of the spring, and which in 1870 yielded 3,000,000 fish. The two great sea-cod fisheries are the Lofoden and the Finmark. The former begins about the middle of January and lasts till the middle of April. The average number of persons employed in it is 22,000, with 5,500 boats, and the average catch 20,000,000 fish, being the largest cod that are caught. The Finmark fishery legius later in the spring and finishes about the last of May. The catch amounts to from 11,000,000 to 15,000,000 fish, which are smaller than the Lofoden, and resemble those caught off Labrador.

The clothing of the Lofoden is coarse woolen; also, goat-skin coat and trowsers, and long boots up to their hips; usually a tarpaulin-hat, sometimes a red cap. Fish-guano is made from the head and back of the cod, and has become a considerable arti-

cle of export to Germany.

In 1869, 117 vessels and boats, with 558 men, engaged in the shark-fishery in the Arctic Sea, taking 7,277 barrels of liver for oil, worth 44,000 species. The same year, 268 men with 27 vessels, Hammerfist, cleared 45,000 species in seals and walrus off Nova Zemb'a and Spitzbergen. The product of the seal-fisheries to the Ice Sea is estimated at 400,000 species a year.

WAGES OF MECHANICS, THEIR HOMES, EXPENSES OF LIVING, ETC.

In Christiania ship-builders earn 3 marks, (64 cents,) the highest 3½ marks, (75 cents,) a day, (11 hours' actual work;) gas-workers 2½ marks (52½ cents) per day, working five days in the week; best bricklayers, by piece, 4 marks (84 cents) to 1 specie (\$1.06) per day. One or two fishing-stations in the south part of the island have nearly 4,000 fishermen.

In the large cotton and woolen factory of Mr. H. Schon, employing 600 operatives, of whom two-thirds are women and one-third are men, the latter earn from 3 species to 6 species a week, and on an average 4 species per week; the former from 2 species to 4 species a week, or on an average 3 species a week. One-third of the operatives are Swedes, and are more economical than the Norwegians. Not more than 10 per cent. of the operatives make deposits in the savings-banks. Perhaps two dozen own the dwellings which they occupy. The proprietor donated 10,000 specie dollars as the basis of a fund for the benefit of aged and enteebled operatives, on the condition that each operative who is to have the benefit of it shall contribute 2½ skillings on every 120 skillings (1 specie) of his or her earnings. Four hundred out of 600 operatives are contributors to the fund. At the iron machine-foundery and ship-building works in Throndhjem, employing 300 hands, (with a branch nearer the sea employing 90 hands,) and where the actual working time is 10 hours a day, the work-master has 600 species a year and 12 skillings (11 cents) an hour for extra time. The foremen—one for every shop—have 400 species each a year providing 50 men are under him, and 300 species each a year if less than 50. The highest wages paid to a few skilled workmen are 1 specie (\$1.06) a day; the average wages of workmen are from half a specie (54 cents) to 3 marks (65 cents) a day. Boys receive 15 skillings (11 cents) a day. One day's wages are retained by the employers every week to insure the giving eight days' notice of leaving; the rule as to notice being mutual. Four skillings a week are retained from each man's wages for the sick-fund; and in case of sickness a workman gets 1 specie dollar a week for six weeks, and in case of death 5 species for burial. There is a singing-class connected with the shops. Only a few of the works stated that the number so absent was not enough to cause complaint

The average cost of rent in the neighborhood was stated to be from 2 to 3 species a month for a kitchen (by which is meant a very small cooking-room and not large enough to live in) and living-room.

The following is a brief description of some of the homes of these workmen which I

visited in company with the shop-manager, Mr. Olsen:

1. Quarters of a workman about forty-six years old, earning 5 species a week, having a family of a wife and five children, three of whom are small and at home, the other two, respectively sixteen and eighteen years of age, earn their board but not their clothing; all live and lodge at home. The apartments are reached by some rather steep stairs outside of the house from the yard. There is a small entry, a kitchen used by two families, and a living-room 12 feet wide by 15 feet long and 6 feet high. There are two windows, with short lace curtains across the top; a clean scrubbed floor; a bed made up as a single one; a woden sofa or settee that could be used for a bedstead; a table, cupboard, clock, pictures, flowers. There is a cellar to the premises. The rent is 18 species a year, which is cheap, and the same family have occupied the apartments ten years. It requires all he can earn, the workman states, to support his family.

2. The quarters of another family include the same kitchen as the last, a living-room

2. The quarters of another family include the same kitchen as the last, a living room 9 teet wide by 10 feet long and 6 feet high, with close, suffocating air. The workman's family consists of a wife and two small children. He earns 34 species a week, but lays up nothing. He pays 14 species a year for rent. The floor is clean scrubbed; there are short lace curtains at the window; a white knit cotton cover over a small bureau; also flowers and plants, as in the last family; the housewife had a tidy appear-

ance.

3. The third quarters visited were in a wooden house, owned by the workman, occupant. The house is one and one-half stories high, has a cellar, yard with tidy graveled walks, and out-building or shed. There is a fair-sized kitchen and comfortable living-room, with painted floor, hair-cloth sofa and chairs, remarkably neat white bedspread and calico curtains, many pictures and photographs on the walls, plants in pots, three windows with lace curtains, a very bright, nice-looking wife, and four handsome children. The man pays 10 species a year ground-rent and 3 species for taxes. He lets another of his rooms to a tidy mechanic for lodging. His house cost 330 species; he owes about 100 species on it, and pays 20 species a year. Fuel costs 20 species a year. In his house, as in all others, high, narrow iron stoves are used.

4. The fourth home visited was at a house owned by its occupant, a workman, who

4. The fourth home visited was at a house owned by its occupant, a workman, who earns 6 species a week. There are six rooms, two kitchens, a cellar, out-houses, and yard. The sitting-room 10 feet wide 18 feet long and 64 feet high, painted floor, strips of carpet over it, neat table and cloth cover, mahogany secretary and drawers, black-walnut-veneered burean, black hair-cloth chairs and sofa, pictures, lace curtains at the windows, neat and tasteful in all respects; his family, a wife and two children.

At the iron machine and ship-building works at Bergen, which were visited in Angust, 500 men are employed eleven hours a day in actual labor. The foreman receives 30 species (\$31.80) a month. About 20 of the more skillful lands receive from 4 marks (86 cents) to 1 specie (\$1.06) a day. The average pay of workmen is 3 marks 12 skillings, (76 cents,) to 3 marks 18 skillings, (81 cents,) which is probably as high an average for mechanical labor as is paid in any part of the country. For overtime 12 skillings an hour are paid. Three days' wages are retained by the employers at each weekly payday. Twenty skillings (18 cents) are retained for the sick-fund, and in case of sickness a workman receives 6 marks (\$1.29) a week when sick, and in case of death 10 species for burial.

A couple of skilled workmen concurred in the statement that fresh meat is used by the families of workmen two or three times a week, and costs 12 skillings (11 cents) a pound; that coffee is used there three times a day; that tobacco for chewing (for nearly all Norwegian workmen chew tobacco) costs twenty skillings (18 cents) a week; that workmen, on an average, spend 3 marks (65 cents) a week for spirits or beer, the greater part of the sum being for beer; that some workmen spend 2 species (\$2.12) a week for drink; that including Sundays, holidays, and the time the shops are closed for repairs, usually at the time of the mid-summer or Christmas holidays, there are eighty non-working days in the year, which the workman loses; that a majority of workmen do not attend any church; and that only a few save money.

The homes of a foreman and a workman were here visited. The first was in a house owned by the foreman himself, whose family consisted of six members. Their apartments were three rooms, the larger one used for a sitting-room, being 14½ by 12, and 8 feet high; the floor was painted; here were nice-looking lace curtains to the windows, a neat sofa, table, &c., and were better apartments than working-people usually have.

Other rooms in the house were rented out.

The other apartments were occupied by the family of a workman, who earns a speciedollar a day, and were in a cheerless frame building, having no fence about it, nor trace of cultivation, even to a shrub. The apartments were in the second story, and reached by a steep pair of stairs from the rear. First was a fair-sized entry, used by different families; next was the kitchen, 4 by 9, and 8 feet high, in which was a small

United States cents.

iron stove; one window; the floor unpainted and unscrubbed. The living-room was 12 by 12, and 8 feet high, with two windows, but no curtains. On one of the window-seats were several pots of plants. There were some cheap pictures on the walls; a bed made up singly, an iron stove, a small cupboard. There was another room, 5 feet long by about 4 feet wide, without any window or any light, and on the floor, in a heap, were some loose straw and what seemed to be a bed-quilt—a room used for sleeping. There is no cellar to the house. The workman was a man of fair appearance, and apparently well disposed; the wife was of ordinary appearance. They have five children; the eldest a daughter, about eighteen, earns 24 skillings a day in a net factory; a son, fourteen years old, earns 16 skillings a day in a machine-shop. There are three other smaller children. The rent is 22 species a year. These apartments and their appearance were not as good as the average homes of workmen. There were a few other similar tenement buildings a few rods apart, built by the company owning the shops, and intended for four families each. They stand within a few rods of each other. The closets are built only a few feet in rear of the dwellings. The workman just mentioned said his apartments were quite cold in winter, a statement which the appearance of the building seemed to verify.

Food.—The following is a good specified statement of the ration for a garrison soldier

at Christiania for each day of the week and its cost:

SUNDAY.

Breakfast: Coffee and bread and butter, and the same for breakfast every morning. Dinner: Beef and porridge. Supper: Milk and bread and butter.

‡ pound fresh meat, at 12 skillings ‡ pound potatoes ½ pound hulled barley †‡ pound coffee †† pound butter. †† gill cream †† pints milk Bread	7. 87 . 87 . 44 . 87 1. 97 . 22 . 44 . 66 3. 72
WONDAY	17. 06
MONDAY.	
Dinner: Cod-fish and milk broth. Supper: Boiled barley-grits and milk; are same for supper every week-day.	d the
United States	cents.
pound cliff fish, at 7 skillings	3.06
† pound potatoes.	. 87 . 44
14 pounds milk.	1.53
To pound coffee	. 87
Property barley grite	2.30 .87
∯ pound barley-gritsBread	3.94
To gill cream	. 44
•	14, 32
TUESDAY.	
Dinner: Salt meat, (pork,) and porridge, with pease.	
pound salt meat, at 10 skillings	4.37
poun pork, at 16 skillings	3.50 .87
pound of barley	. 87
pound hulled barley	. 22
ł pound pease	. 87 . 87
1 pound butter	1.53
j pint milk.	. 67 . 44
Bread	3.94
	18, 15

WEDNESDAY.

Dinner: Hash and porridge.

Dinner: Hash and porridge.	
† pound salt meat, at 10 skillings † pound salt pork, at 16 skillings † pound potatoes † pound barley-grits † pound hulled barley † pound offee † pound butter † pound sirup † pound dried plums † pound onions † pound popper	1.75 1.50 .87 .44 .87 1.53 .67 .32
pound juice	
i pint milk	
Bread	
	15, 89
THURSDAY.	
Dinner: Beef and porridge.	
‡ pound fresh meat, at 12 skillings	7.87
39 pound potatoes	. 87
32 pound hulled barley	
Francisco pound barley-grite	
3 pound coffee	
pound butter	
Vegetables	. 22
1 gill milk	. 66
ng gill cream	. 44
Bread	3.94
•	17, 71
Friday, the same as Tuesday.	
* SATUDDAY	

SATURDAY.

Dinner: Soup made of beer and pickled herring.

United States	centa.
If piuts beer	1.09
Transfer of the structure of the structu	.44 .87
ያያ pound butter	1.53
1. pints milk	. 67
Bread	3, 94

The average value of the ration is 18 to 19 skillings, or say 16 cents; but at retail prices it would be about 25 per cent. higher, which would make it cost the workingman 20 cents. Such a ration is, however, a considerably larger and better supply of food than workmen generally have.

At the penitentiary at Throndhjem the fare for each convict on Sunday is: For breakfast, 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) pints beer, \(\frac{1}{2}\) pound rye-bread; for dinner, 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) pints pea-soup, \(\frac{1}{2}\) pound pork, \(\frac{1}{2}\) pound rye-bread, \(\frac{1}{2}\) pints barley-meal mush, 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) pints beer, \(\frac{1}{2}\) pound bread. The same quantity of bread, 2\(\frac{1}{2}\) pounds, is allowed every day, or in lieu thereof one-half of the quantity in bolted rye-flour bread. The meat or fish allowance is, on Monday, 2 ounces of herring; Tuesday, 3 ounces of meat; Wednesday, 3 onnces of herring; Friday, 2 ounces of herring; and Saturday, 5 ounces of herring, which are generally made into soup. The supper for every day, except Mon-

day and Friday, is barley mush. The daily allowance of beer is about the same as for Sunday The cost of the ration, per day, for each man is 12 skillings; and it was the opinion of the superintendent that at retail prices it would cost 24 skillings (21 cents) a day. At Throndhjem is a public eating-house for poor people, where nice barley-grits, excellently cooked, can be obtained very cheap. A portion which when dry is a fraction less than § pound of barley-grits, after being cooked by steam three hours, makes one Norwegian potter, or 1½ pints; but it is the practice to deal out even a larger measure. For such a quantity one pays 2 skillings. If eaten at the house 2 skillings' worth of beer or sirup can be had to eat with it; so that for little less than 4 cents a palatable and wholesome meal can be obtained. People are accustomed to send to the establishment for boiled grits to eat at home. If we assume that an average workman's family of five members will consume twice the quantity of the ration of a garrison soldier, his subsistence will cost for a year \$146. Rent of dwellings in Christiania is at the rate of 30 species a year for one living-room and a small kitchen in use by another family; and that sum is none too large an allowance to procure such quarters in the larger towns as a workingman's family needs. Allowing \$15 for fuel, \$30 for clothing, and \$15 for miscellaneous, we have in all the sum of \$236 to cover the whole annual expenses for such a family. The average wages of mechanics, probably, cannot be put higher than 60 cents a day, which, for 300 working-days, would amount to \$180; which is \$56 less than what has just been estimated for his expenses. It is therefore obvious that the estimate for expenses is considerably higher, especially in the item of subsistence, than the average mechanic actually incurs. The supply of necessaries must be still further diminished if we take into account the items of \$9.36 for tobacco, and \$33.69 for spirits and beer, which, taking the Bergen workman's estimate

Undoubtedly any thorough reform as to the use of such drink must come from a fixed habit of not drinking; which, if formed at all, is generally in early life amid the influences of a good home. When these continue the habit is likely to continue. As in Sweden, companies are now being formed in various parts of Norway to build better dwellings for the working poor, which is one of many indications that juster notions

of their real needs are becoming prevalent.

LABOR IN DENMARK.

Although Denmark is not extensively engaged in manufacturing, yet the information in regard to labor which appears in the following pages, and which was turnished by the minister resident and the consuls of the United States, will prove interesting.

The following information was prepared for this report by Mr. Vice-

Consul Hansen, under date of September 20, 1872:

COPENHAGEN.

Copenhagen, which is the capital of Denmark, and a considerable place of commerce. in Scandinavia, had, according to the last census of 1870, 181,291 inhabitants, (84,336 of the male, and 96,965 of the female sex;) of these, 18,039 are dependent workers, besides 9,915 day-laborers, and 839 servants without fixed service. Of the 18,039, 14,686 are mechanics, and the rest, 3.353, employed in commerce.

The ordinary time of labor is twelve hours, from 6 o'clock in the morning till 6 in the

evening, with a leisure time of two hours for the meals.

The wages for mechanics are about as follows: Machinists, 87½ cents; smiths, 61½ cents; carpenters and joiners, 61½ cents; masons, 78½ to 87½ cents; painters, 61½ cents; shoemakers, 52½ cents; tailors, 43½ to 52½ cents; country workmen and other daylaborers, from 35 to 70 cents a day.

Wemen working in manufactories are paid 21% to 26% cents a day. Children do not generally find much of any occupation in the metropolis, but in return they

receive a cheap, and in part a free, and good education at the public schools, which are partly free and partly payment schools.

At the payment-schools of the community 261 cents a month is paid down for each child, and they are taught, in their mother-tongue, in writing, arithmetic, and religion The going to school generally commences at the age of seven years and closes at the

At the beginning of 1871 the number of children attending and bound to go to school in the metropolis and the suburbs, were 25,191 above the age of six years; of these, 3,262 were above seven years without going to any school, but were taught either at their homes or did not receive any instruction at all, for which reason 1,391 out of 3,262 had to be directed to the public schools for a trial, if it was necessary to direct them to going to school. It was proved that the remaining 1,871 received a proper instruction at their homes; 9,490 children were taught at the free and payment schools of the community; 1,241 at the charity schools; the rest at grammar and other schools subordinated to different authorities.

At the Royal Orphan Asylum, 240 orphans, or at least fatherless children, are instructed without payment; and of these 78 are educated till the fifteenth, sixteenth, or seventeenth year of their age, after which time the boys are bound apprentices to shop-keepers or mechanics by the association, and the girls placed in good families 28

servants.

The metropolis has several evening and Sunday schools for adults, where mechanics and laborers receive various instructions, partly without payment and partly for a

very small contribution.

With regard to the comfort of the laborers, their state of health, &c., it must be remarked that the Danish laborer generally lives airy and cleanly, for which reason many have taken up their abode in the suburbs, where many dwellings for laborers have been erected, the rent of which is from \$2.361 to \$2.621 a month for two rooms and a kitchen.

The state of health is generally good, and the district physicians, who are paid by the community, afford medical assistance to the laborers who are not members of the sick-associations, which they can become by paying a small contingent, whereas the hospitals also afford free cure and attendance to poor people.

The educational coercion creates a generally good moral education. Drunkenness is

unfrequent among the Danish laboring classes.

With respect to the present prices of the necessaries of life, as well as the weekly expenses for a family, the two filled-up blanks hereto annexed are referred to.

The expenses of a family of the laboring-class vary much according to the earnings,

as the saving of anything but small amounts is seldom thought of.

The diversions are cheap and useful, and very much frequented.

The establishment employing the greatest number of workmen in this country is the ship-building and engineering company of Burmeister & Wain, where from 900 to 1,000 workmen find continual employment. Five iron steamships, of about 1,200 tons. with engines of 120 horse-power, and two smaller ones of 300 tons, with engines of 70 liorse-power, will, in the course of this year, have been delivered from this establishment, the laborers of which have founded various useful institutions; for instance, a

building-fund, a sick-fund, &c.; and, as it perhaps may be of some interest, I hereby annex two originals, with translations, of the laws of the building association, and last year's account for the same.

Denmark's direct commerce with the United States is very inconsiderable as the imports and exports, with the exception of petroleum, generally are going via England, &c., and Denmark being no manufacturing country, the chief export consists of grain, flour, butter, and raw produce.

The emigration from here to the United States amounted in 1871 to 1.760 males. 895 females, 765 children, Danes, and 1,065 males, 524 females, 483 children, Swedes, &c.; and to Canada, Australia, &c., 514 males, 230 females, 186 children, Danes, &c.; and the same number is likely to be the result of the emigration this year.

OĽAF HANSEN. United States Vice-Consul.

COPENHAGEN, September, 1872.

NOTE.—1 Danish rix-dollar (6 a 16 skillings) equal to 521 cents American gold.

ELSINORE.

Extract of a letter from H. C. Carey, United States consul at Elsinore, Denmark, dated October 30, 1873.

"The laboring-classes live very frugally and quite differently to what the same classes are accustomed in the United States or in England, where animal-food is more generally consumed. Here the chief food consists of milk-porridge, rye-bread, salt or fresh fish, with now and then a piece of smoked bacon, with coffee mixed with chiccory, and beer of a light description, at about 14 cents a bottle, as beverage. Education for the children of these classes is free, and their house-rent may be put down at \$30 to \$40 per annum.

"Elsinore is not a manufacturing town, but is mainly dependent upon its traffic in furnishing supplies of provisions, &c., to the large amount of shipping annually passing through the sound on its way to and from the several ports in the Baltic. From the most reliable information I have been able to collect, the average weekly expenditure of these working-classes may be placed, I should say, for a family of two adults and two children, at \$4.50 to \$5.50 per week, which amount is eked out, together with the workman's wages, by the earnings from washing or other work done by the wife.

"The monthly wages paid to seamen sailing from our port may be stated as \$16 for able seamen and \$12 for ordinary seamen, while the wages paid to captains or officers may be ranged into two classes: For those employed in the coasting-trade or short voyages the master generally receives \$45 and the mate \$30 per month, whereas those engaged in transatlantic or long voyages are paid differently, the master usually receiving a nominal pay of \$20 per month with 4 per cent. of the gross freight carnings, and the mate a fixed pay of \$35 to \$40 per month.

"While the constantly-recurring strikes among the laboring-classes in England and other countries in Europe have been continually disturbing the labor-market, such has not been the case here to any extent worth mentioning. A small increase has in many cases been granted by the masters, with which the laboring-classes here seem to be

quite satisfied."

RATES OF WAGES IN ELSINORE.

Daily wages of the following laborers at Elsinore, Denmark, in the year 1872.

Blacksmiths	20 85
Ship-carpenters	85
House painters	85
House-carpenters	
Masons	
Shoemakers	
ABIIVIO	10

Dock-laborers, from \$1.20 to \$1.60. Hours of labor, 10 per day.

It must be observed that the employment of the dock-laborers is of very uncertain nature, depending in great measure upon the number of vessels entering our port under average, attended with discharging and reloading of their cargoes. There have been times when these laborers have earned as much as \$2 per day, but again there are several days when they are without employment.

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Rate of wages paid for farm and mechanical labor in Elsinore, Denmark, in the year 1873.

·		Daily wages.	
Occupation.	With board.	Without board.	With board.
FARM-LABORERS.			
Experienced hands in summer		\$0 80	\$5.59
Experienced hands in winter	40	60	
Ordinary hands in summer	36	60	4 00
Ordinary hands in winter	37	60	None
Common laborers at other than larm-work	MODE	00	3 00
Female servants, (cooks)			9 00
8KILLED WORKMEN.*			İ
Blackamiths		85	
Bricklayers or masons		80	
Cabinet-makers		85	
Carpeuters		80 85	
Coopers		None	
Machinists		1 00	
Painters		80	
Plasterers		80	
Shoemakers		f1 00 to 1 50	
Stone-cutters		85	
Pailore		f1 00 to 1 50	
Canners		80 80	
FinsmithsWheelwrights		80 85	

* By the day only.

i Piece-work.

Price of board for workmen per week, October, 1873, \$2.50.

HENRY CHARLES CAREY, Vice-Consul and Acting Consul.

ELSINORE, November 1, 1873.

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, also of house-rest and board, in the towns of Copenhagen and Elsinors, Denmark, furnished by Mr. Olaf Hansen, United States vice-consul.

Articles.		Retail prices	prices in 1872.		
		Copenhagen.	Elsinore.		
Provisions.					
Flour, wheat, superfine	per barrel*	84 724	\$8 50		
Flour, wheat, extra family	dol	4 20	9 50		
Flour, rye	do	3 02	7 00		
Corn-meal	do		}		
Beef, fresh, roasting-pieces	per poundt	134	19		
Beef, fresh, soup-pieces	do	101	10		
Beef, fresh, rump-steaks	do	13	19		
Beef, corned	do	14			
Veal, fore quarters	do	īii	10		
Veal, hind quarters	do	13	ii		
Veal-cutlets	do	134	ii		
Mutton, fore quarters	do	111	10		
Mutton, leg	do	131	19		
Mutton-chops	40	134	19		
Pork, fresh	go	09	iī		
Pork, corned or salted.	do	124	19		
Pork, bacon	do	131	14		
Pork, hams, smoked	do	151	18		
Pork, shoulders	30	09			
Pork. sausages		144	16		
Lard	do	141	is		
Cod-fish, dry	do	051	6		
Mackerel, pickled	go		, ·		
ISHITEP	ا ماہ	26	27		
Cheese	do	9 to 14	î î		
*Per 100 Danish nounds					

* Per 100 Danish pounds.

† Danish weight.

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Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles, &c.—Continued.

	Retail prices	Retail prices in 1872.			
Articles.	Copenhagen.	Elsinore.			
PROVISIONS—Continued.					
Potatoes per barrel* Rice per poundf. Beans do Milk per quart. Eggs per dosen.	\$0 70 07 07 03 13	\$0 40 06 18 03 16			
GROCERIES, RTC.					
Tea, Oolong, or other good black per pound Coffee, Rio, green do Coffee, Java, roasted do Sugar, good brown, candy do Sugar, coffee, B do Molasses, New Orleans per gallon Molasses, Porto Rico do Sirup do Soap, common per pound! Starch do Fuel, coal* per fon Fuel, wood, hard per fathom\$ Fnel, wood, pine do Oil, coal per gallon	14 to 15 14 to 15 35 06 104 7 35 8 40 6 30	63 25 39 11 12 12 13 80 06 15 7 50 8 00 7 00			
Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard quality per yard. Shirtings, bleached, 4-4, standard quality do Sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard quality do Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, standard quality do Cotton fiannel, medium quality do Tickings, good quality do Prints, Merrimack do Mouseline de laines do Satinets, medium quality do Boots, men's heavy do	901 to 211 12 to 14 31 to 30 21 to 30 20 to 30 24 to 35	18 28 96 96			
Four-roomed tenements	7 50 to 10 50 16 00 to 26 50 2 50 to 3 00	4 50 7 50			
BOARD.		1			
For men, (mechanics or other workmen)per week For women employed in factoriesdo	2 10 to 3 00 1 00 to 1 50	2 50			

^{*} Per 100 Danish pounds. † Danish weight. ‡ In August.

§ Per fathom of 6 feet by 6 feet by 2 fect.

Not manufactured.

Average weekly expenditures of two families in Copenhagen, one consisting of two adults and two children, the head of which is a mechanic, and the other consisting of two adults and three children, the head of which is a shoe-maker.*

TWO ADULTS AND TWO CHILDREN.

Weekly earnings in 1872, \$5.25.	Cost	r value.
Fresh, corned, salted, and smoked meats		44 671
Cheese	•••••	10 1 21
MilkCoffee		25

^{*}From the above list will be observed, that the family in question do like many or most others, live upon bread, butter, and coffee, with milk and sugar, in preference to meat and potatoes, but the wife is often engaged in larger houses for washing, cleaning. &c., where she will get a little substantial food.

Tea	\$ 0	07
Fish, fresh and salt		17
Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar, &c		12
Eggs		5
Potatoes and other vegetables		16
Fuel		48
Oil or other light		104
Other articles		સં
Spirits, beer, and tobacco, (if any)		50
House-rent		87
For educational, religious, and benevolent objects		13
Total weekly expenses	5	03-
Clothing per year	-	

TWO ADULTS AND THREE CHILDREN.

Weekly earnings in 1872, \$3.90, besides the earnings of the wife, amounting to 75 cents.

	Cost o	e va	les.
Flour and bread		\$0	82
Fresh, corned, &c., meats		•	15
Butter		•	71
Cheese		•	18
Sugar			101
Milk			35
Coffee			261
Fish			15
Soap, salt, pepper, vinegar, &c			41
Potatoes and other vegetables			12
Fael			171
Oil or other light			5
Other articles			7
Spirits, beer, and tobacco		•	174
House-rent		,	65
House-rent	••••		13
Total weekly expenses	- 	4	141
Clothing per year			00

ECONOMIC CONDITION OF THE WORKINGMEN OF DENMARK.

Dispatch of Hon. M. J. Cramer to the Department of State.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, Copenhagen, November 9, 1874.

SIR: Under the title of "information concerning the economic condition of the workingmen of the kingdom of Denmark," the Danish minister of the interior has published the result of inquiries made in three classes of circulars issued by him under date of October 11, 1872.

The first class of these circulars was prepared with special reference to procuring information concerning the economic condition of artisans, mechanics, and factory-hands, and was intended to be filled up by the employés; the second was designed to procure information concerning the economic condition of the laborers in the country, and was intended to be filled up by the parish and town councils. The intention of the third class was to procure information: 1. Concerning the amount necessarily required annually for the support of a workingman with a family, and for other necessary expenses, such as taxes, &c. 2. Concerning the debts of workingmen and the causes thereof.

Although the information obtained is not as full and complete as could be desired, yet it furnishes a tolerably reliable insight into the economic condition of the laboring classes in the kingdom of Denmark.

I have, therefore, prepared a condensed "statement" of this information. which I have the honor to transmit to you, herewith inclosed.

I have the honor to be, &c.,

M. J. CRAMER.

Hon. HAMILTON FISH, Secretary of State, Washington. D. C.

THE ECONOMIC CONDITION OF THE LABORING CLASSES IN DENMARK.

From the returns made under the first class of circulars it appears that there are 40,209 laborers, viz: 28,021 males over eighteen years of age, 3,428 females, 6,811 youths from thirteen to eighteen years of age, and 1,949 children. Of the males, 14,265 are married: of the females, 1.904.

AVERAGE EARNINGS.

The annual average earnings in large factories in Copenhagen was: for men, 410 rix-dollars, (\$215.25;) for women, 169 rix-dollars, (\$88.72.) For other mechanics, artisans, &c.: for men, 357 rix-dollars, (\$187.42;) for women, 143 rix-dollars, (\$75.07; and in the provincial cities and towns, under the same division, respectively, 300 (\$157.50) and 135 (\$70.87) rix-dollars, and 357 (\$187.42) and 96 (\$49.87) rix-dollars, and in the country, under the same divisions, respectively, \$116.10 and \$49.14, \$105.30 and \$43.74. The average number of daily working-hours for both children and adults is from

twelve to thirteen, including the time consumed in short rests and for meals. In some instances it is, however, higher, and in some cases it is higher for women than for men, and for children higher in the country than for children in cities. The average

The total amount of wages paid, annually, to the 40,209 laborers is over eight millions of rix-dollars, (\$4,200,000.) Supposing this number of laborers to be only one-half of the number of laborers in Denmark, it will then appear that sixteen millions rixdollars (\$8,400,000) are paid to them annually as wages, that is, according to the rate of wages paid in 1872, which now is somewhat higher than then.

As to extra earnings, very meager information has been received, yet in many instances such extra wages by extra labor are made. Besides, the housewife, in many cases, earns something which contributes a not inconsiderable amount to the support

It does not often happen that laborers coming under this class of circulars have a share in the profits of factories, &c. In place of this they have a share in a fund established to render them assistance in case of sickness or death.

The information coming under the second class of circulars may be grouped as

follows:

The total number of tenants, subtenants, &c., within the kingdom is 101,832, making about 15 per cent. of the male inhabitants. This, it must be remembered, has reference only to the population in the country, and not in cities and towns. Under the term tenants are included those who own their cottages, with, perhaps, one-third of an acre of land connected with it. Among the 101,832 tenants, &c., are about 23,785 traders and mechanics, &c., or about 25 per cent. of the entire class.

WAGES OF FARM-LABORERS.

With regard to the average wages paid to farm-hands it may be observed that those in Jutland receive during the summer season higher wages than those in other parts of the kingdom, while the contrary is the case during the winter season, with the exception of female laborers, who, in Jutland, receive, without boarding, 35 skillings, (17 cents, gold,) and in other parts a little over 23 skillings (11 cents) per day.

The average number of working-hours per day is, during the summer season, about 14, and during the winter season about 10. Deducting from these the hours de-

voted to meals, &c., and the average number of hours devoted to actual labor through-out the kingdom will be about 11 during the summer season and 8 during the winter

season.

With regard to the question: Do these farm hands receive other emoluments besides their regular wages, such as milk, pasture for a cow, turf, &c. f it may be said that in a few counties they do receive such emoluments, averaging from 10 (\$5.20) to 40 (\$21) rix-dollars per annum. And yet, properly speaking, these emoluments cannot be regarded as extra wages, for they are generally stipulated in the contract as part of the wages. The question: Do the laborers earn anything by extra work; and, if so, how much f is partly answered in the affirmative and partly in the negative. Some, besides their addition of the property of the state of t their ordinary daily work, spend a few extra hours in making baskets or plaiting mats,

&c., and earn thus from 5 (\$2.62) to 40 (\$21) rix-dollars per annum. Likewise, many housewives, by extra domestic industry, such as washing, sewing, knitting, spinning, &c., earn from 20 (\$10.50) to 40 (\$21) rix-dollars per annum. To the question: How much of their time do these housewives devote to labor outside the house? the answer is that only during the time of the harvesting, of taking up potatoes and of turf-cutting, they are employed out of the house.

The question: At what age and to what kind of work are the children hired out? has been answered thus: They are hired out from the seventh to the tenth year of their age, principally to watching cattle in pastures. The total number of children thus hired out is 33,436. Besides watching cattle, they are also employed in potato-

digging, fruit-plucking, turf-cutting, &c.
The question: Whether the farm-hands, &c., have employment the whole year round? has generally been answered in the affirmative. There are some districts, however, where during the winter season labor is rather scarce, and where, consequently,

they can earn little or nothing during at least one month of the year.

The question: Whether there are, in the various districts, endowment funds for assisting the sick and the aged? has been generally answered in the affirmative; but the question: What proportion of the laborers become self-supporting or independent of assistance has been misunderstood, and hence no reliable data have been furnished in regard to it.

EXPENDITURES.

The information sought under the third class of circulars relates to the necessary ex-

penses for support, &c., of the families of the laboring-classes.

For those in Copenhagen the minimum may be placed at 254 rix-dollars, (\$133.35;) For those in Copenhagen the minimum may be placed at 254 rix-dollars, (\$133.5;) that is, for rent, 36 rix-dollars, (\$18.90;) for food, 192 rix-dollars, (\$100.80;) for clothing, 15 rix-dollars, (\$7.87;) for tobacco and whisky, 11 rix-dollars, (\$5.77;) and the maximum at 615 rix-dollars, (\$322.87;) that is, for rent, 120 rix-dollars, (\$63;) for food, 365 rix-dollars, (\$191.62;) for clothing, 78 rix-dollars, (\$40.95;) for tobacco and whisky, 52 rix-dollars, (\$27.30;) while in most cases the expenses vary from 350 (\$183.75) to 405 (\$212.62.) rix-dollars per annum. To the question: In what proportion are the earnings of a laboring family sufficient to afford them a support adequate to their condition? the answers received from both the employers and employes vary greatly. The former believe these company to be generally applied while the latter The former believe these earnings to be generally sufficient, while the latter contend that they are not. This difference of opinion is accounted for partly from the fact that five among the employers show special care for the well-being of their employes, (the latter of whom earn enough for a decent support,) and partly from the fact that some of the latter send their children to paid-schools, and partly from the fact that a part of their earnings is applied to pay interest on debts incurred in the course of time.

The question: To what extent do the laboring-classes participate in public amusements? has been variously answered. It appears that in one district they engage in them very sparingly; while in nine other districts the young people are said to engage in them to a very considerable extent.

Some of the people, in themselves filling up these circulars, put down their expenses for public amusements from 4 (\$2.10) to 6 (\$3.15) rix-dollars per annum. The preceding account of the expenses of laboring-families refers only to those in the city of Copen-

The annual expenses of laboring-families in provincial towns and cities range from 210 (\$110.25) to 365 (\$191.62) rix-dollars; that is, for rent, from 20 (\$10.50) to 40 (\$21) rix-dollars; for food, from 150 (\$78.75) to 250 (\$131.25) rix-dollars; for clothing, from 30 (\$15.75) to 50 (\$26.25) rix-dollars; for tobacco and whisky, from 10 (\$5.25) to 25 (\$13.12) rix-dollars. The question: How far are the earnings of the laboring-classes in these cities and towns sufficient for their support? has been answered that in most cases such earnings are sufficient; though the answers received from several cities and towns show that they are insufficient. With regard to the question, Whether these laboring-classes are in debt? the answers are very unfavorable; and only very few incur any expenses whatever for the education of their children.

With regard to the amount of expenses for the laboring-families in the country, the information obtained shows that it ranges annually, for rent, from 10 (\$5.25) to 16 (\$8.40) rix-dollars; for food, from 150 (\$7.8.75) to 180 (94.50) rix-dollars; for clothing, from 20 (\$10.50) to 50 (\$26.25) rix-dollars; for tobacco and whisky, from 10 (\$5.25) to 15 (\$7.87) rix-dollars. The question, Whether the earnings are paying the expenses? is generally answered in the affirmative; though in a number of cases the answer is, "scarcely sufficient." As to whether the laboring-classes in the country districts are in debt, the information received shows a large number of them to be in debt. They spend nothing extra for the education of their children, nor do they often engage in. public amusements.

As to the age at which laborers marry, it may be said that the majority of both sexemarry between the twenty-fifth and thirtieth year; some even below the age of twentys five; and in most cases before they had "laid up" anything. Hence, many commence

their married life with debt.

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LABOR IN THE NETHERLAND

The Netherlands, or Low Countries, so called from their natural conformation, now composed of North and South Holland, have a population of 3,515,360. The commerce of the country, though not as great as formerly, is still quite extensive. There are important silk manufactories at Amsterdam, Haarlem, and Breda. Woolen is principally manufactured at Tillburg; linen and cotton in many parts of the two provinces. The earthenware works at Delft are extensive and celebrated. Schiedam is noted for its production of ardent spirits, particularly of

gin. Butter and cheese are among the chief articles of export.

An interesting branch of industry is the manufacture of paper, and the manufacture of bricks and tiles is also worthy of note. This remarkable country largely rewards the skill and labor of the agriculturist: the annual production of cereals amounting to 16,000,000 bushels, and of potatoes 20,000,000. But the fisheries are the most famous for their extent and productiveness, especially the herring fishery, which has been carried on since the twelfth century, and has been termed the "Dutch Gold Mine." The Netherlands possess little or no mineral wealth. Among the various branches of industry pursued ship building holds the first place. The Dutch East Indiamen, in the time of wooden ships, were justly renowned. Societies "for the promotion of the public good," as they are styled, abound throughout the provinces, for the establishment of schools, hospitals, asylums, and other works of public utility. Institutions for the relief of the destitute and suffering are abundant, though in general the poor are taken care of by the churches to which they belong. There are forty institutions for employing poor laborers. Education is provided for by the government.

In Holland the laws of nature seem to be reversed; the sea is higher than the land. The greater portion of the country has been perseveringly rescued from the water by the continued efforts and ingenuity of man. The dikes and hydrographical works between Dallart and the Schelde are estimated to have cost \$1,500,000,000. The people of the Netherlands, though placed apparently under circumstances the most unfavorable for the accumulation of wealth, overcame one difficulty after another with matchless perseverance, until they rendered their country the center of European commerce, and diffused the appliances of comfort and the means of enjoyment among the lowest orders of the people.

RATES OF WAGES.

As the author was prevented by want of time from visiting this interesting country, he is indebted to others for even the meager information in regard to labor which appears in the following pages.

Wages in North Holland.

Place, occupation, &c.	Wages pe week.	r	Hours of labor.
HELVERSIN.			
Steam spinning-factory: Weavers Spinners Boys under 16 years Women Girls under 16 years	70 to 2	60 00 20	Five days of 12 hours and one day of 64 hours.
Carpet manufactories: Men's average salary Boys' average salary Manufactory of moltons: Average rate of wages:		80 50 00	\$8 to 10 hours per day. Digitized by GOOGIC

Wages in North Holland-Continued.

Place, occupation, &c.	Wages per week.	Hours of labor.
LAREN.		
Hair floor-cloth manufactory: Weavers	\$5 00 3 00	313 hours per day.
NAARDEN. Bale-goods factory: Men Boys and girls	\$6 00 to 9 00 2 00 to 3 00	}12 to 15 hours per day.
ZAANDAM. Spinning-factory: Piece-work	6 cts. for i kilog.	12 hours per day.
Machine-yarn-apinning factory: Weavers The weavers who work at home from four to seven days receive from	1 florin 10 c. \$2 00 to \$3 90	14 hours per day.
Gauze-factory: Weavers. Soakers Ribbon-weaving factory: Weavers.	2 40 to 2 52 24 to 54 1 60 to 4 80	

Return respecting the spinning and weaving factories in South Holland.

Commune.	Kind of factory.	Hours of labor.	Rate of wages.	Produce.
Alblasserdam	1 steam spinning and weaving factory.	12 hours a day.	Average full-grown men, 44 cents per day; for children and spinsters, 8 to 24 cents per day.	In the last few years rather decreasing than increasing.
Griessendem	2 hand weaving factories, prin- cipally for sail- cloth.	Winter 8 a.m. to 8 p. m.; summer 5 a. m. to 8 p. m.	Winter, 50 cents per day; summer, 70 cents per day.	As the manufacture is on a small scale no particulars can be given.
Gouda	1 steam cotton- spinning fac- tory.	12 hours a day.	For men, from \$2 to \$6 per week; for women, from \$1.20 to \$2.40 per week.	Increased at the rate of 15 per cent, in 1871.
Do	30 cotton - facto- ries where the yarn is spun by hand.	14 hours:	In this factory work is done by piece, at the rate of from \$2.40 to \$3.20, for some \$3.60, per week; turners and children receive 32 to 60 cents per week.	Decreasing.
Krimpen on the Lek.	2 tow - spinning factories.	From sunrise to sunset.	40 cents per day	Tolerably regular.
Leyden Do	1 layet factory 1 layet factory	11 hours a day. 114 hours a day	From \$0.80 to \$5.60 per week From \$0.60 to \$6.40 per week	Increasing. Fairly on the increase.
Do	1 grain seed and damask fac- tory.	101 hours a day deducting 21 hours rest.	For all laborers, average rate of wages \$1.60 per week.	Increasing.
Do	1 flag duck fac- tory.	10 to 12 hours	Frem \$0.80 to \$4.80 per week	Regular.
Do	1 blanket factory	12 hours a day.	Boys and girls, \$0.60 to \$1.20 per week; work-people paid by piece, \$1.60 to \$4 per week; weekly wages, \$2.40 to \$4.80.	Increasing.
	Woolen-cloth and blanket factory.		For men, \$2 to \$8 per week; boys from 14 to 16, \$1.20 to \$1.60 per week; women, \$1.20 to \$1.60 per week; girls from 14 to 16, \$0.80 to \$1.20 per week.	Increased by 20 per cent. in the last five years.
	3 fine-cotton spin-	11 hours a day.		Moderate.
fre Yssel. Rotterdam	ning-factories. 1 sail-cloth weav-	10 hours a day.		Increasing.
	ing factory. 2 hair-cloth and jute - weaving factories.	10 hours a day.	\$3.29 per week. Paid by the piece, the wages on an average \$4 per week.	Increasing.

Weaving factories.

	""	uviny	Javari	100.						
		urs.	Nu	mber o	f work	men.	Aver	age wa	ges pe	r day.
Districts.	J.	Working hours.	Abo	ve 16.	Belo	w 16.	Abo	ve 16.	Belo	w 16.
	Number.	Work	M.	F.	м.	F.	М.	F.	М.	F.
Aalst	1 18 15 8 2 13 11 1 1 1 3	10 10 10 11 13 10 10 10–11 10 11 10–11 11 10–11 110 10–11	60 26 10 156 3 395 50 14 384 137 7 7 7 7 105 90 1,600 1,600 24 29 50 14 63	16 28 95 115 	10 64 3 97 26 43 2 2 4 18 160	7 12 30 13 88 1 3 4 12 6 1 3 1	Cents. 28 48 40 42 56 40 28 40 66 44 32 36 40 44 32 38 2 97	Oents. 16 28 26 26 32 20 30 34 19 16	Cents. 12 18 7 90 26 14 16 26 16 20 12	Cents. 8 14 14 16 14 16 14 12 16 18 20 8 20
	Spin	nning-	factor	ies.	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	·		<u>'</u>
Breda	1 1 1 4 2 52 1	15 12 .13 13 13 10–11 10	5 17 29 44 4 1, 252 8	26 3 26 646	5 3 24 6 288	6 30 1 13 5 177 4	25 54 32 38 50 46 34	25 40 20 28 30 26	20 16 16 14 22	38 26 16 16 12 20 20

^{*} In these numbers are included the weavers who work at home.

RATES OF WAGES IN AMSTERDAM.

Statement showing the rate of wages and the hours of labor of some of the principal factories and trades in Ameterdam in 1872.

Occupation.	Hours of labor.	Paid per—	Average am't of wages per week.	Remarks.
Blacksmiths: Ordinary workmen Ordinary workmen Bread-factories: Bakers' foremen Workmen Millers: Foremen Workmen Builders Foremen, (Germans) Brewers, (Germans) Brewers, (Dutchmen) Carters, (Dutchmen) Carpenters, (Dutchmen) Bricklaying: Bricklaying: Bricklayers Hodmen Assistants	101 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 15 15 15 15 15 16 17 17 18 18 19 11	Week	4 40 to 5 08 5 04 3 40 to 4 20 6 84 to 8 04 3 40 to 3 60 6 84 7 88 to 13 92 4 62 to 6 52 6 04 3 84 to 6 04 3 80 to 4 84 4 40 4 32 to 5 08 3 60	These men work 7 days per week, Sundays included. In one particular establishment they have a small share in the profits, amounting to about £4 per annum for ordinary workmen. These men are provided with lodgings and have their viotuals (which are brought by themselves) cooked for them, independent of their wages. These men have enly their wages. These men, during the summer months, often work 15 hours per day; but in winter, in hard rosts, they are sometimes entirely out of work.

Statement showing the rate of wages and the hours of labor, &c.—Continued.

Occupation.	Hours of labor.	Paid per—	Average am't of wages per week.	Remarks.
Brushmakers	10 to 12	Piece	\$2 40 to \$4 84	
Cabinet-makers Superior workmen, (carv-	11 11	Hourdo	3 60 to 5 32 6 64 to 7 96	
ers and upholsterers.) Candle-factories: Foremen	12	Week	4 39	
Workmen	12	Piece	3 36	
Females Eugine-driver	10 10	Hour	1 20 to 2 40 4 84	
Carpenters:	12	Hour	3 60 to 4 32	The men employed in the government-yard are, for the
House	10	Day	4 84	most part, engaged perma-
Ship, (in governm't-yard).	10	Week	4 00	nently, and the married men have to pay 40 cts. per week to the widows' fund.
Coach-builders:	1	_		,
Smiths Builders, painters, and up	111	Hourdo	2 64 to 7 96 2 64 to 6 64	
holsterers. Diamond cutters and polish-	12	Karat & piece	10 08 to 32 24	
ers. Distillers	11 10	Week Day		These men are often est of work.
Foremen	12	Week	4 84 to 7 94	1
Stokers	12	do	4 40 to 5 08	l f
Purifiers Coal-carters	12	do	2 60 to 5 64 3 60 to 4 04	These men work 7 days per
Coal-quenchers	12	dodo	3 14	week, Sundays included.
Syphon-pumpers Gate-keepers	12	do	3 20 to 3 72 3 20	1
Lamp-lighters	. 6	ao	1 180 to 2 64	[]
Smiths	10	do	2 64 to 4 84	
Hammer-men	1 10	do	1 9 19 to 9 84	
Hodmen	10	do do do do	2 40	
Carpenters	10	do	2 88 to 3 36 2 88	
Coopers	10	:do	2 40 to 4 24	
Turners	10	do	3 00 to 3 36	
Fitters	10	do do	3/00/100 4/05	
Occasional-laborers	10	do	9 00 to 3 60	
Gunsmiths	111	Day Piece Day	3 60 to 4 84 4 00 to 4 84	
Iron-works	11	Day	79 to 4 84	From 72 cents to \$6.16 when working extra hours.
Lumpers	8 to 12	do	4 84	working extra hours.
Painters and glaziers	11 10	do Hour	4 84 to 6 04	
Plumbers	ii	Hour and day		
Printing: Compositors	10) Hone week	C3 90 to 4 00	
Pressmen	10	or piece.	{3 90 to 4 00 {3 60 to 10 08	•
				These men work 7 days per
Railways:		D	0.00 0.00	week, Sundays included.— The engine-drivers are em-
Watchmen Pointsmen	15 15	Day	2 80 to 3 92 3 08	ployed two-thirds of the week
Guards	15	Week	3 80 to 5 19	in driving engines and are kept in reserve the other
Engine-drivers Engine-fitters	15 11	Day Hour		third. Every third week
Laborers.	15	Day	2 80 to 2 98	the engines are examined.
	İ			and during that time the drivers are paid as if act-
	1			(ively employed.
	1	l		Of ordinary kinds, a man can make from 500 to 700, and of
Caman mark and	١.,			the better sorts from 200 to
Segar-makers	10	1,000	3 60 to 7 24	300 per day. He is assisted by a boy, to whom he has to
				pay from 40 cents to \$1.50
Shoemakers: Ordinary workmen	TTnli-1413	Diose	2 40 to 3 20	per week out of his wages.
Superior workmen	do	do	3 60 to 4 84	
Stone-masons	11	Hour	4 84	
Sugar-refiners	Unlimit'd	Week Hour & piece	5 00 to 5 24 4 84 to 5 64	
Tanners	j 11 <u>4</u>	Week	2 40 to 3 40	
Upholsterers	10	Hour and day	3 60	T

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Statement showing the rate of wages and the hours of labor, &c.—Continued.

Occupation.	Occupation. Hours of labor.		Average am't of wages per week.	Remarks.
Workmen employed on the Amsterdam Canal and Har- bor Works: Divers	11	Day	\$ 7 24	36 cenes per hour when under
Masons Plate-layers Trimmers Blacksmithe Strikers Stokers Carpenters Sallors Sawyers Laborers Horse-drivers Horse-drivers Horse-drivers (Englishmen) Boys, (English) Pile-drivers, (Englishmen)	11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	do	4 56 4 84 4 84 4 84 4 84 4 84 4 88 4 88 4 56 5 44 4 108	During the summer months these men often work 14 hours per day, and then earn about £1 per week. When employed on extensive works they are usually paid per mile, the wages varying according to the nature of the soil.

In consequence of the continually increasing price of food and house-rent, a general rise of wages has been effected during the last few months, without causing any ill-feeling between the employers and their workmen, and in many instances the former, well aware of the evil results of strikes to both parties, have anticipated the reasonable wishes of the latter by allowing them a higher rate of wages, without awaiting any demonstration on the part of the men. Of late the system of payment by the hour has become pretty general, and works well, as by that means there is hardly any fear of conspiracies or combinations of workmen for the purpose of coercing their employer to reduce the number of hours of labor, the men having an interest in working as long as their employers will permit. The question then naturally arises how do Dutch workmen and their families manage to live on these small incomes in such an expensive place? In reply I must, in the first place, explain that to the industrial classes in Holland, animal food, cheese, eggs, beer, currants, raisins, sugar, &c., are instances not at all. They live chiefly on potatoes, cheap vegetables, such as carrots, turnips, onions, cabbage, &c., stewed with lard, and bread, both wheat and rye. When cheap vegetables are not procurable, they vary their meal by dried pease and beans of various kinds, or rice, barley, and flour, prepared with butter milk and treacle. The rent of a single room now varies from 48 to 64 cents per week, and a floor of the same sized rooms can be obtained at from 72 to \$1.20.

WAGES IN ROTTERDAM.

Statement showing the rates of wages and the hours of labor in Rotterdam in 1872.

				Average am't of wages per week.				
Bakers	19	Week				3		
Blacksmiths	10	Hour		88	to	4	32	
Drowers	12 10 15	Month	7	24	to			
Bricklayers		Hour	1				96	
Butchers		Week	Ι.				40	
Cabinet-makers		Hour			to			
Carpenters		do			to			
Distillers		Week			to			
Dock-laborers		Day	3	60	to			
Painters		Hour				3 (
Plumbers		Week			to			
Printers		do			to			
Railway-guards	. 10	do			to			
Railway-laborers	10	Day	*	40	to			
Sail-makers Shoemakers			_	40	to	2 !		
Stone-masons				40		3 1		
Signe-refiners		Hour		00	to			
Shipwrights					to			
Cailors		Day			to			
Upholsterers		Hour or piece	2 (01		3 (

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DUTCH ARTISANS-DIAMOND-CUTTING.

(From the British Almanac, 1874.)

In the Netherlands the rates of wages approximate somewhat more closely to those current in England, but the cost of house-rent and provisions is greater, so that, in fact, every 20s. earned in Holland does not go so far as 15s. in this country. The Dath artisans are, as a rule, steady, patient, and skillful, but their work lacks finish and taste. Holland is not in any sense of the word a manufacturing country. It is as a maritime people that we encounter the rivalry of the Dutch, who make excellent sailors and fishermen, and are content with lower wages than would satisfy English seamen. But there is one industry, that of diamond-cutting, peculiar to Holland. It is carried on at Amsterdam, and is chiefly in the hands of Jews, who earn from £6 to £7 per week. With the exception of this class of workers, the general condition of the Dutch artisans is in every respect inferior to that of their English brethren.

EXPENDITURES OF WORKMEN'S PAMILIES.

Estimate of the weekly expenses of a blacksmith, with his family of a wife and one child. [From British consular reports.]

Articles.	U. S. gold.	Articles.	U. S. gold.
Rye-bread Wheaten bread Butter Milk Sugar	10 90 10	Vinegar, pepper Oil Turf and wood. Coke or coal	8 14 14
Coffee Tea Flour Potatoes Greens Meal	12 10 10 40 90 10	Starch Washing and mangling Thread Water House-rent Sick-fund Burial-fund	4 4 10 4 40 10
Mntton		Clothes	40
LardSalt		Total	3 81

The following is an estimate of expenses made by a mason, with a wife and two children. He must be well off, for he indulges in butter and much bacon, and spends nearly half as much again as the smith:

Articles.	U. S. gold.	Articles.	U. S. gold.
House-rent Potatoes Firing Rye-bread Coffee Oil Bacon Butter Suet or lard Milk Soap	50 30 30 32 16 84 52 18	Salt. Vegetables. White bread. Tobacco Doctor's fund Sick and burying fund. Unforeseen expenses. Schooling. Clothing.	16 16 6 10 8 19

Next, we have a list of what is considered a legitimate expenditure by a bricklayer, with a wife and four children. The family is larger than that of the mason, but the house would seem to be inferior and the weekly expenses are much smaller.

Articles.	U. S. gold.	Articles.	U. S. gold.
Rye-bread Wheaten bread Butter Milk Cheese Sagar Coffee Tea Treacle Flour Potatose Vegetables Meal Pork	4 16 2 2 8 40 8 14 18	Salt and pepper Oil Turf and wood Coke or coal Soap Starch and washing Thread Water House rent Burlal-fund Clothing Spirits or beer Tobacco Miscollaneous	12 19 8 5] 6 5] 40 5
BaconLard	14 16	Total	3 90

Lastly, we have the modest estimate of a bricklayer's laborer, who, blessed with a wife and four young children, reckons his expenditure by the day, subscribes, like the others, to the doctor and the undertaker, and finishes by spending considerably more than he is supposed to earn.

Articles.	U. S. gold.	Articles.	U. S. gold.
Bread	\$0.08	Milk	\$0 11
Rice or grits LardFuel	4	Total per day	43
Butter Coffee	3 21 2	Total per week	40
SaltPotatoes		Total weekly expenses	3 49

There are two points specially to be observed in these estimates. The one is the inferior style of living, which such estimates denote. As a rule, no meat but bacon is ever tasted, and but little of that. With one exception, it is not admitted by any of these men that they should lay out any portion of their wages on spirits or beer, or drink anything stronger than tea and coffee. I imagine that in practice they are not all of them thorough temperance men; still, it is remarkable that they do not reckon even beer as a legitimate item of expenditure.

The other point to be remarked is that, notwithstanding the narrow limits within which the household expenses are kept, they in every case considerably exceed the nominal wages of the head of the family. This point was noticed by the committee, who, after examining and comparing many more of these estimates than I have given above, came to the conclusion that the average bare necessaries of an ordinary workman, with an average family, amounted to 9 florins (15s.) a week, while his average wages did not exceed 6 florins 60 centimes (11s.) if he was a skilled, and 4 florins 80 centimes (8s.) if he was a perfectly unskilled laborer; that there thus remained a deficit of 2 florins 40 centimes (4s.) in the one case, and 4 florins 2 centimes (7s.) in the other, which had to be provided for by the man working out of hours, or by the help of the wife or children.

CONDITION OF THE LABORING-CLASSES IN HOLLAND.

[From British consular reports.]

There can be little doubt that if the laboring-classes in Holland are prosperous and happy, they owe it to their own patient industry, their provident habits, and their natural contented disposition. Living in a land which owes its very existence to the ingenuity and labor of man, at any moment liable to be called out to work again for their lives and homesteads, they owe little to nature, much to themselves. What they acquire with pain they guard with care. The Dutch laborer, whether in field or town, reflects on the value of his earnings; the energies which a warmer blood and a more

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impetuous temperament would expend in political excitement, he consecrates to the improvement of his own individual lot; the question of the hour, the news of the day, possess little interest for him; he prefers his Bible to his newspaper, and his family fireside to the public, the reading-room, or the political meeting. Jealous to a degree over the liberty he already possesses, he does not sigh for more, and prefers enjoying in peace the advantages already secured to him, to agitating for others which his fathers did without. The Dutch artisan can live comfortably and contentedly on what would ill-suffice to satisfy the wants of an English laborer. He gets lower wages, he lives in a country where protection is still professed and duties are still high, where the necessaries of life are about as dear as in England, and the luxuries dearer, and yet his home is happier and his family healthier than many which could be found elsewhere. Spending less on himself he has more left for his children, and what he saves in beer he spends in bread. The usual wages of a skilled artisan, such as a carpenter, joiner, plumber, or smith, may be reckoned, in the larger towns of Holland, at about \$3.84 a week; his wife, perhaps, adds 72 or 96 cents by taking in washing, and the man himself, by working out of hours, on odd jobs, often adds another shilling or two. I imagine a steady family would thus find the united earnings not fall short of \$5.28 a week. Men whose trades or occupations require less skill are worse paid, unless, indeed, the absence of skill is compensated for by the additional severity of the labor. The firemen or stokers in the gas-works at the Hague receive 17s. 6d. a week; but for this they have to work in relays of twelve hours at a time, day or night, as the case may be, and seven days in the week, with an additional six hours every Saturday to secure the weekly rotation of day and night work. In the smaller towns in the interior of the country, where living is cheaper, house and ground rent low, and skilled, labor less in demand, wages are much lower; there, an artisan who might earn \$3.60 or \$3.84 a week in the capital, has to content himself with \$2.40. These are the wages often paid to factory hands. A favorite mode of remuneration for labor is that of paying by piece-work. This plan is adopted even on the premises of the employer. Thus a master cabinetmaker will furnish all the materials for making a table; the table will be made in his own workshop, under his eye; but whether his workman is industrious or idle will make no difference to him, for he will pay him the same sum on its completion. Another very general mode of payment is by the hour instead of by the week. In this case the artisan naturally earns more in the summer, when the days are long, than he can do in the winter. The pay varies according to the nature of the labor, skilled or otherwise. The rates of from 4 to 8 cents per hour embrace the principal variations. Each skilled workman is required to find his own tools, with the exception of those of an immovable nature, such as lathes, presses, and machinery of all kinds. The hours of labor in the summer are generally twelve, including intervals for two or three meals. These consist of breakfast, at about 8; dinner, about mid-day; and occasionally tea toward evening. Half an hour is considered enough for the first and last, but dinner is a more important matter and occupies, with its subsequent repose and pipe, an hour or an hour and a half.

LABOR IN RUSSIA.

The last of the transatlantic countries to which attention will be directed in connection with the subject of labor, is that vast and interesting section of the Russian Empire which forms the western portion of her territory. Whether considered in regard to its population.* which falls but little short of the combined population of any two of the most populous countries of Europe, or the vast extent of its territory, which extends through thirty degrees of latitude, or great diversity of its products, which comprise the rich furs of the extreme north, the fruits of semi-tropical climates, and all the varied products of the temperate zone, it stands without a peer among the nations of the old world. In its vast areas of fertile soil, its great forests of valuable timber, and the great variety and abundance of its mineral products, it possesses the germs of a vast development. Although largely devoted to stock-raising. producing a breed of horses which is, perhaps, not excelled for strength and hardihood, it is also extensively devoted to agriculture, although only about three hundred million acres are under cultivation. Grain and hemp are exported in vast quantities, the former competing sharply with the United States in the corn markets of England. The Russian manufactories are, however, of comparatively recent origin, commencing in the reign of Peter the Great, by whom, and by his enterprising successors, the Empress Catherine the Great, the Emperors Alexander and Nicholas, and the present enlightened sovereign. Alexander II, they have been encouraged. Except in sheet-iron, in the quality of which product Russia stands unrivaled, her exports of manufactured products have not been extensive.

EXPORTS FROM RUSSIA TO THE UNITED STATES.

The following statement shows the extent and values of the products of Russia which find a market in the United States. It will be observed that our imports of raw products from that country consist, chiefly, of wool, flax, and hemp, while sheet-iron forms the only manufactured article of considerable value.

* Population of the principal European countries.	
Russia in Europe, with Finland	71, 174, 198
Germany	
France, without Algiers	36, 102, 921
United Kingdom	31, 483, 700

Statement of imports into the United States from Russia during the year ended June 30, 1874.

Year ended June 30, 1874.	Imports d Rus	Imports indirect from Russia.		
•	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.
FREE OF DUTY.				
Chemicals				\$10, 33
Hair of all kinds, unmanufacturedpounds Paper materialsdo	80, 280 318, 013	11,011		
All other articles	310, 013	41, 903		3, 93
Total free of duty		65, 495		14, 96
DUTIABLE.				
Bristine pounds			914,096	\$256 , 190
Bristiespounds Cordage, rope, and twinedo Cotton-manufactures	\$917, 229	\$99, 037 638		3, 361
Fancy goods		325		
Flax, raw tons manufactures of	489	119, 959	111	33, 750
manufactures of	297	129, 584 51, 655		7, 142 31
manufactures of	2091	31,055		
Iron, bar-ironpounds			242, 087	7, 230
sheet-irondo	2, 609, 682	236, 552	2, 244, 088	210, 771
Jute, manufactures of		4, 583		145 32, 5ee
manufactures ofpounds	3, 638	2, 420 1, 025	42, 378	1,285
Seeds, flaxseed or linseedbushels	56	1,023		
Tohacco cigara nonnda	150	162	89	199
Wine, in bottlesdozen	40	389		764
Wool, raw pounds. All other articles	3, 118, 930	545, 088 60	847, 465	137, 716 530
Total dutiable				691, 678
Total free of duty		65, 425		14, 98
Total imports		1, 257, 170		705, 94

The indirect imports came through the ports of-

France	***************************************	\$593
Germany		
England	3	56, 092
	_	
	_	

MINERAL PRODUCTS AND RESOURCES.

The future capabilities of manufacturing industry in Russia may be estimated in part by the abundance of raw material, especially of minerals. From a work prepared for the Vienna Exhibition by Mr. Skalijkowsky, entitled "Tableaux de l'Industrie des Mines de Russie en 1871," the following information in regard to Russian mining industry is extracted:

In 1871 the number of mines owned by Russia and producing gold was 979; platinum, 6; silver-lead, 21; copper, 76; iron, 1,174; zinc, 6; cobalt, 1; tin, 1; coal, 326; pyrites, 1; chrome, 6; rock-salt, 4; besides 697 naphtha pits. Their yield was from 17,000,000 tons of gold-sand, 86,400 pounds of gold, from 16,800 tons of platinum-sand, 4,504 pounds of platinum, 35,120 tons of silver-lead ore, 100,365 tons of copper-ore, 820,000 tons of iron-ore, 42,400 tons of zinc-ore, 10\frac{1}{2} tons cobalt-ore, 8,000 tons of pyrites, 817,000 tons of coal (black coal and brown coal,) 22,000 tons of naphtha, 7,000 tons of chrome iron-ore, and 455,000 tons of rock-salt. The smelting-works of Russia produced from these raw ores, silver, 29,000 pounds; lead, 1,740 tons; copper, 4,200 tons; tin, 8 tons; spelter, 2,700 tons; pig-iron, 354,000 tons; iron castings, 30,000 tons; wrought-iron, 241,500 tons; steel, 7,000 tons; copper sheets, 350 tons; and zinc sheets, 500 tons, and material for 11,255,000 roubles. The works gave employment to 266,300 mon.

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRIES OF RUSSIA.

From a work similar in character to the one above quoted from, but relating to another branch of industry, as indicated in its title,* the following facts are condensed. The quantities and values have been reduced to the weights, measures, and currency of the United States:

THE WOOLEN INDUSTRY.

The fabrication of tissues of wool was founded in Russia by Peter the Great. The principal branch of this industry, the manufacture of cloth, was not originally established for supplying the general consumption, but to furnish uniforms for the Russian soldiers, and the ulterior development of this industry is intimately connected with

supplying cloth for the army.

The first manufactory of cloth for the use of the troops was founded at Moscow by Peter the Great, in 1698, on his return from his foreign travels. Later, in 1812, it was provided by ordinance that Russian cloths should be generally used by the army; and with this object in view there were created thirty factories, which received various privileges. The sovereign gave them lands, granted to them the right of holding serfs as workmen, and, moreover, made advances to cover the expenses of starting the estab-

In 1822 the quantity of cloths furnished by the Russian manufacturers for the army exceeded, for the first time, the demand, reaching 4,000,000 archines, (3,111,111 yards,

The progress of the cloth factories from 1800 to 1830 is as follows: In 1804 there were 155 the progress of the cloth iscories from 1000 to 1030 is as follows: in 1004 there were 130 cloth factories, in 1814,235, and in 1820, 304, employing 53,000 workmen, and making more than 4,120,000 yards per year; finally, in 1830, the number of factories had risen to 390, employing 67,000 workmen and making 5,988,888 yards per year. At the present time the woolen industry fully supplies the necessities of the army. In 1856, at the epoch of the Crimean war, it was able to supply the army with 10,000,000 yards of cloth.

The manufacture of articles of fashion from combed-wool did not commence in Russia until after 1830, and then foreign yarns were employed. Spinning combed-wool

was not attempted until some time later.

The gradual progress of this industry is shown by the importations of yarn. Before 1830 the importations were absolutely nothing: - .

	Pounds.
From 1830 to 1832	‡ 113, 400
From 1839 to 1844	
From 1851 to 1853	
From 1859 to 1861	3, 240, 000
From 1869 to 1871	
	.,,

A notable increase is observed in 1869-1871; and in order to represent fully the production of woolen fabrics for this period, these figures should be increased about oneeighth for the combing-wool spun in the four establishments now in operation in Moscow. It may be added that the great care devoted to the raising of sheep, and to the shearing and washing of wool in the interior of Russia and the Baltic Provinces, by furnishing excellent raw material, has contributed much to the progress of manufactures in spinning and weaving wool. The progress within twenty years has been such that many woolen fabrics now rival the best that come from abroad.

The following table exhibits the progress of the wool-manufactures for three-year periods from 1862 to 1871:

Woolen industry of Russia.

	Woolen yarns.		Cloths.			
Years.	Number of factories.	Number of workmen.	Value of products.	Number of factories.	Number of workmen.	Value of products.
1862-'64	22 27 29 40	2, 190 2, 830 3, 020 3, 700	*\$1, 152, 600 1, 687, 050 1, 650, 150 2, 325, 675	390 418 483 510	74, 620 73, 320 73, 640 75, 900	\$20, 476, 050 25, 091, 475 28, 098, 675 32, 925, 000

^{* &}quot;Notice Statistique sur les Industries Textiles en Russie," by M. A. Nébolsine, prepared under the direction of the Imperial Russian Commissioner of the Universal Exposition of Vienna in 1873. † An archine or arsheen is 28 inches

The pood computed at 36 pounds.



Woolen industries of Russia-Continued.

		Fabrics of combed wool.			Total.		
. Years.	Number of factories.	Number of workmen.	Value of products.	Number of factories.	Number of workmen.	Value of products.	
1869-'64 1865-'67 1869-'70	120 135 160 248	14, 580 17, 400 19, 400 30, 600	\$5, 963, 650 8, 446, 950 9, 417, 675 14, 700, 000	539 580 679 798	91, 390 93, 550 96, 060 110, 900	\$27, 492, 309 35, 925, 475 39, 166, 500 49, 950, 675	

*In this and subsequent tables the Russian rouble is computed at 75 cents, which is about its equiva-lent in the currency of the United States when the premium on gold is 15 per cent.

It will be seen by the foregoing table that a steady progress has been made in the woolen industry, especially in the weaving branch, but that while the number of establishments and the value of products have increased, the number of workmen has diminished. This decrease in the number of workmen since 1861 must be attributed to the enfranchisement of the serfs. Many establishments which produced the coarse cloths for clothing the troops were carried on by the landed proprietors upon their own estates, and the labor employed by them was almost exclusively that of the serfs, who paid rent for the lands in this way. The influence of emancipation upon the cloth industry is shown by the following figures:

In 1860 there were 430 cloth factories, employing about 95,000 workmen and producing annually about \$19,500,000 of merchandise. The number of factories and workmen commenced to diminish in 1862, and in 1863 reached the minimum number of 365 factories and 72,000 workmen; but the total value of products remained the same. Since that time the cloth industry has taken a new direction. The necessity of economizing labor has led the manufacturers to adopt improved machines which do the work with fewer workmen.

The following table shows the statistics of the woolen industry of Russia, of Poland, and of Finland, separately and in the aggregate:

Countries.	Number of factories.	Number of workmen.	Value of production in dollars.
In the empire	798 531 10	110, 200 10, 790 150	\$49, 950, 000 7, 762, 500 50, 700
Total	1, 339	121, 070	57, 763, 990

The products of the several provinces of the empire, which exceed a million dollars in value, are the following:

Moscow	\$30,874,500	Tschernigoff	2 1, 986, 750
		St. Petersburg	
		Livonia	
		Kaliaz	

The principal raw material used is native wool. Foreign wools are imported only in small quantities, (100,000 pounds in 1871,) and are used principally in Poland and the Baltic provinces

The wools used are, first, the merino wools, of which Russia produces about 1,800,000 pounds annually, but a part is exported; second, the Russian wool of the borders of the Don and the countries beyond the Volga; third, the Tsisgais wool, the wool of the hordes, (Ural, Emba, and Adaew;) fourth, camel's hair, of which 700,000 pounds are collected annually. A part of the Russian wool is exported.

THE CLOTH INDUSTRY.

In 1871 there were in Russia 510 cloth-factories, employing 76,000 workmen, and producing an annual value of \$33,000,000; in the kingdom of Poland, 236 cloth-factories,

with 3,900 workmen and a product of \$2,812,500; and in the Grand Duchy of Finland, 5 factories, employing 30 workmen, and producing annually \$5,700; a total of 751 establishments, with 79,000 workmen and an annual production of the value of

The products may be divided into three classes: the coarse cloth for clothing the troops; the cloth for private consumption at home, and the cloth for the China trade, which is delivered at the market of Kiahkta.

The exports to China of cloths and other manufactures, by way of Kiahkts, which in 1856-61 amounted to an annual value of \$1,620,870, fell off in the years 1862-65 to \$1,426,980. In the years 1866-70 it rose again to \$1,571,336, and was \$1,456,232 in 1871.

The adoption of basekylk for use in the army has given a value to the camel's hair, formerly useless. Added to this is another kind of cloth, called "camel's cloth." but which is made from the white wool of Kirghis sheep, dyed yellow. This cloth is used to a considerable extent by the poor inhabitants of the Lower Volga, as well as by the nomadic peoples. Its price varies from 86 cents to \$1.06 per yard. The cloth for general use is made by two classes of factories: one producing a cloth not exceeding in price \$2.40 to \$2.90 per yard, the other a cloth worth \$3.85 and over per yard; the latter establishments being principally in Livonia and Poland, but to some extent in Moscow and St. Petersburg.

As the demand for faced cloth has materially diminished of late, while it has in-

creased for other tissues, such as moleskins, tricots, cassimeres, diagonals, satins of wool, &c., many manufacturers who formerly made faced goods exclusively are now

manufacturing the modern tissues with success.

WOOL-SPINNING FACTORIES.

In 1871 there were 40 spinning-mills in the empire, employing more than 3,700 workmen, and producing annually about \$3,325,000. Adding those of Poland, there are in all 65 spinning-mills, with 4,720 workmen, and a production of \$3,372,675. These are the establishments where nothing but spinning is done. The cloth-factories have their own spinning departments. In four of the milks where combing-wool is worked there are 38 combing-machines, 26,100 spindles, and an annual production of 27,300 pounds of yarn, valued at \$1,350,000.

TISSUES OF COMBING-WOOL AND HALF-WOOL.

In 1871 there were 524 factories of this class, 36,550 workmen, and an annual product valued at \$18,657,000. The manufacture of fancy tissues of wool and half-wool (worsted with cotton warps) is principally carried on in the government of Moscow, where the number of establishments reaches 228, with 14,650 looms, 29,000 workmen, and an annual production valued at \$13,312,000.

Shawls, scarfs, &c., are manufactured quite extensively. In 1872 the government of Moscow sent to market more than three million woolen shawls and scarfs of different

kinds.

CARPETS AND FELTS.

In 1871 there were 5 factories, employing 300 workmen, with an annual product valued at \$244,500. The greater part of the carpets are made of printed warps, (tapestry.) The printing is sometimes done at the factories, but oftcuer the printed warps are ordered from abroad. A few carpets are made on the Jacquard looms. The Persian and Turkish carpets made in Caucasia are noted for their firm texture and excellence. They are made by hand, and are very expensive.

The manufacture of felt goods is not important. In 1871 there were 39 factories, with 275 workmen, producing annually a value of \$590,000. The goods are principally carpets and gloves of felted wool, and are remarkable for their good quality and cheap-

There is another branch of the woolen industry carried on quite extensively—that of the peasants, some of whose domestic cloths have a great reputation. In places where this industry is carried on extensively, the wealthy peasants furnish the workmen the raw wools or yarns, which are returned to them in cloth. The spinning of wool for knitting, and the knitting of stockings, constitute still another branch of the domestic industry of the peasants. The data are wanting for an estimate of this household in-

The distribution of these products is principally made at the fairs in the interior of Russia. The quantity of foreign goods sold at these fairs is very small compared to the home products. In the three years 1864-'66 there were delivered at the fair of Nijni-Novgorod about \$412,000 of foreign woolens, and \$6,975,000 of Russian products. The quantity of foreign manufactures sold at this fair has gradually diminished since

that time. It was valued at \$3,337,500 in 1867, and in 1872 it was only \$1,177,500. while the stock of Russian woolens in the same year was as high as \$15,000,000.

Notwithstanding the diminution of foreign goods at this fair and the increase of home products the importation of woolens is quite large, and has increased of late years. In 1867 the imports of woolen goods amounted to \$4,806,794, and in 1871 to \$7,950,668. The exports of woolen goods were in 1867 about \$2,050,000, and in 1871 about \$2,054,000.

THE COTTON INDUSTRY.

The cotton industry gives a product of 162,000,000 roubles.*

In the last years of the eighteenth century, Russia contained, according to official documents, only 90 establishments for weaving cotton, (spinning not having then been introduced.) At the commencement of the nineteenth century weaving began to rapidly develop itself, and in 1820 there were 440 establishments, employing 36,000 workmen, and supplying commerce with 35,000,000 archines of cottonades.†

The progress of the industry of weaving cotton was still more rapid after the pro-

hibitive tariff of 1822, which absolutely interdicted the entry of printed cottons, and placed a very high duty upon the importation of other cotton tissues as well as upon cotton yarns. Under the very marked influence of this tariff the national fabrication was more than doubled in a few years. In 1830 we possessed 538 establishments for weaving, producing, with 76,000 workmen, 83,000,000 archines of cottonades. But it is, above all, by contributing to power-spinning that the tariff of 1822 placed upon a solid basis our cotton industry. Machine-spinning had been carried on at the imperial manufactory of Alexandrovsky since 1805; but this was only a commencement, and that establishment belonging to the state, was placed in exceptional conditions, which could not be made general. It was only at the epoch which followed the publication of the tariff of 1822 that the introduction of power-spinning was properly made in

The two first private spinning establishments were founded, in 1824, at St. Peterburg and Moscow, and in ten years after, that is 1835, there were 25 establishments. The progress of this industry became particularly marked from the period of the year 1842, when the exportation of spinning-machines was authorized in England. We must also attribute this progress, in a certain measure, to the increase of the duty upon cotton yarns from \$3.60 to \$4.68 per pood, effected in 1841, in consequence of the crisis of that year.

In 1849 the number of spinning establishments rose to 45, and the value of their products represented no less than \$8,280,000.

An important change took place, in 1850, in the commercial policy of Russia, which passed from the prohibitive regime to the protective system. The tariff of 1850 reduced the duties on cotton yarns from \$4.32, the old rate, to \$3.96 per pood. The tariff of 1857 lowered the duty to \$2.52. The duty was also lowered upon other articles of cotton. The national industry had then become so solidly established that, far from prejudicing it, the reductions of duty gave it a new impulse, and stimulated it to develop and perfect its processes. In the revenue-reform of 1868, the duties established in 1857 underwent but slight modifications, and the protection accorded to the Russian fabrication of cotton remains nearly the same.

Table showing the condition of the cotton industry in the Russian empire in 1871.

Industries.	Number of cetab- lishments.	Number of work- men.	Value of produce in roubles.
Spinning	51 738 511	44, 300 78, 700 34, 700	55, 070, 000 48, 290, 606 48, 294, 600
Total in Bussia	1, 300	157, 700	151, 658, 000
Kingdom of Poland Grand Duchy of Finland	1, 086	13, 410 4, 000	8, 613, 100 9, 097, 000
Total	2, 391	175, 110	162, 298, 100

^{*} A rouble of 100 kopecks is equal to about 66 cents gold, or 75 cents in paper currency of the United

A pood is caual to 36.4 pounds.



One hundred archines are equal to 77.77 yards.

The cotton industry of Russia is fitted to the necessities and tastes of the country. In the great market of Nijni-Novgorod the presence of the Russian merchandise reduces very considerably the demand for foreign cottons to supply the markets of the interior.

In the triennial period of 1864-766 there were sold at the fair of Nijni-Novgorod \$1,256,400 worth of foreign cottonades, while the Russian fabrics figured at a value of \$11,016,000. In 1872, the value of all the foreign products of cotton, wool, flax, and silk sold at this fair was \$1,130,400, while the Russian cottonades sold represented a value of \$23,328,000.

The cotton industry, although introduced artificially into Russia, has no less rapidly acquired an economical importance, so great as to now occupy the first rank among

the industries of prime necessity.

THE SHE INDUSTRY.

The manufacture of silk was commenced in the last century; but it is only since 1830, under the influence of a protective tariff, that this fabrication has become developed, or acquired any considerable importance. In 1872 there were 460 silk-factories, 15,800 workmen, and an annual production of the value of \$7,416,000, including the production of Transcancasia, which is more of a domestic than manufacturing character. The importation of foreign silks, in 1871, was of a value of \$4,531,633.20; so that the value of the importations was nearly equal to one-half of the national fabrication. The latter, in the character of its products, has reached a high excellence. The manufacture of brocatelles, used in the churches, has attained a very great perfection.

An industry which has been developed among us on a very vast scale is that of the manufacture of light silks, and, above all, tissues of half-silk, plain and figured. In perfection of finish, taste, and price, our fancy stuffs of silk can bear comparison with foreign fabrics.

The following statement, obtained from another source, shows the mineral produc-

tions of Russia in the year 1874.

The state founderies smelted 1,225,000 Russian poods* of bronze, 557,000 of iron, and 1,000 of steel; 89,000 poods weight of articles in bronze were cast, and 508,000 poods weight of ammunition; 9,000 poods weight of steel cannon, and 15,000 weight of iron cannon, 15,000 poods of lead, and 6,600 of zino were smelted; 7,800 poods weight of iron articles; 10,000 poods weight of sheet-iron, and 7,500 roubles* worth of iron for use in ship-building were also made, besides 46,700 side-arms; 20,000 blades, and 5,725 gun-barrels. The amount of metal passing through private factories can only be approximately computed, as the year is reckoned from May 1 to April 30. The following return, however, is supposed to be tolerably correct. The productions of the smelting establishments of the Ural are estimated at 13,200,000 poods of bronze, 1,017,000 of iron, 69,000 of steel, and 100,000 of copper. Those around Moscow are supposed to have produced 3,360,000 poods of bronze, and 440,000 of iron. South Russian produce is estimated at 430,000 poods of bronze, and 440,000 of iron. That of the Polish provinces at 1,370,000 poods of bronze, 800,000 of iron, and 120,000 of zinc. Lastly, 44,000 poods of copper is computed as the return from the Cancasus. Gold, to the amount of 1,806 poods, has been extracted during 1874, without reckoning the districts of Alta6 and Nerchinek, which yield an annual average of 165 poods. The production of coal has increased; the total amount, including anthracite, raised in 1874 being 83,575,000 poods. The extraction of mineral oils in the Cancasus shows a great increase, and oil-wells have lately been discovered in Poland.

THE INDUSTRIAL CLASSES OF RUSSIA.

When the author visited Russia in 1872, as a delegate from the United States to the International Statistical Congress, the eighth session of which was held in St. Petersburg in August of that year, his time was so fully engrossed in the work of the congress that he was unable to make a personal investigation in regard to the cost and condition of the mechanical and factory labor of that country. His stay at Moscow, the center of the manufacturing industry of Russia, as well as at Nijni-Novgorod, where he attended the great fair, and subsequently at Warsaw, was so brief that but limited information was obtained in regard to the industrial classes of that great empire. As to the peasantry—the farm-laborers who were recently emancipated from serf-dom—his observations were more extensive than his inquiries; for, traveling as he did about 4,000 versts (over 2,600 miles) through the center of that country, he was able to observe the habits of the people,

to view their dwellings, and thus inform himself of their condition, although unable to converse with them.

In regard to factory and mechanical labor, however, he has gathered from other sources, and presents in the following pages, information of much value.

The following table, showing the nature and extent of the chief industries of Russia, was prepared by Mr. Michell, then British consulat St. Petersburg:

Nature of industry.	Number of works and manufacto- ries.	Number of work- men.	Value of produc- tion in roubles.
Cotton Hemp and flax Woolen Silk Dye-works Paper Leather Tallow Wax Pottery Glass Metals. Chemicals	606 295 614 2992 904 170 9, 471 1, 595 216 289 910 713 377	69, 347 92, 259 92, 383 7, 933 8, 919 13, 903 13, 945 10, 565 4, 178 10, 744 47, 379 6, 136	71, 755, 688 20, 585, 588 4, 495, 688 5, 575, 688 5, 575, 688 2, 728, 673 4, 688, 771 20, 684, 771 20, 684, 677

^{*} Equal to about \$165,500,000 in United States currency.

Spirits distilled, about 73,000,000 gallons; beer and mead brewed, about 21,000,000 gallons; beet-root sugar produced, 3,300,000 poods; tobacco manufactured, 594,000 poods; iron raised, 15,781,000 poods.

FACTORY LABOR IN 1841.

The following statement shows the wages, per month, of work-people in a cotton-mill in A. Petersburg, in the year 1841.

Occupations.	Wages.	Cost of board, lodg- ing, and light.	Cost of clothes.	Enrylus money re- maining to each.
Men in the blowing or mixing rooms. Boys in the blowing-room. Men at carding-engines. Boys at the back of cards. Girls at the calenders. Women or girls at drawing-frames. Women or girls at drawing-frames. Girls at back of tube-machine. Girls at back of tube-machine. First or large piecer. Second or back piecer. Largest boy at back of the mules. Smallest boy at back of the mules. Realers. Pier, first class. Binths, mashinists, &c. Watchman.	6 90 8 40 6 00 4 80 6 00 4 20 4 80 9 30 7 80 3 60 7 90	66666646646646888888888888888888888888	\$1 92 1 90 1 92 1 90 96 96 1 90 1 90 1 90 1 90 1 90 1 90 1 90 1 90	\$2 88 1 90 2 88 1 90 94 1 94 1 94 1 94 1 94 1 94 1 94 1 94 1

RATES OF WAGES IN 1869.

(From the British consular reports.)

ST. PETERSBURG. 1870.

Wages vary considerably, and are dependent on a variety of causes, such as the locality, season of the year, &c.; the lowest wages being paid in districts where handloom-weavers abound. Good mill-hands make from \$7.50 to \$15 per month, and are

loom-weavers abound. Good mill-hands make from \$7.50 to \$15 per month, and are often paid by piece-work.

Fitters, ordinary mechanics, joiners, blacksmiths, &c., will earn from 75 cents to \$1.50 a day. Skilled mechanics, engine-drivers, engineers on river steamers, &c., earn very high wages—from \$1.50 to \$2.50 per day, and even more.

English foremen receive \$20 to \$30 a week, with ledging, fuel, and light free. Apprentices generally receive from \$2.50 to \$3 a month for the first year, increasing each anceseding one by a rouble a month.

In cotton-mills, piecers, iron-tenters, and reclers generally get paid according to the amount of work done; the others are paid by the day.

WAGES IN MOSCOW.

The following tables give the rates of wages per month at Moscow, the industrial center of Russia, in the year 1869, and also the prices of the chief articles of consump-Wages in cotton-mills.

The state of the s	Wages per month.
Mixing-room—cotton-pickers, women	\$3 52
* Scutching—overlookers, men	8 36
Penters men	4 84
Tenters, men Card-room—overlookers, men	11 28
Strippers, men	6 08
Grinders, men	6 14
Drawing-tenters, women.	3 60
* Speed-tenters, women	4 541
· Speed-piecers, girls	2 08
Overlookers, men	12 20
Male spinners, men	9 16
Male spinners, first piecers, boys	5 32
Male spinners, second piecers, boys	4 16
Male spinners, scavengers, boys	2 88
- Throstle-piecers, girls	2 30
Reclers, women	4 544
	11 60
Overlookers, men	3 94
Winders, women	7 46
Warpers, women	10 64
+ Sizers, men	3 84
Heald-knitters, girls.	
Weavers, men and women	7 88
Enginemen	11 76
Stokers, men	6 85
Oilers, men	6 44
Mechanics	11 60
Blacksmiths	13 00
Boiler-makers	19 36
Molders	12 88
Joiners	10 96
Pattern-makers	13 52
Packers	9 32
Storemen	, 5 80
Gasmen	6 44
Watchmen	3 87
Day-laborers	5 03
Carters	6 44
Clerks, in 1869, from	\$6 44 to 19 36
Flax-mills.	0.40
Ruffers, men Sorters, men and boys	9 68
Sorters, men and boys	11 60
Machine-hacklers, men and boys	3 84

Spreaders, women Carder-spreaders, women Drawers, women Rovers, women Spinners, women and children Doffers Bobbin-carriers, boys	\$4 16
Carder-spreaders, women Drawers, women Rovers, women Spinners, women and children Doffers	
Drawers, women	3 84
Rovers, women Spinners, women and children Doffers	3 52
Doffers	
Doffers	3 84
Doffers	3 84
Bobbin-carriers, boys	2 56
	4 48
Twisters, boys and girls	4 48
Band-tiers, boys	4 48
Reelers, women	1 28
	4 84
Dryers, men	5 16
Bleachers, men	
Winders, women and girls	3 52
Piecers, girls	2 56
Warpers, women	6 44
Dressers, men	9 68
Weavers, boys and women	4 48
Cloth-pickers, boys	4 22
Calenderers, men	8 36
	6 44
Reel-makers, boys	2 02
Heald-knitters, boys and girls	
Packers, men	6 44
Enginemen	9 68
Stokers, men	7 72
Shaft-oilers, men	5 16
Mechanics, men	5 16
Blacksmiths, men	13 84
	15 48
Model-makers, men	11 60
Joiners, men	
Brass-founders, men	12 88
Gasmen	6 44
Watchmen	5 16
Day-laborers	5 16
Carters	6 44
Sweepers, boys and men	4 48
Oncopord, bojo waa momitteesississississississississississississi	
Clarks	10.36
Clerks	19 36
Clerks Overlookers, from	\$5 80 to 16 12
Overlookers, from	
Clerks Overlookers, from Bleaching, dyeing, and print works.	
Overlookers, from	\$5 80 to 16 12
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men	
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 84
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Coverlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Drawing-tenters, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 30 3 52
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women. Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Wool-washers, men Card-feeders, women Card-feeders, women Drawing-tenters, women Roving-tenters, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 84 3 52 3 20
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Drawing-tenters, women Twisters, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 84 3 52 3 20 3 20 3 20
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Drawing-tenters, women Twisters, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 84 3 52 3 20
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women. Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Wool-washers, men Card-feeders, women Card-feeders, women Drawing-tenters, women Roving-tenters, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 84 3 52 3 20 3 20 3 20
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Drawing-tenters, women Twisters, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 84 3 52 3 20 3 20 3 20
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Drawing-tenters, women Twisters, women Roving-tenters, women Reelers, women Reelers, women Rovier manufacture.	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 20 3 20 5 16
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, women Comb-tenters, women Drawing-tenters, women Roving-tenters, women Twisters, women Reelers, women Woolen manufacture. Overlookers, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 20 5 16
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Wool-washers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Drawing-tenters, women Twisters, women Reelers, women Reelers, women Reelers, women Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 30 3 52 3 20 5 16
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Twisters, women Twisters, women Woolen manufacture. Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-tenters, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 84 3 52 3 20 5 16
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-feeders, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Twisters, women Roving-tenters, women Reelers, women Woolen manufacture. Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-tenters, women Soverlookers, men Card-tenters, women Soverlookers, men Card-tenters, women Shearing, women Shearing, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 30 3 52 3 20 5 16
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Crad-feeders, women Drawing-tenters, women Twisters, women Twisters, women Reelers, women Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-tenters, women Steaners, men Card-tenters, women Card-tenters, women Card-tenters, women Shearing, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 30 3 30 5 16
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Card-feeders, women Trawing-tenters, women Twisters, women Twisters, women Woolen manufacture. Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, women Shearing, women Shearing, women Weavers, women Cloth-cleaners, women Cloth-cleaners, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 20 3 20 5 16
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Card-feeders, women Trawing-tenters, women Twisters, women Twisters, women Woolen manufacture. Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, women Shearing, women Shearing, women Weavers, women Cloth-cleaners, women Cloth-cleaners, women	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 30 3 32 5 16
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Twisters, women Reelers, women Woolen manufacture. Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Shearing, women Woolen sahers, men Cloth-cleaners, women Wool-washers, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 20 5 16 12 82 3 20 5 16 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 5 48
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Drawing-tenters, women Roving-tenters, women Twisters, women Reelers, women Card-cleaners, men Card-tenters, women Shearing, women Shearing, women Weavers, women Cloth-cleaners, men Cloth-dryers, men Cloth-dryers, men Cloth-dryers, men Cloth-dryers, men Cloth-dryers, men Cloth-dryers, men Cloth-dryers, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 20 5 16 12 85 5 80 3 03 7 6 44 4 46 5 45
Bleaching, dyeing, and print works. Laborers in laboratory and about printing-machines, men Work-people about agency-room, dye-house, and calenderers, men and women Overlookers about agency-room, dye-house, and calenders, men Packers, men Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-feeders, women Comb-tenters, women Twisters, women Reelers, women Woolen manufacture. Overlookers, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Card-cleaners, men Shearing, women Woolen sahers, men Cloth-cleaners, women Wool-washers, men	\$5 80 to 16 12 6 44 5 80 9 68 9 68 10 96 6 12 6 44 3 20 3 84 3 52 3 20 5 16 12 88 5 80 3 03 4 4 44 4 4 4 4

G	la.	۰.	m	or	ks.

Giuse-works.					
	w	age	8 pc	r mo	nth
Glass-blowers	\$ 8	36	to	\$14	16
Rough-polishers					60
Cutlers			to		
Daim and					
Designers	7	w	to		
Gilders					36
Assistants to blowers, boys				2	72
Mixers of materials at furnace				16	12
Hardeners, boys					16
Otense and maken man					
Storers and packers, men				O	44
Paper-mille.					
Overlookers	9	88	ł۸	11	60
Workmen			to		44
			to		
Workwomen	3	20	to	3	84
Average cost of food per month for—					
One man				3	04
One women					30
One child	•				92
And mitra				-	32
PRICES OF PROVISIONS.					
Flour, black, per cwt				9	18
milia haa manad					
white, best, per owt					58
white, second, per cwt					96
white, third, per cwt				3	56
Buckwheat, per measure					83
Wheat, per measure				1	15
Malt, per cwt					18
Sold man and					98
Salt, per cwt					
Pease, per measure					56
Oil, (used during fasts,) per cwt				12	
Butter, per pound					18
Small fish, per pound					11
Beef, first sort, per pound					09
accord cost non nound					07
second sort, per pound				_	
Salted beef, per cwt				7	98
To the lemme terms the union of the heat heaf and sentence of the union		1	:1		101

In the larger towns the price of the best beef and mutton often runs as high as 173

cents per pound.

The increase in the prices of the chief articles of consumption during the last ten years may be roughly stated to be at the rate of from 30 to 50 per cent., but the rates of wages have increased in an equal and in many cases in a greater proportion. The condition of the Russian artisan has improved very materially during late years, and were it not for the lowering of the duty on the already too-cheap "vodki," (corn brandy,) the working-class in Russia would be, comparatively speaking, well off.

Prices of provisions in Nicolaieff, Russia, in 1870.

·				
Beef, veal, mutton, and pork, per pound	\$ 0	06	to	
Bread, middling, per 2 poundsbest, per pound				06 08
Rye, best, per pound				03
Butter, fresh, per pound				28
Butter, salt, per pound.				24
Butter, salt, per pound. Cheese, bad, native, per pound.				14
Swiss and English, per pound				60
MILLOW, UCL DUMMARAGE CONTRACTOR				65
Buckwheat, per pound				02
Sugar refined, (no other qualities are used,) per pound				18
Tea, cheapest, per pound				90
Firewood, fir, per cart-load				4 84
Firewood, oak, per cart-load				6 29
Coals, native, anthracite, per ton				14 52
Coals, English bituminous, per ton				9 68
Water, per cart				60
per pail				02
Bong, brackish, per pail				01
Cabbages, per 100.				2 42
Carrots, per 10				08

Onione man 50				\$0	ne.
Onions, per 50 Parsley, per bunch				•	901
Potatoes, per pound					03
Solanum, per 100					60
Tallow ding non nound					12
Tallow dips, per pound					14
molds, per pound					24
Composition candles, per pound					
Petroleum, per quart					24
Flour, best, per pound					04
seconds, per pound					03
	\$ 0	24	to		36
Milk, per quart					10
Bacon, lard, ham, per pound					14
Fowls, per pair		60	to		72
Geese, each		60	to		72
Turkeys, each		72	to	1	69
Soap, per pound					10
Starch, per pound					08
Macaroni, per pound					06
Rice, per pound		•			06
Eggs, per 100					84
Fish, average, per pound					20
Crawfish, per 100					06
Wine, commonest, bad, per bottle					12
					28
passable, per bottle					36
Vodki or brandy, per bottle					J U

Manure, dried and caked for fuel, is this year at \$7.26 per 7 cubic feet. Reeds and linseed straw and flax-stems and brushwood; \$1.21 per 30 bundles.

INDUSTRIAL CLASSES IN RUSSIA.

ST. PETERSBURG, Junuary 12, 1870.

It is not easy to state at all accurately the proportion which the number of Russians employed in industrial pursuits, exclusive of the agricultural population, bears to the other classes.

The difficulty arises in great measure from the existence of a very numerous class of nomads; for independently of those employed in the internal navigation, carpeters, bricklayers, stonemasons, painters, joiners, and other artisans are in the habit of flocking into the great towns in the spring, and of returning to their villages in the antumn.

The following is a rough estimate of the numbers employed in various manufactures in Russia:

Hands.
50,000
70,000
100,000
50,000
oo, oo
270,000
210,000
5,000
25,000
20,000
30,000
30,00
8,000
12,000
30,000
50,500
50,000
4,000
4,000
20,000
20,000
28,000
~~, ~~
70,000
9,000

Silk—Ribbons, &c	7,000
Total employed in silk-manufacture	10,000
Iron	150,000
Leather	
Deals, &c	
Oils—hemp, linseed, sunflower, &c	15,000
Sugar	
Total number of hands employed in the foregoing manufactures	725, 000

To the above must be added those engaged in glove, boot, hat, watch, carriage-making, and other employments, no reliable statistics to arrive even approximately at their numbers being obtainable.

CONDITION OF AGRICULTURAL LABORERS.

The agricultural laborers live almost entirely in houses of their own, which are throughout the empire constructed in the following simple fashion: Logs of the red pine are cut into the required lengths—3, 4, or 5 fathoms, according to the proposed size of the house; the lengths are placed one above the other, the ends being dove-tailed together, thus forming, as it were, a huge box of logs; the doors and windows are then cut out, and the pieces carefully numbered by notches; the box is now taken to pieces, and the actual building commences; this is done by placing the lowest tier on boulder-stones and wooden posts for foundations, then each succeeding tier is added, mass, or hemp and tow, being used between each layer, to fill up all interstices; the walls thus completed, floors and ceilings of red or white pine boards are added, both ceiling and flooring generally being double, with a layer of earth between; the whole is crossed over with boards, the roofing generally consisting of wooden tiles; in one corner of a room a large brick stove, similar to an English baking-oven, is built, a chimney, either of bricks (put loosely together without mortar) or of wood, is carried through the roof, and the house, or hut, is complete. Here the whole family lives. Generally the house contains but a single room, but sometimes a well-to-do peasant has a house of three or four rooms, and even uses plaster and paper-hangings for the walls of his hut.

CONDITION OF FACTORY LABORERS.

The mill-people in large towns or their suburbs, for the most part, live as lodgers, in houses varying in size from the peasant's hut to large buildings of two or three stories, but in no case are comfort and cleanliness taken into consideration. The rooms are generally small, low, badly ventilated, and crowded; the same room is used for sleeping and eating; shelves or benches serve as beds. The occupants are generally only known to each other from working at the same mill; very few, indeed, are members of the same family, and children, even where employed in the same neighborhood as their parents, seldom live with them. Separate sleeping-apartments are almost unknown, save in the case of the superior workmen who rise to be overlookers, foremen, &c.; these men have often neat, tidy lodgings, and live with some regard to appearances. It is a general practice among mill-hands to form themselves into artels, a kind of club, consisting, according to the size of the room, of five, ten, eighteen, twenty, or even a greater number of members. Each artel will engage a woman as cook, appoint a treasurer to encash monthly the subscriptions due to the general fund for provisions, &c. The food of the workmen generally consists of black bread, fresh and salt fish, soup from cabbage and meat, potatoes, mushrooms, cucumbers, &c. Tea, corn brandy, quass, and beer are the beverages. Beer has gained great favor with the mill-hands, both in St. Petersburg and Moscow; otherwise it is very little drunk by the poorer classes.

As a rule, in the neighborhood of large towns the people live much better, generally

As a rule, in the neighborhood of large towns the people live much better, generally at an average rate of about \$5 per month per man; at other places, (except in the central and southern provinces, where the food of the people is generally good,) however, the living is very wretched, the food consisting of little else besides black bread and water, and occasionally only a little tea, the living in this case costing only about from \$1.20 to \$1.44 per month. With the extension of the railway system, the wages and

style of living are improving, even in the more remote districts.

Of late years, some mill-owners have adopted the plan of providing lodgings for their work-people, and in many instances have built large houses, constructed on sanitary principles. Here the people are divided into three classes: the married, the unmarried men, and the unmarried women; to each is allotted a separate house or part of the house. The supervision of the lodgings is intrusted to competent persons, and an extent of cleanliness and comfort is attained which would be quite impossible to arrive at in any other way. The inmates pay for their lodgings according to the size or the number of rooms occupied by them, the amount due for rent being deducted every month from their wages. Under this system a single man will pay from 72 cents to \$1.44 a month; married men from \$1.44 to \$2.16. Attached to these houses there is generally a store, where the people can purchase the necessaries of life, of good quality and at reasonable prices; this store is under the control of the mill-owner or manager. * * Some of the more wealthy mill-owners have already established hospitals in direct connection with their works; the ground and buildings being provided by the proprietor, while the hands generally support the hospitals by a payment of from \(\frac{1}{2} \) to 1 per cent. on their wages. * *

HOURS OF LABOR.

The hands work on an average thirteen hours per day, commencing at 5 a. m. in the summer and at 5.30 a. m. in the winter, and stopping work at 8 p. m. An hour in the middle of the day, generally from 12 to 1, is allowed for dinner, and the operatives usually have a short time allowed for breakfast at 8 a. m., and again, for a luncheon, at 5 p. m. Adults and children keep the same hours, but only very inconsiderable numbers of the latter are employed in mills.

EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

In Russia, in 1872, there were 1,081 preparators and higher schools, attended by 37,430 pupils, of whom 16,461 were boys and 21,789 girls. There were 126 gymnasia, in which Latin, French, Greek, and science generally, were taught; and 32 progymnasia, attended by 42,751 pupils. Of preparatory and higher schools for girls only, there were 186, attended by 23,404 pupils. The universities, of which there are now eight, have been organized on the German model. They employ 512 professors, and have 6,799 pupils, nearly all the latter being from the middle and poorer classes.

In reference to the condition of the working classes of Russia, the British Almanac says:

In Russia the working classes may be regarded as being in a kind of transition state, in consequence of the recent abolition of serfdom throughout the empire; many workmen who have been serfs enjoying from their owners permission to live and work in the large towns. Again, there seems to be a tendency on the part of the newly-emancipated population to drift toward the large cities and towns, agricultural labor being miserably remunerated in Russia. On the other hand, the Russian mechanic appears disposed to emigrate to the United States, but for the political obstacles in the way of his so doing. In every respect, the social condition of the Russian artisan is inferior to that of his brethren in Western Europe, and years must elapse before he can hope to become on terms of industrial equality with them.

BERDIANSK.

The British consul at Berdiansk, under date of March 22, 1872, writes as follows:

The keen demand for grain has brought large tracts of land under cultivation, and a severe strain on the labor market has resulted, which has within the last four years brought up wages to very high rates. The Russian workman has not yet learned the value of time, and he does not appreciate home comforts or wholesome food. Earning from \$5 to \$10 in a week, he will waste the next, and spend his money in drink. He knows very well that he has never to wait for work, but that work is always waiting for him. His wants are few and easily satisfied. He lives in a wretched, unfurnished hovel, possessing but one recommendation, warmth in the winter. His bed is but a piece of felt and a straw pillow; he has no sheet or other covering. He sleeps in his clothes, and his sheep-skin coat serves him for a quilt. His dress is of common print, and he generally wears it until it drops off from age. A thick sheep-skin coat is his dress in winter, and this is seldom taken off during the cold months. His food consists principally of black bread, made from rye, salted, sun-dried fish, cheese of very poor quality, eggs, and occasionally pork; the better class of workmen generally have a

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noon-day meal of soup made with meat and vegetables. His drink is tea, quass, (a kind of weak beer,) and vodki, (a very pure and cheap spirit made from rye.) Of this spirit large quantities are consumed. His recreation is drinking, with its accompaniments, singing and dancing. Such lodging, such food, such clothing, such amusements, are totally unfit for an Englishman. Under such circumstances he could not long retain health. In considering, therefore, what the coet of living in this part of Russia would be for an Englishman, (and it is necessary to estimate this, for the lines of railway now projected must ere long create a demand for skilled workmen,) we must take his way of living at home, and see what the expense would be to live in the same style here. Supposing him to be married, and to have three children, he would require a house with three rooms. The interior comforts and arrangements which such a house would possess in England would not be found; it would be without drains, closets, or water, and the doors and windows would be ill constructed. For such a house the rent would be about \$75 a year; four meals a day, breakfast, dinner, tea, and supper, could not be estimated at less than 84 cents; clothing, fuel, light, and household expenses could not be estimated at less than 72 cents a day. Thus, with strict economy, the English workman's yearly expenditure with his family would be—

For food	\$319 08
For clothes, fuel, &c	
For rent	75 00

The above does not include drinks or any kind of recreation, and though the sum may appear large, yet it is carefully calculated, and, if anything, underestimated. An English second-class engineer who, with his wife, has resided in this town (Berdiansk) for the past two years, assures me that his monthly bill for food alone, without liquor, amounts to £9. He receives £18 a month, and these wages he computes as equal to about £12 in London. As already shown, the diet of the natives is unfit for an Englishman, but the country possesses all the requisites for an Englishman. The average prices of necessaries are as follows: Meat, per pound of 14 ounces, 6 cents; bread, 4 cents; butter, 28 cents; potatoes, 1 cent; tea, \$1.20; coffee, 20 cents; loaf-sugar, (there is no brown.) 20 cents; coals, per ton, \$3.68.

During the winter months the entire population are dressed in fur. The ordinary

material is sheep-skin, and coats made from it cost from \$12.50 to \$22.50.

WAGES IN ODESSA IN 1870.

[From report of the British consul.]

The wages paid to native workmen and laborers are as follows;

To the second se	Inited States gold.
Working engineers, from	\$0 94 to \$1 32
Working carpenters, from	87 to 1 32
Working blacksmiths, from	. 87 to 1 18
Ordinary laborers, (mechanics,) from	. 50 to 66
Common laborers employed in paving, &c., in 1866, from	. 21 to 1 05
Common day-laborers, (according to the season,) from	
Watchmakers, monthly wages, from	. 16 50 to 40 00

Apprentices are taken from four to six years, found with lodging and food, and, after the above periods, promoted to be workmen.

Gold and silver smiths: Workmen are paid monthly at the rate of \$6.60 to \$10, and

upward of \$40, a very few as high as from \$50 to \$66.

The Russian workman appears to be intelligent and laborious, but is said to be careless and indifferent as to the quality of the work he turns out, and, therefore, will always require to be sharply looked after. It is not thought that he is often conscientious, or that he takes a pride in the quality of the work he may execute, and he would undertake any that was given him without reference to his character as a workman. It is probable that Russian artisans are fast acquiring greater skill in all departments of their trade, for the Russian is of an imitative, if not an inventive, turn, and as he improves in skill he will naturally, one may suppose, improve in the care and quality of the work he executes.

WAGES IN ODESSA IN 1873.

The following information was furnished by Mr. Smith, consul of the United States at Odessa, October, 1873:

Bate of wages paid for farm and mechanical labor in Odessa, Russia, in the year 1873.

		Daily wages.		
Occupation.	With board.	Without board.	With board.	
FARM-LABORERS.				
Experienced hands in summer*	56 67 50	\$ 0 75	\$50 00 12 00 10 00 8 00 10 00 7 00	
Blacksmiths Bricklayers or masons Cabinet-makers Carpenters Caopers Machinists Painters Plasterers Shoemakers Stone-outters Tailores Taners	1 25 1 50 1 25	1 60 1 30 1 60 1 30 2 00 1 60 1 60 1 60 1 55 1 55 1 19		

^{*} Women one-third price. † By the day only.

Price of board for workmen, per week, October, 1873, \$5; for workwomen, per week, October, 1873, \$4.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, ETC.

Prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, also of house-rent and board, in the town of Odessa; furnished by Mr. Bragg, of the establishment of Kendrick & Co.

Articles.	Retail prices in 1879.	Articles.	Retail prices in 1879.
Provisions.		Sugar:	
Flour:	ľ.	Coffee B per pound.	\$0 10
Wheat, superfine per barrel.	\$8 50	Somp. commondo	1
Wheat extra familydo	10 00	Starchdo	1
Ryedo	5 00	Fuel:	1
Corp-monl ,,,	4 00	Coal, bestper ton.	12 00
Beef:	•	Coal, bestper ton. Wood, hard, (cutting in-	
Fresh, reasting pieces per pound.	10	ciuded)	i 19 M
Fresh, soup piecesdo	7	Wood, pine, (outting in- cluded) per cord.	
Fresh, rump-steaksdo	10	cluded) per cord	1 800
Cerneddo	5	Oil :	
Vesi:	1	Petroleumper gallon.	7:
Fore & vartersdo	8	Lampdo	13
Hind-spartersdo	11		
Cutletsdo	12	DOMESTIC DRY-GOODS, ETC.	}
Mutton:			1
Fore-quartersdo	7	Shirtings:	,
Legdo	ė i	Brown, 4-4 standard qual-	ł
Chopsdo	10	ity per vard	94
Don't .		Brown, 4-4, standard qual- ity per yard. Bleached, 4-4, standard qual-	_
- Freshdo	10	ity per yard	er er
Corned or selteddo	. 14	I Theethan	_
Hams, smokeddo	15	Linen, 9.8 standard anal-	I
Shouldersdo	14	ity nerverd	90
Sausagesdo		Linen QR standard anal.	•
arddo	17	Linen, 9-8, standard quality per yard Linen, 9-8, standard quality per yard Cotton fiannel, medium quality per yard	95
odfish, drydo		Cotton flannel medium qual.	•
fackerel, pickleddo	6	ity ner verd	92
Butterdo	25	Tickings, linendo	63
heesdo	40	Printsdo	30
otatoesper bushel	1 90	Mousseline de laines	40
dce per pound.		Satinets, medium qualitydo	
Beansper quart.	12	Boots, men's heavy per pair.	5 90
Cilkdo	10	Doors, men a nearly per part.	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
ggsper dosen		HOUSE-REST.	
Ata		HOUSE-MARI.	
groceries, etc.	[Four-roomed tenements. per menth.	
		Six-roomed tenementsdo	50 00
les, Oolong or other good		•	
blackper pound.	1 00	BOARD.	
offee:	l l	1	
Rio, greendo	95	For men, (mechanics or other	
Rie, roesteddo	30	workmen) per week.	5 00
UEST:		For womendo	3 00
Good browndo	ا و		

EXPENDITURES OF A WORKMAN'S FAMILY.

Average weekly expenditures of a family consisting of two adults and five children, the head of which is employed in the establishment of Mesers. Kendrich & Co., in the town of Odessa, Russia.

Weekly estrained in 1873, \$15 per week

Tesa and coffee	Weeklye	ermings in	1873, \$13 per week.	
Fresh, corned, salted, and smoked meats. Lard	Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
	Fresh, corned, salted, and smoked meats. Lard Butter Sugar and molasses Milk Tea and coffee Fish, fresh and salt Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar, &o	1 60 35 40 60	Oil or other light Spirits, beer, and tobacco, (if any) House rent For educational, religious, and benevo- lent objects Total weekly expenses Clothing per year	\$1 10 20 25 2 90 1 50 19 80 75 00 2 00

DEVELOPMENT OF RUSSIAN MANUFACTURES.

While the manufactures of Russia are as vet very limited.* her agricultural resources are such as to make her a sharp competitor with the United States in the European grain market. That which, for the present, gives us a decided advantage over her is the extensive use in this country of improved agricultural machinery, which, to the great mass of Russian agriculturists, is as yet unknown.† She possesses vast areas of territory whose soil and climate are all that could be desired, and her facilities for transportation, which were formerly very imperfect, have been so much improved of late years that the wheat product of a large region can now be carried by rail to Odessa and other ports of shipment. cheapness of labor, and that tardiness to adopt new modes of industry. which is natural to a peasantry but recently released from serfdom, have thus far militated against the introduction of machinery and improved implements into agricultural industry; but it must be remembered that the word "progress" has been stamped upon the operations of modern Russia, and that the masses of the peasantry cannot long remain unaffected by that spirit of improvement of which the visitor to Russia sees so many evidences on every side. Moreover, special efforts for the elevation of the peasantry will not be lacking, for the large-hearted beneficence of the Emperor Alexander II, (properly surnamed "The Great,") who, in a single day, created over forty millions of freemen, will not permit him to leave the great work he has undertaken in an incomplete condition. Already, in fact, have measures been adopted to surround the emancipated serfs, as rapidly as practicable, with the conditions befitting the state of freedom to which they have been raised.

In view of the rapidity with which the events of national development succeed each other in this age of progress, we may look forward to a day by no means remote when Russia will so far utilize her ample stores of ore, both of iron and other metals, of anthracite and bituminous coal, and of all the raw materials of industry, as to compete successfully, both in textile and metallic products, with the manufacturing nations of Western Europe.

Nébolsine, presented on previous pages, the manufacture of textile fabrics for home consumption has attained a considerable magnitude, while the manufacture of iros, both for the domestic and foreign market, has long been a very important industry.

both for the domestic and foreign market, has long been a very important industry.

† At the exposition held at Moscow in 1672 the author observed an extensive variety of the most improved agricultural machinery of foreign origin. Within three miles of that old and celebrated city he saw in actual use the primitive plow, described in sacred and profane history, consisting of a bent root or a crooked stick, without any improvement on the ancient model, except a piece of iron as a shoe, or apology for a share. He also noticed, in the same vicinity, the threshing of grain with a flail, not on a threshing-floor, but on the bare ground.

LABOR IN AFRICA.

Although it was not intended to submit in this report any data in regard to labor in Africa, yet, as circulars similar to those used elsewhere were sent to the consuls of the United States at Tunis and Tripoli, the information which, in response thereto, they have furnished is herewith presented.

RATES OF WAGES.

Statement showing the rates of mechanical and farm labor in Tunis and Tripoli, Africa, in the year 1873.

		Tunis.			Tripoli	ι.
Occupation.	y:) Solution. 90 30 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20	Daily wages, with-	Monthly wages, with board.	Daily wages, with board.	Daily wages, with- out board.	Monthly wages,
Skilled workmen, (by the day only:) Blacksmiths Bricklayers or masons Cabinet-makers Capenters Coopers Machinists Painters Plasterers Shoemakers Stone-cutters Tailors Tanners Tinsmiths Wheelwrights Farm-laborers: Experienced hands in summer in winter Ordinary hands in summer in winter Common laborers at other than farm-work	\$0 30 30 20 20 20	\$0 60 60 75 60 60 75 50 37 60 37 60 60 40 40 40	\$9 00 9 00 7 50 7 50 7 50 7 50	\$0 24 16	\$0 90 52 58 52 59 60 48 48	\$3 E

EXPENDITURES OF WORKMEN'S FAMILIES.

Statement showing the average weekly expenditures of two familes, one in Tunis and one in Tripoli, Africa, in the year 1873.

Articles.	Tunis, two adults and five children.	Tripoli, two adults and three children.	Articles.	Tunis, two adults and five children.	Tripoli, two adults and three children.
Flour and bread	25 30 25	\$0 85 18 07 06	Eggs Potatoes and other vegetables Fruits, green and dried Fruel Oil or other light Other articles Spirits and tobacco (if any) House-rent For educational, religious, and benevolent objects Total weekly expenses Clothing per year	\$0 30 1 00 37 62 30 50 37 1 00 3 50	\$0 06 03 12 24 16 64

PRICES OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES, ETC.

Statement showing the prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, also of house-rent and board, in Tunis and Tripoli, Africa, in the year 1878.

Articles.	Tunis.	Tripoli.	Articles.	Tunis.	Tripeli.
PROVISIONS.			GROCERIES, ETC.		
Flour:	İ	1	Tea, Oelong, or other good black,	1	
Wheat, superfine per bbl.	\$8 00		per pound	80 20	\$1.33
Wheat, extra familydo			Coffee Dia.		
Beef:			Green per Ib	30	
Freeh, reasting-piecesper lb.	14	80 10	Greenper Ib Roasteddo	40	
Fresh, soup-piecesdo			Sugar:	1	
Fresh rump-steaks do	14		Good browndo	19	
Veal:		1	Yellow Cdo	10	
Fore quartersdo	14	l	Coffee Bdo	10	
Hind quartersdo	14		Soap, commondo	10	06
Cutletsdo	14		Starchdo	19	14
Mutten:	1	1	Fuel, coal per ton.	22 00	19 46
Fore quartersdo	10	08	Oil *per jar.	62	2 31
Legdo	14			l	1
Chopsdo	14		DRY-GOODS, ETC.	ŀ	
Pork:			Gray T-cloth, 32 inchesper yd.	. .	67
Freshdo	l .	16	Gray T-cloth, 33 inchesper yd. Shirtings, bleacheddo Tickings, good qualitydo		14
Sausagesdo		20	Tickings, good qualitydo		10
Codfish, drydo		08	Printsde	l. 	1 11
Mackerel, pickleddo	08				ł
Butterdo	50	18	House-rent.	1	1
Cheesedo	37	20	Four-roomed tenementsper mo.	10 00	3 94
Potatoesper bush.	1 25		Six-roomed tenementsdo	19 00	4 13
Riceper lb	60	06			1
Beans per qt.	1 25	1	BOARD.		1
Milkdo	06	!	For men, (mechanics or other		1
Eggs per dos.	18	09	workmen)per week.	3 60	

^{*} The jar weighs 23 pounds.

In transmitting the foregoing statement, Mr. Consul Vidal remarks:

The chief expense in Tripoli for the lower classes, Christians, Jews, or Mussulmans, is for barley, coffee, elive-oil, charcoal, and house-rents. Fuel is scarce, and therefore pretty high. Barley is the principal article of consumption for men and horses. The former will make a hearty meal with one or two pancakes of barley-flour and dipped in oil. Sometimes barley is eaten in its natural state. A person who keeps horses and Arab servants has to see that the latter do not eat the barley placed in the manger of the former, and do not drink the oil of his lamps.

Many of the articles enumerated in the above lists are luxuries here, and can scarcely be considered as forming part of the expenditures of a mechanic's family.

[Extract from a letter from G. H. Heap, esq., United States consul at Tunis, Africa.]

The Arab farm-laborer, who is paid sixty cents a day without board, lives upon black bread, a few clives, and some clive-oil, the whole not costing over fifteen cents. In cosequence of the construction of a railroad by an English company, the price of common labor has increased over 50 per cent.

The manufactories in this consular district are carried on in a manner and on a scale as primitive and as small as in the Middle Ages. There are several guilds the members of which employ a few hands each. The principal corporations are the makers of red caps, worn everywhere in the East, the finest and most costly being made here; and the goat-skin tanners and dyers, the Tunisian skins being equal to those made in Morocco. In the south there are manufactories of woolen goods of various descriptions, some of which are fine and costly, and but little known out of this country. The Tunisian bernoose, however, is well known in Europe, and much prized. Beyond these there are few manufactures of any value and importance, and none on a large scale.

Nothing whatever is done here for the health, comfort, education, or morals of mechanics, and I can, therefore, give no facts in regard to these subjects.

LABOR IN AMERICA.

The pages in the preceding part of this report have been devoted to the consideration of labor and the condition of laborers in ancient, medieval, and modern times in various portions of the Old World.

It now only remains to present such facts as have been gathered in relation to labor in America; and as this volume is intended for circulation chiefly within the United States, it is only necessary to present, in a tabular form, the rates of wages paid in agricultural, mechanical, and manufacturing industry, together with the cost of subsistence and the expenditures of families of work-people in the several sections and States of the Union. An inquiry into the establishment and growth of the leading industries of the United States would enhance the value of this part of the work, but to treat this subject with the care and minuteness necessary to enlist the interest of readers already sufficiently familiar with its general outlines would require a separate volume, and would, moreover, be the repetition of a task which has already been accomplished by private enterprise.*

FARMS AND FARM-LABORERS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The following statement shows the acreage of improved and the total land in farms, and the number of persons engaged in agriculture, in the United States in the year 1870:

[Compiled from the United States Census.]

States and Territories.	Acreage of la	and in farms.	Number of persons en- gaged in agriculture.			
Sames and Territories.	Total.	Improved.	Males.	Females.		
Alabama	14, 961, 178	5, 062, 204	226, 768	64, 860		
Arizona	21, 807	14, 585	1, 284	i		
Arkansas	7, 597, 296	1, 859, 821	100, 669	8, 641		
California	11, 427, 105	6, 218, 133	47, 580	283		
Colorado	320, 346	95, 594	6, 462			
Connecticut	2, 364, 416	1, 646, 752	43, 523	130		
Dakota	302, 376	42.645	2, 522			
Delaware	1, 052, 322	698, 115	15, 907	66		
District of Columbia	11,677	8, 266	1, 350	15		
Florida	2, 373, 541	736, 172	36, 944	5, 548		
Georgia	23, 647, 941	6, 831, 856	262, 152	73, 993		
Idaho	77, 139	26, 603	1, 462			
Illinois	25, 882, 861	19, 329, 952	375, 407	1, 034		
Indiana	18, 119, 648	10, 104, 279	266, 349	428		
Iowa	15, 541, 793	9, 396, 467	209, 907	356		
Калеае	5, 656, 879	1, 971, 003	72, 918	310		
Kentucky	18, 660, 106	8, 103, 850	257, 426	3, 654		
Lonisiana	7, 025, 817	2, 045, 640	114, 530	26, 937		
Maine	5, 838, 058	2, 917, 793	81, 956	55		
Maryland	4, 512, 579	2, 914, 007	79, 197	1, 259		
Massachusetts	2, 730, 283	1, 736, 221	72, 756	54		
Michigan	10, 019, 142	5, 096, 939	187, 036	175		
Minnesota	6, 483, 828	2, 322, 102	74, 663	494		
Mississippi	13, 121, 113	4, 209, 146	193, 725	65, 474		
Missouri	21, 707, 220	9, 130, 615	262, 595	1, 373		
Mortana.	139, 537	84, 674	2 110	-,-,1		
Nebraska	2, 073, 781	647, 031	23, 083	3:2		
Novada	208, 510	92, 644	2,063	7		
New Hampshire	3, 605, 994	9, 334, 457	46, 562	1 11		
New Jersey	2, 989, 511	1, 976, 474	62, 943	185		
New Mexico	833, 549	143, 007	18, 432	236		
New York	22, 190, 810	15, 627, 206	373, 455	668		
North Carolina	19, 835, 410	5, 258, 742	241, 010	28, 228		
Ohio	21, 712, 420	14, 469, 133	396, 267	757		
Oregon	2, 389, 252	1, 116, 290	13, 232	16		
Pennaylvania	17, 994, 200	11, 515, 965	258, 772	1, 279		

^{*}See "History of American Manufactures from 1608 to 1866," by J. Leander Bishop, M. D., 3 vols., ectavo. Philadelphia: E. Young & Co.

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Farms and farm-laborers in the United States-Continued.

States and Territories.	Acreage of l	and in farms.	Number of gaged in ag	persons en- griculture.	
Suices and Territories.	Total.	Improved.	Males.	Females	
Rhode Island South Carolina Tennessee Texas Utah Vermont Virginia Washington West Virginia Wisconsin Wyoming	12, 105, 280 19, 581, 214 18, 396, 523 148, 361 4, 528, 804 18, 145, 911 649, 139 8, 528, 394	289 030 3, 010, 539 6, 843, 278 2, 964, 836 118, 755 3, 073, 257 8, 165, 040 192, 016 2, 580, 254 5, 899, 343	11, 767 147, 708 247, 953 152, 729 10, 417 57, 869 222, 089 3, 759 73, 725 158, 300 164	13 58, 946 19, 067 14, 031 11 94 16, 468 13 205 1, 387	
Total	407, 735, 041	188, 921, 099	5, 595, 503	396, 968	

Table showing the values of farms and of farm implements and machinery in the United States in the year 1870.

[Compiled from the United States Census.]

States and Territories.	Of farms.	Of farming im- plements and machinery.
Alabama	\$67, 739, 036	\$3, 986, 994
A rizona	161, 340	90, 105
Arkansas	40, 029, 698	2, 237, 409
Californ ia .	141, 240, 028	5, 316, 690
Colorado.	3, 385, 748	272, 604
Connecticut	124, 341, 382	3, 246, 599
Dakota	2, 085, 265	142,612
Delaware	46, 712, 570	1, 201, 644
District of Columbia	3, 800, 230	39, 450
Florida	9, 947, 920	505, 674
Georgia.	94, 559, 468	4, 614, 701
[daho	492, 86 0	59,995
Illinois	990, 506, 346	34, 576, 587
Indiana	634, 804, 189	17, 676, 391
lowa	392, 662, 441	90, 509, 588
Kansas	90, 327, 040	4, 053, 312
Kentucky	311, 938, 916	8, 572, 896
Lonisiana	. 68, 215, 421	7, 159, 333
Maine	102, 961, 951	4, 809, 113
Maryland	170, 369, 684	5, 968, 676
Massachusetts	116, 432, 784	5, 000, 879
Michigan	398, 240, 578	13, 711, 979
Minnesota	97, 847, 442	6, 721, 19
Mississippi	81, 716, 576	4, 456, 633
Missouri	392, 90×, 047	15, 596, 496
Montana	729, 193	145,438
Nebraska	30, 242, 136	1, 549, 716
Nevada	1, 485, 505	163, 718
New Hampshire	90, 589, 313	3, 459, 943
New Jersey	257, 523, 376	7, 867, 991
New Mexico	2, 260, 139	121, 114
New York	1, 272, 857, 766	45, 997, 718
North Carolina	78, 211, 083	25,692,787
Ohio	1, 054, 465, 226	1 293, 717
Oregon	92, 352, 989 1, 043, 481, 582	35, 638, 196
Peunsylvania Rhode Island	21, 574, 968	786, 946
	44, 808, 763	2 983 945
South Carolina Teunossee	218, 743, 747	8 199 457
Texas	60, 149, 950	3,396,795
Utah	2, 297, 922	291, 399
Vermont	139, 367, 075	5, 250, 279
Virginia .	213, 020, 845	4 924 036
Washington	3, 978, 341	280,553
West Virginia	101, 604, 381	2 112 957
Wisconsin	300, 414, 064	14, 239, 364
Wyoming	18, 187	5, 783
Total	9, 962, 800, 861	336, 878, 629

I.-FARM-LABOR.

Table showing the average wages paid for farm and other labor in the several States and sections in the respective years 1860, 1870, and 1874.

	Ex	perien	ced ha	nds in	summ	er.	E	xperie:	noed h	ands ii	n wint	er.
States.	Wi	ith boa	rd.	Wit	hout be	oard.	Wi	ith boa	rd.	Witl	hout be	oard.
	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.
Daily wages. NEW ENGLAND STATES. Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island Connecticut MIDDLE STATES.	\$1 07 1 04 94 1 06 75 1 13	\$1 59 1 63 1 50 1 49 1 00 1 50	\$1 75 1 44 1 50	1 13	2 00	\$2 25 2 12 1 87	73 42	\$1 25 1 06 1 12 1 09 75 1 25	1 06	\$1 09 1 06 1 00 1 05 75	1 67 1 53	1 69 1 50
New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware Maryland West Virginia	89 79 84 75 38 77	1 42 1 63 1 35 1 50 93 1 06	1 48 1 65 1 13 1 00	1 21 1 16 1 22 63 95	1 87 2 14 1 83 2 00 1 32 1 42	2 00 2 00 1 57 1 25	67 54 62 50 25 61	1 06 1 00 1 00 1 00 67 76	96 1 00 84 75	90 85 94 50 86	1 49 1 46 1 56 1 50 1 03 1 10	1 4: 1 2: 1 0:
WESTERN STATES. Ohio Indiana Illinois Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Kansas Nebraska Missouri Kentucky	89 96 1 02 93 1 27 1 42 1 06 1 25 1 00 81	1 23 1 23 1 31 1 30 1 40 1 60 1 49 1 33 1 63 1 14	1 03 1 13 1 33 1 25 1 00 78	1 16 1 26 1 32 1 22 1 66 1 73 1 34 1 75 1 38 1 12 1 08	1 66 1 50 1 83 1 79 1 81 2 50 1 97 1 96 2 25 1 52 1 45	1 48 1 47 1 68 3 75 1 50	65 71 75 70 83 88 70 1 15 75 69 60	85 89 94 98 94 1 17 1 03 1 04 1 13 84 81	90 86 97 1 25 75 78	92 99 1 00 1 05 1 20 1 14 1 00 2 37 1 25 99	1 75 1 77	1 1 1 3 1 7
Virginia North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Florida Alnbama Mississippi Louisiana Texas Arkansas PACIFIC STATES.	60 60 53 55 63 60 1 00 66 75 74	85 68 62 78 75 95 1 03 90 1 07 1 00	75 75 75 87	1 02 63 73 81 88 75 1 25 1 00 1 03	1 23 93 94 1 07 1 00 1 09 1 45 1 39 1 21 1 54 1 37	80 1 25 1 25 1 00 1 00 1 05 1 25	47 36 40 50 55 52 1 00 58 63 55	63 50 64 63 73 94 75 86 73	47 75 75 75 50 50	69 52 60 71 80 60 1 25 81 92 75	93 77 75 90 75 94 1 15 1 34 1 07 1 18	7: 1 0: 1 0: 1 0:
California Nevada Oregen	2 07 3 50 2 14	2 11 9 33 1 75	1 50 9 50 1 00	9 50 5 60 9 50	2 69 3 00 2 25	2 50 3 50 1 60	1 39 3 50 1 51	1 50 1 67 1 25	1 00 2 50 1 25	2 13 5 60 1 94	2 06 2 33 1 62	2 5 3 5 2 0
TERRITORIES. Washington Colorado Dakota Idaho Arizona Montana	3 12 2 17 1 50	2 50 2 11 2 57 2 83 2 50 5 00 1 00	2 25 1 00 1 50	4 12 2 83 2 00	3 00 2 86 3 18 3 25 3 08 6 00 1 50	1 25 2 12 2 50	2 25 1 50 1 25	1 38 1 42 1 46 1 50 1 92 3 00 75	1 50 75 1 12	3 00 2 00 1 50	2 12 2 13 2 15 2 00 2 41 4 00 1 25	1 00 1 22 1 50
AVERAGES. New England States Middle States Western States Southern States	1 00 74 1 03 67	1 45 1 32 1 34 86	1 48 1 96 1 15 81	1 28 1 03 1 37 91	1 96 1 76 1 84 1 20	1 93 1 66 1 55 1 09	70 53 77 56	1 09 9-2 97 69	1 03 86 93 69	99 81 1 17 77	1 55 1 36 1 40 98	1 53 1 20 1 33 85
General average Pacific States	86 2 57	2 06	1 17	1 15 3 53	1 69 2 65	1 56 2 53	64 2 13	92	88 1 5d	94	1 32	1 20
Territories	1 89 2 23	2 64	1 44	2 52 3 03	3 27 2 96	1 95 •2 19	1 38	1 63	1 09	1 88 2 55	2 29	1 25

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Table showing the average wages paid for farm and other labor, &c.-Continued.

	Ra	perien	ced ha	nds in	summ	er.	E	xperie	noed h	ands i	n wint	er.
States.	W	th boa	rd.	Wit	hout b	oard.	W	ith boa	rd.	Wit	hout b	oard.
	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1960.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.
Monthly wages. NEW ENGLAND STATES.			·									
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island Connecticut	16 28 17 28 20 05 14 00	23 50 28 00 29 36	24 25 29 00 24 33	24 00 25 83 31 30 24 00		•••••	12 50 13 86 16 22 10 00	18 25 21 25 22 60	28 50 20 00 20 00	18 33 21 50 27 00 20 00		
MIDDLE STATES. New York	14 00 15 28	24 67 25 40 20 00 14 43	20 50 22 32 15 00	22 00 24 03 8 00		l. .	10 00 4 00	15 83 17 75 19 00	10 67 16 83 7 00	15 00 17 30 6 00		
Ohio Indiana Illinois Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Kansas Nebraska Missouri Kentucky	16 64 15 00 19 97 17 55 16 09 17 60 15 00 14 57	23 33 24 53 23 29 25 02 29 11 24 88 23 33	21 69 22 50 24 00 25 00 20 00 20 00	24 20 24 05 23 26 28 03 29 00			11 87 15 48 11 31	16 51 18 14 18 75 17 68 20 11 18 39 20 83 20 00 18 90	17 00 95 00 18 00 14 00 90 00	19 35 18 56 20 00 94 28 92 14		
SOUTHERN STATES. Virginia North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Florida Alabama Mississippi Louisiana Texas Arkansas Tennessee	9 00 9 28 11 43 12 42 13 00 11 00 13 00 15 00	11 67 14 50 14 00 16 00 18 58 20 66 18 50	19 00 12 00 12 00 13 50 12 00 19 00 16 66	13 50 13 14 16 00 17 50 19 00 17 33			9 04 8 00 8 57 9 36 11 00 11 66 11 00 10 66 12 33 10 50	9 80 10 30 11 44 14 00 14 50 14 50 16 94 15 40 16 20	5 00 12 00 13 50	11 75 15 40 20 00 17 33 19 33 17 20		
PACIFIC STATES. California Nevada Oregon TERRITORIES,	40 56 78 33 45 83	53 33		55 63 101 25 70 00			31 67 70 00 35 71	40 00		48 33 100 00 ,56 67		60 80
Washington Colorado Dakota Idaho Arizona Montana New Mexico	67 50 30 00 25 00 90 00	39 75 40 00 70 00	20 00	52 50 35 00 150 00			45 00 91 50 90 00	28 57	15 00	25 00 25 00		
AVERAGES. New England States Middle States Western States Southern States	17 10 13 06 16 26 11 97	21 77 24 07	27 09 20 60 22 12 13 45	23 99			19 97 9 01 12 58 10 21	19 85 15 32 18 63 13 35	13 35	14 70		
General average	14 60	22 10		21 89			11 19					
Pacific States Territories	54 91 45 50	43 92 50 82		75 63 73 00			45 79 98 83	34 88 31 10		68 33 45 00		
Average	50 21	47 37	36 25	74 32			37 31	32 99	96 75	56 67		

Table showing the average wages paid for farm and other labor, &c.—Continued

	(rdinar	y han	ds in s	ummer.			Ordina	ry har	ds in	winter	
States.	W	th boa	rd.	Wit	hout bo	ard.	Wi	ith boa	rd.	Wit	hout b	oard.
	1860.	1870.	1874.	1960.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.
· Daily wages.												
Name New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island Connecticut	\$0 94 88 75 79 50 1 00	1 31 1 14 1 15 83	\$1 25 1 00 87	1 01 1 13 83	1 75 1 50 1 58	\$1 69 1 62 1 50	\$0 63 63 57 67 40 75	\$0 94 94 88 92 67 1 17	\$0 87 87 1 00		\$1 21 1 25 1 25 1 26 1 17 1 50	1 37 1 17
MIDDLE STATES.				1		•						
New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware Maryland West Virginia	68 73 63 50 38 52	75 73	1 18 1 13 89 88 64	1 09 95 62	1 72 1 47 1 25 1 04	1 71 1 58 1 25 1 00	25	81 90 76 50 55 56	82 50 72 75 43	 50	1 19 1 37 1 17 1 00 82 90	
Western States.												
Ohio Indiana Illinois Michigan Wisconsin Minesota Iowa Kanas Nebraska Missouri Kentucky	68 71 78 73 1 01 1 10 76 1 08 1 00 67 64	98 94 1 00 1 04 1 39 1 09 1 04 1 25 82 84	892 84 1 06 1 00 75 70	96 1 06 1 02 • 1 41 1 38 1 01 1 50 1 25	1 32 1 43 1 45 1 40 1 86 1 52 1 50 1 88 1 14	1 07 1 23 1 43 1 40	55 57 58 55 81 62 57 95 75 56 48	70 70 73 74 73 1 03 76 84 1 00 65 64	67 64 81 50 70	81 84 87 94 1 13 1 07 87 1 50 1 00 86 75	1 50 90	1 01 89 1 20 75
SOUTHERN STATES.												
Virginia North Carolina Sonth Carolina Georgia Florida Alabama Mississippi Louisiana Texas Arkansas Teunessee PACIFIC STATES.	52 33 34 47 48 54 55 51	63 48 53 68 75 79 69 84 72	75 75 50 75 50	47 58 68 70 81	70 . 78 81 75 88 1 20 1 11 1 00	76 1 50 73 1 25 75	40 28 31 38 43 38 49 45 46	50 41 48 43 59 66 61 62 50	50 50 75 50		77 59 70 60 45 73 97 1 00 91 94 74	75 75 1 35 75
California	2 00 3 00 1 61	1 52 1 83 1 25	1 00 1 50 1 00	4 00	2 67	2 00 2 50 1 6	1 31 3 00 1 36	1 22 1 59 94	75 1 50 1 25	4 00	1 70 9 17 1 45	2 50
Territories.							0.00	,				
Washington Colorado Dakota Idaho Arisona Montana New Mexico	2 25 1 75 1 25	1 88 1 68 1 94 2 00 1 75 4 00 75	1 25		2 46 2 75 2 25 2 33 5 00	1 75	2 00 1 25 1 00	1 00 1 25 2 00 1 50 1 33 2 50 50	75 75		1 50 1 82 2 75 2 60 1 92 3 25 1 00	1 00
AVERAGES.												
New England States Middle States Western States Southern States	81 57 83 47	1 20 95 1 03 67	1 02 95 88 63	88 1 12	1 36 1 45	1 58 1 30	61 43 64 40	92 68 77 53	91 64 65 54	86 70 97 59	1 27 1 08 1 15 76	99
General average	67	96	67	94	1 35		52	73	68	78	1 00	1 01
Pacific States	2 20 1 46	1 53 2 00	1 17 1 25	2 68 2 00			1 89 1 19		1 17	2 42 1 78		2 17 2 19
A. verage	1 83	1 77	1 21	2 34	2 43		1 54	1 35	96	2 10	1 90	2 14

Table showing the average wages paid for farm and other labor, &c.-Continued.

	(ordinar	y han	de in s	ummei	:.		Ordina	ry ha	nd s in v	winter	•
States.	w	ith boa	rd.	With	hout b	oard.	W	ith boa	rd.	Witt	hout b	oard.
	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.
Monthly wages. NEW ENGLAND STATES.												
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island Connecticut	13 34 13 66 17 28 12 00	19 00 23 00 24 10 18 00	18 75 18 00 22 50	22 00 22 67 28 57 20 00			9 00 10 50 11 00 8 00	12 66 17 00 18 60 18 00	19 67 16 50 12 50	14 50 17 00 21 57 18 00		
MIDDLE STATES.												
New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware Maryland West Virginia	10 0a 5 00	19 88 19 33 18 57 15 00 11 71 16 00	10 00	8 00			7 00 4 00	12 60 14 60 9 00 9 21	10 00 13 24	15 31 13 84 14 93 6 00 13 45		
WESTERN STATES.												
Ohio Indiana Illinois Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Kansas Nebraska Missouri Kentucky	15 00 11 84	20 25 17 00		20 00 15 25			10 43 11 14 10 02 10 23 12 94 9 00 11 06 11 50 15 00 10 20 9 89	16 00 14 45	13 44	15 69 16 48 15 70 17 62 21 63 20 14 19 00 20 00 13 50 13 83		
SOUTHERN STATES.												
Virginia North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Florida Alabama Mississippi Louisiana Texas Arkansas Tennessee PACIFIC STATES.	7 00 6 67 9 50 11 00 9 66 10 66 11 00	9 10 10 67 11 89 10 00 11 64 14 67 15 25 14 60	12 00 15 00 10 0.) 11 00 10 00 15 00 12 00	13 20 19 00 14 00 17 66 17 80			6 50 5 83 7 40 8 40 10 00 10 33 9 33 8 66	9 75 10 00 9 21 10 83 12 56	20 00 10 00 11 00 15 00 12 00	9 50 11 33 11 60 90 00		
California. Nevala. Oregon TERRITORIES.	70 00	40 00		43 33 100 00 51 00			26 87 60 00 32 00	26 61 30 00 23 25		38 00 87 50 45 00	. 	
Washington Colorado Dakota (daho Arizona Montana New Mexico. AVERAGES.	50 00 30 00 20 00	37 50 33 00 30 00 55 00 41 67 57 50 25 00	40 00 32 50 40 00 30 00	62 50 55 00 38 00			15 00 15 00	25 00 22 75 25 00 35 00 25 00 25 00 20 00	30 00 30 00 10 00	27 50 22 50	••••	
New England States Middle States Western States Southern States	13 79 9 71 13 12 9 23	20 68 16 75 18 33 12 43	18 60 16 93 17 53 11 58	93 12 15 77 19 97 14 15	••••		7 3H 11 04	16 38 12 45 14 48 10 04	12 20 13 37	18 36 12 71 17 60 12 89		
General average	11 46	17 05	16 16	18 25			9 07	13 34	13 17	15 39		 ==
Pacific States Territories	45 82 33 33	32 93 39 95	40 00 35 62	64 78 51 83				26 62 25 39		56 83 25 00		
Average	39 5 8	36 44	37 81	58 31			27 31	26 00	41 5€	40 92	۰۰۰۰۰۰	·····•

Table showing the average wages paid for farm and other labor, &c.—Continued.

	Com	mon lab	orers at e	other tha	n ferm-	work.	Fem	ale serva	nts.
States.	w	ith boar	d.	Wit	thout bo	ard.	w	ith board	I.
	1860.	1870.	1874.	1880.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.
Daily wages.									
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island Connecticut	\$0 80 88 80 80 50 1 00	\$1 19 1 31 1 19 1 15 1 00 1 67	\$1 37 1 25 1 25 1 25	\$1 14 1 12 1 08 1 15 83	\$1 54 1 81 1 44 1 60 1 50 2 17	\$1 50 i 87 1 50 1 67	\$0 38 38 32 41 25		\$0 50 46 50
MIDDLE STATES.									
New York New Jersey. Pennsylvania Delaware Maryland West Virginia	88 75 79 50 38 72	1 28 1 20 1 16 1 00 75 95	1 19 1 17 99 1 00	1 21 1 07 1 19 50 98	1 67 1 64 1 65 1 56 1 08 1 27	1 53 1 44 1 40	36 31 38 24		69 75 56 50 31
WESTERN STATES.									
Ohio Indiana Illinois Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Ksusas Nebraska Missouri Kentucky	79 81 87 89 80 80 84 1 19 1 25 73	1 08 1 16 1 14 1 08 1 09 1 34 1 23 1 38 1 50 98 1 04	97 84 1 13 1 50	1 08 1 06 1 19 1 20 1 19 1 05 1 13 1 75 1 62 1 03	1 49 1 56 1 60 1 57 1 54 1 75 1 69 1 87 2 13 1 48 1 39	1 29 1 25 1 59 1 75 1 25	34 26 37 36 32 33 35 60 60 29 38		45 40 49 50 28
SOUTHERN STATES.									
Virginia North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Florida Alabama Mississippi Lonisians Texas Arkansas Tennessee	58 44 53 67 63 50 63 75 61	72 60 80 81 91 95 1 25 93 1 01 80	67 80 50 50 62	75 67 78 88 84 75 94 1 00 83	1 01 82 1 01 1 09 70 1 21 1 45 1 70 1 27 1 39 1 15	90 1 00 75 75 1 62	28 16 29 31 32 37 40 37 32 20		229 25 50
PACIFIC STATES.									
California Nevada Oregon	1 66 3 50 1 71	1 78 2 18 1 50	1 00 1 50 1 00	1 96 4 12 2 12	2 31 3 00 2 12	2 50 2 50 2 00	1 19 4 00 1 15		1 00
TERRITORIES. Washington	2 00 2 50	1 88 1 82 2 21 2 50 2 25 5 00 1 00	1 00 1 25 75	2 50 3 50	2 50 2 50 3 00 3 50 3 25 6 00 1 50	1 50 1 25 1 25	1 50 9:75 50		1 00
AVERAGES.									
New England States Middle States Western States Southern States	80 67 88 59	1 25 1 06 1 18 88	1 22 1 05 1 07 62	1 06 99 1 21 82	1 69 1 48 1 64 1 16	1 61 1 47 1 44 92	35 34 38 39		49 56 44 35
General average	74	1 09	99	1 02	1 49	1 36	34		46
Pacific States	2 29 1 67	1 82 2 38	1 17 1 00	2 73 2 33	2 48 3 18	2 33 1 33	2 11 1 25		1 00
TOITIOI108					2 83	1 83	1 68		81

Table showing the average wages paid for farm and other labor, &c.—Continued.

	Con	mon lab	orers at	other the	un farm-	work.	Fem	ale sorva	n te .
Stateș.	V	7ith boas	rd.	Wi	thout bo	ard.	w	ith board	ı.
	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.
Monthly wages.									
NEW ENGLAND STATES.									1
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island Connecticut	\$15 63 10 00 14 40 19 11 12 00 16 00	\$19 11 17 00 22 50 26 50 20 00 23 33	\$25 00 20 00 15 00	\$20 69 16 00 21 00 29 57 24 00	I	\$ 35 00	\$8 50 7 33 6 00 6 56 6 00 6 00	10 50 10 20 12 00	\$11 00 12 00 10 25 13 39 8 00
MIDDLE STATES.			!				l		
New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware Maryland West Virginia	12 00	20 10 18 80 20 07 16 00 11 50 20 67	25 33 11 00 19 28 10 00	21 78 19 50 20 56 7 00 20 54			1 4 00	9 55 8 83 7 88 8 00 7 83 € 36	10 60 10 40 8 40 4 09
WESTERN STATES.							İ		1
Obio Indiana Illinois Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Kansas Nebraska Missouri Kentucky	14 62 12 90 13 82 16 46	18 00 21 38 22 45 20 28 20 42 22 89 21 10 23 20 21 50 21 80 19 27	18 80 17 00 24 25	18 86 20 17 21 37 22 25 24 59 22 67 21 25 31 67 25 00 18 00 19 96			5 39 6 12 6 60 6 06 6 17 5 97 7 60 13 00 4 67 6 10	9 11 9 45	7 93 8 55 10 1s 12 00 9 00
SOUTHERN STATES.									
Virginia. North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Florida Alabama Mississippi Louisiana Fexas Arkansas Fenessee PACIFIC STATES.	10 33 13 33 14 17 13 00	11 98 11 70 12 00 14 14 16 00 16 85 17 00 16 20 17 70 15 26	9 00 10 00 22 50	15 39 12 00 14 17 19 33 18 67 19 00 22 25 17 00 18 40 15 13			4 04 3 60 5 28 5 50 7 00 8 00 7 00 8 00 8 00 4 80	5 48 5 00 7 40 6 95 7 00 8 31 10 43 10 05 9 86 6 69	4 80 7 00 8 00 7 00 7 50 5 00 14 01 14 80
California	42 86	34 81		47 50			27 08	27 89	
Novada/)regon	73 33 36 33	40 00 30 00	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	100 00 60 00	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	60 00	52 50 30 00	33 33 22 75	30 00
TERRITORIES. Washington Colorado Dakota. Idaho Arizona Montana New Mexico	34 00 25 00	35 00 36 43 40 00 73 33 60 00 70 00 25 00	97 50 50 00 16 00	51 00 35 00			30 00 32 14 18 00	22 00 25 05 20 00 40 00 40 00 50 00 10 00	10 60 30 00 6 00
averages.									
New England States. Middle States. Western States. Southern States.	14 59 10 03 15 41 11 65	21 41 17 86 21 12 15 32	20 00 15 92 20 02 12 06	22 24 17 88 22 34 17 13			6 73 4 17 6 68 6 19	10 87 8 08 9 43 7 79	10'80 8 06 9 38 8 48
General average	12 90	• 18 92	17 00	19 90			5 93	9 04	9 16
Pacific States	50 84 23 67	34 94 48 54	31 16	69 16 34 67			36 53 92 04	27 99 29 58	30 00 21 50
Average	37 26	41 74	31 16	51 92			29 29	98 78	25 75
						·			

II.-MECHANICAL LABOR.

Table showing the average daily wages, without board, paid in the several States and sections to persons employed in the under-mentioned trades in the respective years 1860, 1870, and 1874.

													1		
Santan	Bla	cksm	ithe.		klaye meon		Cabi	net-m	akers	C	ooper	8.	Co	rpent	ers.
States.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.
NEW ENGLAND STATES.														_	
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island Connecticut	1 5	2 50	\$2 37 3 44 2 Pr 2 83	1 75	3 00		\$1 88 1 63 2 19 2 00 2 00 2 00 1 75	3 25	. 3 10	1 50	2 50	\$2 19 2 67 2 75 2 37	1 50	2 50	1 3 02
MIDDLE STATES.	١. ۵			0.00		• •						١		١	
New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware Maryland West Virginia WESTERN STATES.	1 4: 1 4: 1 5: 1 5: 1 6:	3 2 60 2 43 2 50 2 21 2 24	2 50	1 58 1 82 2 00 1 5	2 80 3 00 4 00 3 50	3 34 2 89 3 50 4 00	1 32 1 32 1 50 2 50	2 38 2 19 2 50 2 40	2 65 2 91 3 00 3 00	1 34 1 31 (*) 1 50	2 35 2 59 2 50 2 25	3 00 2 22 2 00 3 00	1 60 1 59 1 50 1 50	2 08	2 75 2 37 2 75 2 50
	1 7	2 48	2 30								2 30				
Obio Indiana Illinois Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Lowa Kansas Nebraska Missouri Kentucky	2 05 2 16 2 25 1 96	2 2 79 0 2 78 9 2 71 0 3 03	2 00 2 81 2 50 3 00 2 50	2 60 2 73 2 41 2 54 2 41 2 47 3 17 3 50 2 71	3 61 3 50 3 48 3 26 3 69 3 63 3 92 4 25 3 70	3 25 3 69 3 00 3 50 4 00	1 84 1 97 1 8: 2 01 1 06 2 10 3 00 2 50	2 55 2 60 2 67 2 55 2 47 2 60 3 18 3 75 2 66	2 62 2 83 2 00 2 50 2 50 2 50	1 62 2 00 1 70 2 03 1 86 1 95 2 88	2 41 2 44 2 48 2 36 2 66 2 61 3 37 3 62 2 61	2 25 2 75 2 50 2 00 3 00	1 83 2 03 1 90 2 13 1 89 2 01 2 75 2 50 2 05	2 83 2 82 2 77 2 72 2 92 2 96 3 10 3 88 2 85	2 33 2 87 2 50 2 50 3 00
SOUTHERN STATES.	١														
Virginia. Nerth Carolina. South Carolina. Georgia Florida. Alabama Louisiana Texas Mississippi Arkansas Tennessee	1 56 1 86 1 83 2 76 2 66 2 66	2 24 7 2 25 2 71 2 25 2 25 2 25 3 30 3 30 3 31 3 21	2 50 3 00 4 00 3 00 3 00 3 50	1 83 1 71 2 58 2 25 2 60 3 33 2 94 2 83	2 41 2 90 3 00 2 25 3 09 3 52 3 96 3 55	3 00 2 50 2 50 3 50 3 75 3 00 4 50	1 50 2 17 2 08 2 83 2 12 3 50 2 25 2 71	2 06 2 57 2 58 2 25 2 80 2 72 2 71 3 25 3 03	2 50 2 75 2 50 2 50 3 00	1 00 1 56 1 44 2 50 2 50 2 50 2 25	1 75 2 18 2 43 2 00 2 72 3 00 3 58 3 00	3 00 3 00 3 00	1 50 1 90 2 13 2 25 2 70 2 25 2 12 2 41	2 29 2 60 2 88 2 50 3 00 3 75 3 14 3 43 3 25	2 75 2 50 2 75 2 75 2 25 2 50 2 50 3 00
PACIFIC STATES.			l				l		l					ł	l
California Nevada Oregon		5 50	6 00	4 96 6 80 5 42	5 87	6 00	6 83	5 87	 .	4 12	5 84		3 95 7 00 4 50	5 75	6 00
TERRITORIES.											١			J	
Washington Colorado Dakota Idaho Arizona Montana New Mexico		6 00	3 50 3 75 4 00	• • • • •	6 06 5 00 9 00	3 50 5 50 5 00		5 13 6 00 6 00 7 00	3 00 5 50 4 00	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	5 33 3 50 5 00 5 50 6 00		4 38 3 25	5 05 3 75 6 00 6 50 7 50	2 50 5 00 5 00
AVERAGES.															
New England States Middle States Western States Southern States	1 85 1 55 2 13 2 15	2 49	2 65 2 66	1 83	3 33 3 66	3 32 3 37	1 68	2 45 2 75	2 82 2 56	1 46 1 95	2 59 2 69	2 43 2 50	1 61 2 10	2 59 2 98	2 59 2 79
General average	1 99	2 72	2 79	2 30	3 40	3 33	2 00	2 67	2 78	1 82	2 67	2 51	1 92	2 82	2 69
Pacific States (gold) Territories (gold)	5 17 4 63			5 73 5 19	5 16 6 65	5 50 4 60		4 54 5 44				4 00 3 00			
- 4					5 96	5 05	4 74		3 57	4 03		3 50			

^{*} Piecework.

Table showing the average daily wages paid, &c.-Continued.

	I	Painter	8.	P	lastere	T8.	Sh	oemak	e rs.	8ta	Do-cuti	iora.
States.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.
NEW ENGLAND STATES.												
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Islaud Connecticut	\$1 92 1 75 2 04 1 94 1 50 1 67	\$2 69 3 00 3 00 2 84 2 75 2 92	\$2 50 2 75 2 62 2 63	\$2 27 2 00 2 65 2 42 .1 75 1 92	\$3 28 3 25 3 63 3 84 3 00 3 42	\$3 50 3 69 3 00 3 33	\$1 70 1 84 1 44 1 72 1 37	\$2 46 2 56 2 31 2 69 2 25 2 25	\$2 50 2 50 2 50 2 25 	\$2 32 2 12 2 25 2 50 2 00 2 13	\$3 41 3 18 3 31 4 05 3 50 3 63	\$3.50 3.75 3.00 3.94
MIDDLE STATES.												
New York	1 77 1 75 1 85 1 50 1 50 1 84	3 01 2 65 2 52 2 50 2 50 2 70	2 63 2 92 2 42 3 00 3 00 2 40	2 11 1 84 1 76 2 00 2 00 2 08	3 72 2 90 3 15 2 50 3 58 3 15	3 07 3 17 2 74 3 75 3 25 2 58	1 52 1 83 1 35 (*) 9 00 1 57	2 30 2 30 2 64 (*) 2 20 2 25	9 36 1 96 1 78 9 00 2 50 2 69	2 17 1 92 2 01 1 50 2 00 2 18	3 87 3 00 3 24 4 50 2 75 3 11	3 11 3 00 2 20 2 00 3 50 3 50
WESTERN STATES.						ļ			1			
Obio Indiana Illinois Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Kansas Nebraska Missouri Kentucky	1 96 2 02 1 90 2 08 1 96 1 93 2 55 2 50 2 46	2 71 2 78 2 77 2 68 2 71 2 92 2 78 3 21 4 00 3 03 2 96	2 29 2 37 2 56 3 75 3 00 2 50 3 00 3 90	2 08 2 33 2 49 2 30 2 49 2 33 2 47 2 69 4 00 2 71 2 37	3 57 3 35 3 38 3 40 3 17 3 50 3 37 4 13 3 95 3 70 3 53	2 64 3 00 3 38 4 00 3 00 3 50 3 10	1 59 1 64 1 98 1 54 2 13 1 86 1 85 2 12 3 00 2 00 1 96	2 30 2 27 2 34 2 43 2 26 2 66 2 46 2 98 3 43 2 64 2 56	2 08 2 25 2 31 1 25 2 50 1 50 2 50 2 50	2 28 2 25 2 40 2 25 2 75 2 43 2 36 3 25 4 00 2 92 2 65	3 25 3 17 3 51 3 13 3 19 3 79 3 53 4 08 3 63 3 72 3 59	3 96 3 5 4 9 3 0 3 0 3 0
SOUTHERN STATES.								i		l		l
Virginia North Carelina South Carolina. Georgia Florida Alabama Louisiana Texas Mississippi Arkansas Tennessee	1 80 1 50 1 85 2 13 2 50 2 50 2 50 2 00 2 42 2 36	2 40 9 34 9 40 9 75 2 25 3 09 3 36 3 05 3 32 3 11 2 86	1 63 3 00 2 50 2 75 2 50 2 50 2 50 3 00 2 83	1 71 1 67 1 90 1 94 2 67 2 50 2 87 3 50 2 67 2 32	2 82 2 46 2 70 3 06 2 00 3 42 3 77 3 18 4 11 3 32 3 32	2 00 3 00 2 50 9 50 3 00 3 50 3 00 3 00 3 16	1 44 1 06 1 88 1 75 2 00 1 90 2 33 1 50 2 08 2 20	1 86 1 69 2 00 2 36 2 00 2 65 2 81 2 67 3 00 2 97 2 45	1 58 3 00 2 50 2 50 2 50 2 90 2 00 2 33	2 00 1 58 2 67 2 18 3 50 3 50 3 17 1 50 2 42 2 53	9 94 2 67 2 75 3 50 2 00 4 00 4 00 4 25 3 40 3 44 3 27	3 3 5 3 5 3 5 6 3 7 5 6 6 3 7 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6
PACIFIC STATES.		4 07	4 00	4 75	4 72	5 00	3 88	3 82	ļ	4 95	4 68	5.0
California	7 80 4 34	5 80 4 10	5 00 4 50	7 80 5 60	6 83 5 00	6 00 5 00	5 88 3 95	4 75 3 50	4 00 3 50	7 00 5 40	6 04 5 00	56
Washington Colorado Dakota Idaho Arizona Montana New Mexico		5 50 5 15 4 50 9 00 6 75 7 50 4 00	5 00 3 00 5 00 4 00 3 50	6 00 5 87 3 00 4 00	6 00 6 43 7 50 11 00 8 50 9 00 4 00	5 00 3 50 6 00 5 00 3 00	5 00 4 00 3 50	4 00 4 83 3 25 6 00 5 67 7 00 4 00	3 00 4 95 4 00 9 50	6 00 5 87	11 00 8 50 9 00	5 0 5 0 9 0 3 0
AVERAGES.												
New England States Middle States Western States Southern States	1 70 2 13	2 87 2 65 2 96 2 81	2 67 2 73 2 67 2 59	2 17 1 97 2 57 2 37	3 40 3 17 3 55 3 11	3 38 3 09 3 23 2 85	1 61 1 65 1 97 1 81	2 42 2 34 2 58 2 41	2 44 2 20 2 11 2 27	9 22 1 96 9 69 9 51	3 51 3 41 3 50 3 29	3 5 2 8 3 9 3 3
General average	1 95	2 82	2 66	2 27	3 31	3 14	1 76	2 44	2 25	2 35	3 43	3 2
Pacific States (gold) Territories (gold)	5 40 3 97	4 66 6 06	4 50 4 00	6 05 4 72	5 52 7 49	5 33 4 50	4 57 4 17	4 09 4 96	3 75 3 44	5 78 5 29	5 24 6 96	5 % 5 %
Average	4 69	5 36	4 25	5 39	6 51	4 91	4 37	4 49	3 59	5 54	6 10	5 2

^{*}Piecework.

LABOR IN THE UNITED STATES.

Table showing the average daily wages paid, &c.—Continued.

•		Tailora	.	7	Canner	8.	T	insmit	hs.	Wb	oolwri;	gh ta.
States.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.	1860.	1870.	1874.
NEW ENGLAND STATES.												
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island Connecticut	\$1 86 1 75 1 65 1 80 2 00 1 37	\$2 64 2 67 2 31 2 48 3 00 2 45	\$3 50 3 75 2 50 2 37	\$2 09 1 80 1 70 1 94 1 50 2 00	\$2 64 2 81 2 62 2 75 2 75 2 75 2 75	\$2 50 3 25 2 75 2 38	\$1 82 1 50 1 88 1 85 1 75 1 67	\$2 50 2 83 2 75 2 56 3 00 2 83	\$2 25 3 19 2 88 3 05	\$1 80 1 75 1 83 2 01 2 00 1 50	\$2 75 2 67 2 82 3 01 3 00 3 00	\$2 50 3 15 3 00 2 3
MIDDLE STATES.						l						
New York New Jersey Ponnsylvania Delaware Maryland West Virginia	1 66 4 92 1 34 (*)	2 47 2 55 2 07 (*) 2 25 2 20	2 26 2 25 2 14 2 50 1 75 2 72	1 71 1 59 1 40 1 50 2 00 1 50	2 74 2 55 2 08 2 00 2 60 2 10	2 22 2 08 2 05 2 00 1 50 2 44	1 74 1 33 1 37 2 00 1 75	2 78 2 25 3 17 2 50 2 25 2 48	2 52 2 50 2 15 2 50 2 25 2 38	1 90 1 35 1 59 2 00 1 86	2 95 2 30 2 27 2 50 2 54 2 64	2 9: 2 3: 1 9: 2 5: 2 5: 2 7:
WESTERN STATES.						ļ						
Ohio	1 59 1 76 1 80 1 69 2 30 1 64 1 95 3 25 2 75 2 10 2 13	2 28 2 32 2 30 2 35 2 35 2 45 2 60 3 23 3 35 2 64 2 64	2 30 1 92 2 33 1 50 2 50 1 75 2 50 2 95	1 74 1 61 1 93 1 79 2 36 1 93 2 00 2 50 2 00 1 83	2 45 2 35 2 50 2 55 2 61 2 85 2 80 3 15 3 50 2 83 2 40	2 16 2 09 2 50 2 00 2 00 2 00 2 75	1 72 1 90 2 01 1 79 2 24 1 54 1 86 2 17 2 87 2 17 2 00	2 42 2 47 2 64 2 59 2 50 2 81 2 70 3 10 3 50 2 61 2 67	2 00 2 17 2 25 2 50 2 50 2 00 2 75 2 23	1 96 1 96 2 25 2 08 2 23 1 78 2 51 2 50 2 88 2 35 2 15	3 29 2 78 3 04 3 06 2 66 3 11 2 84 3 56 3 88 2 97 2 81	2 36 2 21 3 75 2 00 2 50
SOUTHERN STATES.												
Virginia North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Flortla Alabama Louislana Texna Mississippi Arkansa Tennessee	2 10	2 09 1 94 2 17 2 46 1 75 2 62 2 84 2 67 2 83 2 89 2 54	2 00 3 00 2 50 3 50 2 00 3 00 3 22	1 67 1 17 2 38 8 50 2 50 2 50 3 12 1 50 1 90 1 75	1 93 2 04 2 56 2 75 1 75 2 71 3 08 2 79 3 17 3 25 2 33	2 50 2 50	1 66 2 00 1 65 2 27 2 50 2 38 2 50 1 80 2 17 1 75	2 30 2 17 2 18 2 43 1 75 2 90 2 87 2 94 3 19 3 14 2 73	1 75 2 75 2 50 2 50 2 50 2 75 4 00 2 63	1 61 1 53 2 15 2 23 2 42 2 50 1 75 3 00 2 17 1 85	2 34 2 45 2 50 2 93 2 37 2 83 3 42 2 83 3 61 3 25 3 06	2 20 2 50 2 00 2 75 2 50 2 50
PACIFIC STATES. California	1	3 88		4 00	3 97	ļ. .	4 04	4 00	3 00	4 75	4 19	
Nevada Oregon	6 00 3 80	4 34 3 50	3 0) 3 50	5 60 4 10	3 31	4 00	6 00 4 25	5 3 3 3 61	5 00 4 50	8 75 4 67	6 00 4 00	7 00 5 00
TERRITORIES. Washington Colorado Dakota Idaho Arizona Montana New Maxico	4 00	4 25 4 69 3 00 8 (0 6 00 8 00 4 00	3 00 3 00 3 00 4 00 3 50	3 00	5 00 6 00 8 00 7 00 4 00		4 50	7 33	2 50 3 00 4 25 5 50 3 25	6 00 5 0)	7 00 6 75 8 00	5 00 5 50 5 00 3 00
AVERAGES.												
New England States Middle States Western States Southern States	1 74 1 59 2 09 1 84	2 60 2 31 2 C0 2 43	3 03 2 27 2 22 2 75	1 84 1 62 1 97 2 06	2 72 2 35 2 73 2 59	2 72 2 05 2 25 2 25	1 75 1 64 2 03 2 07		2 84 2 31 2 3) 2 67	1 89 1 74 2 24 2 14	2 88 2 33 3 09 2 87	2 7: 2 4: 2 7: 2 7: 2 4:
General average	1 82	2 49	2 57	1 87	2 60	2 32	1 87	2 62	2 55	1 99	2 84	2 5
Pacific States (gold) Ferritorics (gold)	4 47 4 00	3 91 5 42	3 25 3 37	4 57 3 00	3 64 6 00	4 00 3 00	4 76 5 25	4 31 5 59	4 17 3 70	6 06 5 50	4 73 5 79	6 00
Average	4 24	4 67	3 31	3 78	4 82	3 50	5 00	4 95	3 93	5 78	5 96	5 1

^{*} Piecework.

IIL-FACTORY LABOR.

COTTON-MILLS.

Before giving the rates of wages paid in the cotton-mills of the United States it may be well to present a statement showing the number and capacity of cotton mills in the country and the consumption of cotton in the year ended July 1, 1874, which is condensed from an article in the Commercial and Financial Chronicle of November 21, 1874.

States.	Number of mills.	Number of looms.	Number of spindles.	Average size of yarn.	Average run- ning time.	Average consumption of cotton per spindle.	Quantity of cotton used.	Quantity of cotton used.
Maine	24 42 10 194 115 104 55 17 60 8 21 5	12, 415 20, 422 1, 274 71, 202 24, 706 18, 170 12, 476 2, 070 9, 773 2, 299 236 618 24	609, 898 855, 189 55, 948 3, 769, 692 1, 336, 842 908, 202 580, 917 150, 968 452, 064 47, 976 110, 260 20, 410 22, 988 3, 400	No. 25, 23 23, 43 29, 75 26, 55 35, 20 31, 40 32, 75 51 22, 94 11, 53 14, 56 3,	Weeks. 50. 71 51. 46 46. 34 49. 89 48. 10 48. 45 47. 70 51. 42. 90 49. 66 47. 35 36. 80 47. 44 52.	Pounds. 59. 67 69. 89 46. 34 53. 93 43. 51 53. 43 42. 24 53. 50 84. 66. 14 174. 34 69. 49 159. 99. 41	Pounds. 36, 473, 547 59, 759, 468 2, 734, 167 303, 393, 529 58, 146, 963 48, 514, 613 24, 536, 249 37, 969, 726 3, 174, 174 174, 194 3, 671, 927 338, 000	Bales. 78, 607 128, 732 5, 695 434, 201 125, 317 104, 557 52, 850 17, 411 81, 573 6, 341 41, 438 3, 9, 46 7, 912 728
Total Northern	660	176, 480	8, 927, 754	28, 56	49. 33	56. 86	507, 790, 099	1, 094, 367
**BOUTHERN STATES. Alabama. Arkansas Georgia. Kentneky Louisiana. Mississippi Missouri North Carolina South Carolina Tennessee Texas. Virginia Total Southern	16 2 49 4 3 3 11 4 30 18 42 4 11 187	1, 360 28 2, 934 42 300 348 382 1, 055 1, 236 1, 014 230 1, 564	57, 594 1, 256 137, 330 10, 500 15, 150 18, 056 55, 498 47, 058 10, 225 56, 490	10. 50 12. 71 6. 26 12. 11. 33 10. 75 12. 08 13. 36 12. 32 12. 16.	48, 37 51. 47, 77 49, 24 47, 02 39, 29 49, 66 46, 52 39, 67 51, 10 47, 02 47, 57	119, 83 121, 69 133, 57 178, 86 86, 31 75, 17 183, 25 123, 10 113, 25 133, 38 95, 23	6, 490, 079 136, 000 18, 522, 899 1, 578, 030 1, 138, 804 3, 481, 573 6, 832, 673 7, 134, 558 6, 372, 458 1, 278, 125 5, 334, 025	13, 772 293 39, 920 4, 047 2, 790 2, 545 7, 928 14, 795 15, 376 13, 518 9, 733 11, 496
Total Northern	660 187 847	176, 480 10, 495 186, 975	8, 927, 754 487, 659 9, 415, 383	28. 56 12. 5 27. 73	49. 33 47. 02 48. 96	56. 86 122, 53 60, 29	507, 790, 099 59, 793, 774 567, 583, 873	1, 094, 387 128, 526 1, 222, 913

It will be seen that the number of spinning-spindles in the United States on the 1st day of July, 1874, was 9,415,383, against 7,114,000 at the same date of 1870, and 6,763,557 at the same date of 1869, as follows:

Үсаг.	Looms.	Spindles.	Yarn av- erage.	Average per epin- dle.
1874.				
NorthSouth	176, 480 10, 495	8, 927, 754 487, 629	28.56 12.5	56. 96 122, 53
Total, 1874	186, 975	9, 415, 383	27. 73	60. 29
1870.				
NorthSouth	147, 682 5, 852	6, 851, 779 262, 221	28# 12#	50. 87 124. 23
Total, 1870	153, 534	7, 114, 000	221	52. 93
1869.				
NorthSouth		6, 538, 494 225, 063	28 127	60. 70 138. 12
Total, 1869		6, 763, 557	27}	64. 88

The above records a very rapid progress since 1870, being about 33 per cent. in the number of spinning-spindles.

COTTON MANUFACTURES IN 1870.

The number of establishments engaged in the manufacture of cotton in the United States, as appears from the census-returns of 1870, was 956, employing 135,369 hands; capital invested, \$140,706,291; wages paid, \$39,044,132; value of materials used, \$111,736,936. The principal products were as follows:

Sheetings, shirtings, and twilled goods	varda.	478, 204, 513
Lawns and fine muslins		
Print cloths	do	489, 250, 053
Warps	do	73, 018, 045
Flannel		8, 390, 050
Ginghams and checks		39, 275, 244
Cassimeres, cottonades, and jeans		13, 940, 895
Spool-thread	dozen.	11,560,241
Table-cloths, quilts, and counterpanes	number.	493, 892
Seamless bags	do	2,767,060
Yarn, not woven	pounds.	30, 301, 087
Bats, wicking, and wadding		
Cordage, lines and twines	do	5, 057, 454
Thread	do	906, 068
Cotton waste		7, 921, 449
Tape and webbing		484, 400
Seamless bags		405, 585
Other products		10, 811, 028
•		

Total quantity of all products 349,314,592 pounds, valued at \$177,489,739.

8282

80-0

25 28 38

Part femulos.

* Females.

Doye.

WAGES IN COLTON-MILLS.

20 4 20 15 8 Dola-ware. 8 ងខន្ធមន្តន្តង្គ ងខនធ 828888 828 22222 Pennsylvania. 874 លិចសិស ಪಡಪ್ತ ಕಥತ 2 8 01 03 03 03 888 88 23 8 Table showing the average weekly wages paid to persons employed in the cotlon-mills of the following Siates in 1869 and 1874. 8-643 92 = 22333838 88588 88 88838 8888 874 New York. ධ්යුගනුම ള്ള =20°E 88888 88 8888 8 8 :8888 .88 2000 2 52243785 8233 222222 874 Connecticut 828 888888 88888888 នននង 858888 8 సెల్ల 83338 82454358 8232 823 23323 Rhode Island. 1874 2-40-40-2555 2:12 222 200002220 288288 888823888 8888 888 882838 8 50000 **∞** 20 € Se z se se se Massachusetts. 83288325**8** 2222 883588 828 22222 1874 ac 친도 도라 or Stock 200 **22222** 22222 8225 822228 878 282825 **58823885** 98 25°°° 2°222°2 r Hamp-84858883 8388 82222 2233 888888 83 853.5 25.0 202202 288288 85248842 8328 882233 2222 New 8 504 2250 22400 50 55 55 55 55 88822888 8283 22232 888 222233 1874. ಡಿವವವ∞8 젊금감찬 228222 833 :88 88888888 **\$228** 888 3 ã Oversoer Mine-spinares Maile-backside piecers Frame-spinaers Spoolers
Warpers
Drawers and twisters Englacer
Laborera
Overseer in cloth-room Picker-boy Grinders Strippers Weavers Drawing in hands Pickor-tenders..... Railway-tenders Drawing-frame tenders. Spreder-tenders..... Overseer.... Second hand..... Overseel Wood-workers Iron-workers Occapation.

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Table showing the average weekly wages paid to persons employed in the cotton-mills of the following States, for.—Continued.

States	1874.	85 0 4 4 7 4 7 6 8 8 4 4 7 4 7 6 8 8 4 1 1 8 8 8 8	8000 8000 818	55 4 5 5 0 5 5 5 5 0 5 5 5 5 0 5 6 5 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	19 91 7 83 5 47	20 13 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15	
betiaU aI	1969.	80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 8	2564 8588	811 4 5 5 5 11 8 6 9 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	17 58 7 75 6 28	77228 888 8458	
* aostat2	1874.	20 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 0	83 98 35 25 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28	46-4648 838288	86 69 4 60 817	23 00 11 33 00 12 13 13 13 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15	
olbhlidale States.	1874.	6 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	81 - 92 8 85 55 59	25 4 0 0 0 5 2 2 3 2 0 0	16 50 8 38 5 00	2772788 2772788 2772788	!
In New Eng.	1874.	61 33 4 5 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	90 90 90 90 53 53 53	18 17 18 17 18 17 18 17 18 17 18 17 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	20 97 8 05 6 95	19 57 14 99 15 07 15 13 15 13	
Оріо	1874.	######################################	¥234 8000 8000			21 8 8 90 8 90 8 90	
Тепре звес.	1874.	## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ##	### 25 ## 68 ## 68	12 00 14 90 7 50	15 00 # 50 4 50	15 80 8 90 18 90 4 90	males.
Kentucky.	1874.	85.23.21.0 85388394	13 00	+1442+ 5008825	15 00	233362 233362 233368	§ Part females.
Arnossilf.	1874.	80 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	11 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	14 00 \$7 25 5 50 4 75	16 90 16 50 14 50	82 to 26 to	1 2
MississiM	1874	# 4 4 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	82 a £ 28 0 0 3 3 4	5427 4. 888888	25 50 25 00 25 00	80 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60	; Females.
-smodal A	1874.	8422 21-4 8888 888	30 00 20 00	200000 802028	30 00	86 86 86 86 86 86 86 86 86 86 86 86 86 8	38
Georgia.	1874.	8 2 4 4 6 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	3 20	84446 8446 8688 8688 8688	33 00 ‡6 50	30 00 19 42 20 12 6 06	† Boys.
South Care- ling.	1874.	6 90 8 90 8 90 9 90 9 90 9 90 9 90 9 90 9	85322 8833	15 00 14 50 7 00 16 00	38 47 90 17	86 9 80 9 80 0 81 13 80 8 80	issouri.
Yorth Caro- ling.	1874.	\$0.400 \$9339 30	0000 8844	ranna 80000	883	9 00	Including Missouri
Оссирайоп.		CARDING. Overseer Picker-tenders Railing-tenders Speeder-tenders Speeder-tenders Fricker-boy Grinders Skrippers	BPINING. Overseer. Mulo-spinners A Mule-backsido piecers Framc-spinners.	Overseer Second hand Second hand Spoolers Spoolers Divolers Drawers Drawers Drawers Dressers	WEAVING. Venvers. Drawing in hands		• Ino

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WOOLEN-MILLS.

The following statement, condensed from the census returns, shows the magnitude of the woolen industry in the United States in 1870.

				İ	1	Hand	ds emplo	yed.		
States and Ter- ritories.	Establishments.	Cards.	Broad looms.	Narrow looms.	Spindles.	Males above 16.	Females above 15.	Touth.	Wages.	Value of products.
Alabama Arkansas California Connecticut Dolaware Florida Georgia Illinois Indiana Iowa Kansas Kentucky Louisiana Maine Maryland Massachusetts Mississippi Michigan Missouri New Hampshire New Jersey New York North Carolina Dhio Oregon Pennsylvania Rhode Island South Carolina Fonnessee Iexas Utah Vermont Virginia West Virginia West Virginia West Virginia West Virginia	14 13 3 13 13 13 13 13 13 14 14 14 15 16 16 17 17 17 18 17 17 18 17 17 18 17 17 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	Setz. 24 177 46 660 30 1 72 250 346 199 24 208 13 331 1, 367 116 19 17 81 11 845 78 334 11 1, 317 474 225 177 29 19 175 116 133 134	88 909 184 4 11 300 652 2 226 611 311 311 311 311 311 311 311 311 31	No. 2 1, 703 174 389 423 948 241 20 288 80 199 91 3, 374 158 699 421 1, 127 86 752 56, 394 1, 710 7 60 16 80 291 176 70 110	3,880 178,470 8,756 36,888 57,063 31,463 31,463 4,000 65,249 12,348 470,785 15,650 2,664 344 10,371 117,057 23,457 2,866 52,789 4,330 4,000 162,540 162,540 3,614 10,371 117,057 23,457 24,380 4,390 162,540 1	38 29 59 4, 257 196 4, 257 1, 040 1, 450 685 55 454 454 22 247 10, 761 408 707 34 524 4, 488 1, 833 524 4, 488 1, 340	1 31 9, 381 110 110 110 110 110 110 110 110 110 1	2 2 4 4 659 103 1911 228 308 111 92 4 4 210 13 2, 350 118 5 369 168 17 234 4 4 9 10 118 8 25 4 9 189 32 30 64	Dollars. 4, 881 6, 870 230, 200 2, 860, 370 115, 137 122, 138 535, 185 726, 113 269, 452 30, 682 150, 373 8, 900 1, 047, 151 82, 019 7, 296, 302 2, 213 45, 592 28, 800 137, 402 1, 335, 147 334, 642 2, 000 2, 834, 326 3, 101 559, 414 112, 213 4, 373, 628 2, 228, 402 3, 101 559, 414 112, 213 4, 373, 628 2, 228, 402 5, 785 59, 828 590, 278 46, 040 644, 524 58, 765 59, 828	Dollars 88, 999 71, 699, 71, 699, 71, 699, 71, 699, 71, 699, 71, 71, 71, 046 576, 066 471, 522 849, 244 4, 339, 711 1, 647, 599, 592, 541 1, 204, 968 147, 328, 763, 194 1, 204, 968 147, 328, 766, 194 1, 204, 968 147, 529, 529, 541 1, 256, 211 8, 766, 194 1, 204, 968 14, 394, 752 21, 060 14, 394, 753 27, 589, 581 12, 556, 117 34, 431 696, 934 13, 696, 934 143, 696, 934 15, 696, 934 175, 763 18, 556, 317 18, 566, 352 19, 666 3, 619, 439 198, 636 3, 619, 439 198, 636 3, 619, 639 1, 256, 667

The principal products of woolen-mills in 1870 were as follows:

Beavers, 261,208 yards; cloth, cassimeres, and doeskins, 63,340,612 yards; cloth, felted, 1,941,865 yards; cloth, negro, 1,932,382 yards; cottonade, 75,000 yards; flannels, 58,965,286 yards; jeans, 24,489,985 yards; kerseys, 5,506,902 yards; linseys, 14,130,274 yards; repellents, 2,663,767 yards; satinets, 14,072,559 yards; tweeds and twills, 2,853,458 yards; number of shawls, 2,312,761; blankets, 2,029,715 pairs; yarn, 16,070,237 pounds.

WAGES IN WOOLEN-MILLS.

282828 =22 21285512 **X** 9 83. **6000000** 9000 -45 00000000000 9 10 00 CHODOLES SANGER * 8F8F=85 E8552283 30 20 20 8 @@@@@v@<u>~</u>@ 20-0 F-6-10-400 40 9 <u>ದಿ ಗ್ರ</u> : 8 호 22 874 ... 25 Oregon ą 9 ---00 28 and in 1874. ន្ទន្ទន 2238 ងងងងងងងនន ន្តន្តន្តន្តន 22 874 California 000-100 2003 e za ca ca ca ca ca Novo 00 22 at \$36. 874 5523 855588 88 288 :88 :8 22 호 WIDDESOCO. =000 00 to 20 65 to 0-0 9 13 2 Chinamen, except overseer 8888 of the following States in 1869 22222 322 874 : 20=9 လည်ထိထိလိုလ œ 275 w isconsin, tows. 2888 22222 885 81 80 222 :3 S 22 98 <u>დ</u> **დ ₹** დ 202040 • 297 9~9 NO 00 2 12 2225 88855 223 99 . 0 874 ಶಹನನ ೧೦೮೦೭ ကက္ကက 22 :≥ 약 00 * that bas ordo 2252 88555 8 222 2222 222 86 2008 ဆထသမြားပ =222 92 9 55.53 . 8 235385 8 282 888 8888 Ĭ 874 N N O F 7 G 8000 200 ā တ္ထက္ West Virginia. 855338 8 Table showing the average weekly wages paid to persons employed in the woolen-mills . മസയ 4 466 63 553 18 00 : 2222 Ž : 88 Maryland 00 I 7007 2 1222 222222 888 22222222 ង្គន ĸ 88 Yew Jersey. ೭ ಜಿ ------**ಅ**ರಿಷ್ಠ ಹಾಬ ಅಪ್ Ξ φ**τ**9 52 :22222 8 :8 2 :8 :8 : NOM KOLF : 2 2~2 ಸಿಹರಿಷಡ 9 က 6 222 838888 28 3 :ងខ 8888888 :38 8 Connecticut 25 @p.029520 တက္ထ トトトロドト <u>' = 9</u> ₫ 월 Part females. :33 333 8228 8 34 ရွှဲထေထုရွ 929 ဖ က യഹത **ဆေသတ**ဋ 2 23 2 Rhode Island. 228823 222 2858885888 23 9 88 00000000 90009 - 9 3 9 9 <u>2</u> 8 779 22 9 553 23.13 253432 23 5835 122257852E 874. **ಀಀೲೲೲೲ**ಀ=ೲಀ 2828 90 to 30 20 <u>ه م</u> Massachusetts. 8333333 888 282222228 85 22 8 20-2 -405455 777 **ക**ളയായ യാത്ര **4** 0 ದ್ <u>8258</u> 584848 오요크 22222222 813 1874 ဝ သ ထ ရွ -99 **മയ⊃യ⊳¢യ**വയ œ <u>9</u> ಹಿಡಿತಿಕಾನಿ 25 and Vermont. New Hampshire 2282822 888 22 88 യെട്ടുക കുള്ള 0-35-6-0 200 99 **a** <u>o</u> 232222 25.58 25223338 : 23 88 874 2002 & 50 € 3 മേത്ര All females. Maine 8228 8 28 8882888 888 **5888: 8883** 88 -5=e113 77. <u>a</u> 0 약 മെയ്യ Wool-washers...... Drawers Burlers Orersing and finishing: (watchmen beamers assistants ine-room, yard, &c.: Dressers or giggers. Finishers. ng and spinning: Occupations. Spinners rese-tenders Assistants - Ansistants Wool-sorters

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IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following interesting article, prepared by James M. Swank, Esq., secretary of the American Iron and Steel Association, exhibits the origin and development of the iron and steel industries in the United States:

FORGES AND BLOOMARIES.

The first iron made in America was forged at a bloomary of the Virginia Company, in 1621, on the James River, twelve miles below the present site of Richmond. The Indians destroyed the forge in 1622. In 1631 the people of Massachusette Bay built an iron-mill at Lynn; in 1644, a blast-furnace at Hammersmith; in 1652, a furnace and forge at Raynham, (Taunton;) and other iron-works followed in succeeding years, until in 1715 there were many furnaces and forges in Maryland, Virginia, and Massachusetts. At some of these forges the ore was converted into bar-iron by hammering, and all sorts of merchantable shapes were made, while at others the bar was hammered from the pig. Maryland hammered bar-iron was exported to England from 1732 to the Revolution, although in 1750 England endeavored to prohibit the production of bar-iron, as a common nuisance, in America. The Revolution stimulated the production of hammered iron, and forges sprung into existence in many parts of the colonies, but principally in Pennsylvania. Slitting-mills, for slitting hammered plate into nailrods, became quite numerous. After the Revolution great changes took place. The puddling-furnace was invented by Cort, a native of England, in 1783 and 1784, and he also introduced the use of rolls. From 1790 to 1810 rolling-mills were gradually erected in this country to take the place of the forges, and at the present time only a very few forges in Virginia, North Carolina, and Tennessee make hammered bar-iron in small quantities, while the few forges and bloomaries making blooms from ore are found in New York and North Carolina, using the Catalan forge. Many forges, making blooms from ore are found table shows the production of blooms from ore during late years:

Years.	Net tons.	Years.	Net tons.
1965	73, 555 73, 073 75, 200	1870. 1871. 1879. 1873. 1874. (about)	63, 000 58, 000 62, 564

PIG-IRON.

The first furnace in the United States, of which we have any knowledge, is that built by a London company, represented by John Winthrop, jr., at Hammersmith, Mass., in 1644.* In Plymouth County, Massachusetts, Lambert Despard built a furnace in 1702 at the outlet of Mattakeeset Pond. In 1715 there were many furnaces in the colonics, all of which used charcoal for fuel. In 1717 pig-iron was exported to England. Most of these furnaces made castings, such as iron pots, direct from the furnace, as they still do in some parts of North Carolina and Tennessee. Coke was first used in the blast-furnace by F. H. Oliphant, of Fayette County, Pennsylvanis, in 1836, and anthracite coal at Mauch Chunk, Carbon County, Pennsylvania, by Baughman, Giteau & Co., in July, 1839, though Mr. Lyman, at Pottsville, first succeeded in keeping a furnace in blast for three months on anthracite, running from October, 1839, to January, 1840. The Mauch Chunk furnace was small, being 21½ feet high and 5½ feet across the bosh, while the Pottsville furnace was 35 feet by 8½ feet. In August, 1846, the raw bituminous coal was first used in smelting iron at Lowellville, Mahoning County, Ohio, in a furnace specially built for raw coal, though, in 1845, a charcoal-furnace in Mercer County, Pennsylvania, (Clay Furnace,) had, during a scarcity of fuel, run a short time on raw coal alone. In 1810 there were 153 furnaces, all charcoal, which made in that year 54,000 net tons of pig-iron. In 1874 there were 701 furnaces, including charcoal, coke, raw coal, and anthracite, and 46 more were in course of construction. These figures do not include the large number of charcoal and other furnaces that have been abandoned. The following are statistics of production of pig-iron in net tons:

^{*} For a more detailed account of the 'Colonial industry in metals' see Bishop's History of American Manufactures, vol. 1, pages 465-631

1810	54,000 (1870	1, 865, 000
1828		1871	
1840		1872	
1849		1873	
1860		1874	
1865	031 589		_,,

In 1874 there were produced 572,817 net tons of charcoal pig-iron; 884,872 tons of raw coal and coke; 1,202,144 anthracite, and 29,580 mixed fuel; total 2,689,413 net tons. Rails.—The first mills in this country which made railroad-iron were the Mount Savage Works, Maryland; Montour Iron-Works, Danville, Pa.; and the Great Western Works, Brady's Bend, Pa.; all of which were put in operation from 1840 to 1843. The Mount Savage Mill made rails of the shape of the letter U inverted, while the others made inverted T rails, of the present pattern. In 1850 there were 6 mills which made in that year 44,083 net tons of rails. In 1874 there were 58 mills, and 3 building. The following are statistics of rail-production, including steel rails, in net tons:

1860	205, 038	1872	1, 000, 000
1870		1873	
1871		1874. (about)	750,000

BAR-IRON, SHEET, PLATE, AND NAILS.—Bar, sheet, and plate iron were first made in forges by the slow process of hammering. Plates were slit into rods, which were afterward cut up into nail-lengths, to be pointed and headed by hand. The first slitting-mill was built at Milton, Mass., in 1710.

mill was built at Milton, Mass., in 1710.

From 1790 to 1810, rolling-mills gradually made their appearance, and in 1810 there were 330 forges and 34 rolling and slitting mills, which made 24,541 net tons of bar and plate iron, and 7,864 tons of nails. The first rolling-mill in Pittsburgh was built in 1812. In 1874 there were 335 rolling-mills making rails, bar, sheet, and plate iron, and nails. They made about 1,600,000 net tons of rolled iron, including Bessemer rails, and 215,000 tons of nails. The statistics of production are as follows, in net tons:

Year.	Blooms from ore.	Rails.	Other ham- mered or rolled iron.	Naile.	Total
1810	8, 194 30, 000	44, 083 142, 555 905, 038	94, 541 90, 768 197, 933 291, 600 933, 961 355, 526	7, 864	32, 405 90, 962 197, 233 321, 600 278, 044 498, 061 *205, 038
1865 1870 1871 1872 1878 1873 1874 (about)	63, 977 62, 259 63, 000 58, 000 62, 564 50, 000	356, 292 620, 000 775, 733 1, 000, 000 890, 077 750, 000	500, 048 705, 000 493, 199 738, 796 875, 133 885, 000	216, 802 203, 266 201, 235 215, 000	920, 317 1, 387, 259 1, 548, 733 1, 999, 992 2, 029, 009 1, 900, 000

^{*} These figures are for rails alone; it is uncertain how much other iron was rolled in 1860.

Bessemer Steel.—The first Bessemer-steel works in America were built at Wyandotte, Michigan, in 1865. The ingot from which the first rail was made was taken to Chicago from Wyandotte and rolled into a rail at the North Chicago Rolling-Mill in 1865. In a short time afterward the "plant" was taken to Chicago from Wyandotte. The first rails made upon order were rolled at Johnstown, Pa., from ingots made at Harrisburgh, Pa., in 1867. There are now 8 Bessemer works in operation, 2 soon to be completed, and 1 about to be built: The following are statistics of production in net tons:

Year.	Totalsteel	Steel rails.
1867	8, 500 12, 000 40, 000 45, 050 110, 500	2, 550 7, 225 9, 650 34, 000 39, 250 94, 070
1873	157, 000 190, 000	129, 015 165, 000

STEEL, OTHER THAN BESSEMER.—From the best information we have, we believe cast-steel was first made in this country during the decade 1830-40. Blister-steel was made very much earlier, dating far back into colonial times. In 1850 there were five cast-steel establishments; in 1860, thirteen; in 1870, twenty-seven; and in 1874 about forty. The following are statistics of production, including cast-steel, open-hearth, and blister-steel, in net tons:

1860	11.838	1872	38,000
		1873	
		1874, (about)	

IMPORTATIONS.—Until very recently, the United States has been a large purchaser of foreign iron and steel. So many new iron and steel making establishments were built in the period embraced in the years 1860 to 1874, that we are now, for the first time in the history of the country, in possession of complete facilities and full capacity to manufacture all the country needs of these articles, although it is probable that some special brands of iron and steel may continue to be imported for some time. The following table shows the quantity of leading iron and steel manufactures imported during a series of fiscal years in net tons, except steel ingots, &c., for which values only are given:

Fiscal years.	Iron rails.	Pig-iron.	Steel rails.	Steel ingots, bars, sheets, and wire.	Bar, boiler, band, hoop, sheet, and scroll.
Ended September 30— 1821		Tons. 918 1, 159	Tons.	\$131, 291 351, 449	Tons. 19, 339 42, 469
1839 1840		12, 508 5, 516		820, 4c7 544, 674	99, 559 63, 429
Ended June 30— 1850 1851 1852 1853 1854 1855 1856 1857 1858 1859 1860 1860 1861 1862 1863 1864 1865	127, 516 155, 496 179, 305 75, 745 69, 965 122, 174, 491 8, 611 17, 088 118, 714 77, 518	74, 874 67, 249 91, 874 114, 227 160, 483 98, 924 41, 985 72, 518 71, 498 74, 028 22, 247 31, 007 160, 283 50, 655 101, 261		1, 414, 022 1, 690, 533 1, 691, 186 3, 141, 124 2, 669, 945 2, 599, 075 2, 543, 215 2, 639, 763 1, 154, 673 2, 062, 029 2, 733, 816 2, 553, 256 1, 469, 374 2, 195, 415 2, 398, 156 1, 652, 169 1, 992, 562	20, 152 21, 248 26, 193 27, 193 29, 289 147, 418 126, 567 122, 566 123, 566 123, 566 123, 566 123, 566 123, 566 123, 566 123, 566 123, 566 123, 566 123, 566 123, 566 124, 566 125, 566
1867. 1868. 1869. 1870. 1871. 1872. 1873.	96, 272 151, 097 266, 228 313, 338 1513, 023 472, 366 240, 505 20, 379	112, 042 112, 133 153, 412 171, 677 199, 515 277, 232 241, 355 103, 086	122, 956 160, 041 146, 411	2, 839, 240 2, 252, 383 3, 201, 046 2, 342, 408 3, 750, 702 4, 033, 508 4, 155, 234 2, 980, 055	105, 7:0 730, 528 107, 653 100, 529 126, 263 145, 894 107, 254 44, 963

^{*}Quantity of bar-iron not given; value was \$2, 733, 074.

Exports.—The exports of raw iron and steel have always been insignificant. In colonial times pig-iron and bar-iron were for many years, from 1717 to the Revolution, exported to England. In 1728-'29, 1,127 gross tons of pig were thus exported; in 1732-'33, 2,204 tons of pig and 11 of bar were exported; in 1745, 2,274 tons of pig and 196 of bar; in 1771, 5,303 tons of pig and 2,222 of bar, and 1776, 316 tons of pig and 28 of bar. Since the Revolution no iron has been exported until very recently; but iron and steel in various manufactured forms, such as agricultural and mechanical implements and edge-tools have for a long time been largely exported. The currency-values of exports of iron and steel, and manufactures thereof, in 1872 and 1873, were \$14,360,617 and \$16,687,754, respectively. The quantity of pig-iron exported was, in 1872, 1,319 net tons; in 1873, 9,022 net tons; in 1874, 14,321 net tons. Bar, plate, rails, and sheet-iron, in 1872, 1,554 net tons; in 1873, 820 net tons; in 1874, 5,531 net tons. Nails and spikes, in 1872, 2,682 net tons; in 1873, 3,400 net tons; in 1871, 5,138 net tons. Steel ingots, bars, sheets, and wire, in 1872, 81 net tons; in 1873, 26 net tons; in 1874, 243 net tons. The years given are all calendar years.

[†]Including some steel rails.

The following statement of the aggregate value of the exports of iron and steel, and of the various manufactures thereof, for the last fifty-four years, will serve as a supplement to Mr. Swank's article, and show the gradual increase, from \$108.083 in 1821 to over twenty millions in 1871.

Statement of the value of domestic iron and steel, and manufactures of, exported from the United States from 1821 to 1874 inclusive.

Years.	Value.	Years.	Value.	Years.	Value.	Years.	Value.
1821	\$108, 083	1835	\$ 297, 357	1849	\$1,096,630	1963	\$6, 475, 97
1892	132, 727	1836	308, 666	1850	1, 914, 460	1864	7, 283, 16
1823	97, 271	1837	494, 908	1851	2, 265, 186	1865	10, 786, 559
1894	142, 974	1838	712, 192	1859	2, 340, 603	1866	*9, 759, 553
1825	156, 173	1839	946, 586	1853	2, 509, 304	1867	9, 487, 88
1826	253, 895	1840	1, 110, 772	1854	4, 916, 947	1868	10, 784, 65
1827	275, 671	1841	1, 045, 825	1855	3, 768, 301	1869	10, 873, 94
1828	933, 618	1842	1, 110, 826	1856	4, 190, 096	1870	13, 414, 44
1829	226, 537	1843	532, 693	1857	4, 906, 491	1871	20, 955, 29
1830	309, 473	1844	· 716, 332	1858	4, 737, 094	1872	11, 199, 300
1831	239, 271	1845	857, 677	1839	5, 506, 880	1873	13, 295, 446
1839	220, 588	1846	1. 161, 584	1860	5, 712, 990	1874	114, 888, 10
1833	243, 603	1847	1, 170, 927	1861	5, 932, 587		
1834	236, 577	1848	1, 267, 318	1862	4, 563, 201		

^{*} The original statement gives but \$3,759,553, but that is no doubt erroneous: the figures here given

are approximately accurate.

† Not including \$4,492.09 of iron and stoel manufactures exported to Canada, the value of which was obtained from Canadian authorities.

From and after the fiscal year 1821, the Reports on Commerce and Navigation, showing the imports and exports of the United States in detail, have been published. The trade-accounts previous to that year are very imperfect.

The following statement shows, with approximate accuracy, the exports of iron and manufactures of iron during the thirty years from 1791 to 1820, inclusive:

Table showing the quantity or value of domestic iron and manufactures of iron exported from the United States for the years ended September 30, 1791 to 1820, inclusive.

Years.		Pig.	Ват.	Castings	Manufac- tured.	Years.	Pig.	Bar.	Nails.	Castings.	Manufac- tured.
1791 1792 1793 1794 1795 1796		Tons. 4, 179 3, 268 2, 080 2, 037 1, 046 502 597	Tons. 350 360 763 843 2, 444 843 204	\$2, 598 3, 202 12, 200 2, 681 3, 500 453 22, 501	\$3, 500 8, 000 10, 250 24, 304 25, 600 160, 094 135, 594	1798	Tone. 198 140 190 993 535 877 454	Tons. 793 614 531 70 100 177 379	Pounds. 77, 551 110, 7e0	\$29, 861 16, 573 11, 174 22, 798 21, 106 5, 923 9, 168	\$173, 074 971, 575 379, 961 300, 316 317, 825 91, 961 40, 827
Years.	Pig.	Bar.	Nails.	Castings.	Manufac-	Years.	Pig.	<u>ا</u>	Naile.	Castings.	Manufac- tured.
1805	Tone. 365 79 114 9 70 93 21	Tons. 927 307 132 67 277 429 217 63	Pounda 278, 05 218, 60 336, 32 30, 23 272, 72 377, 37 347, 92 62, 78	1 \$25, 8 5 47, 0 1 55, 3 7 4, 1 3 5, 5 3 9, 4 5 8, 1	41 29, 76 91 41, 22 61 5, 86 95 30, 46 10 39, 24 43 31, 44	1814 1815 1816 1817 1818 1819	Ton. 15. 1. 900	28 5 0 43,5	14, 3 42, 7 80 90, 2 36 158, 8 93 473, 0 234 \$21, 3 169 \$14, 6	69 \$19, 621 63 19 94 5, 749 77 14, 649 25 32, 782 56 14, 963 86 10, 638	\$819 6, 581 7, 784 161, 394 45, 942 33, 426 98, 407 36, 675

NOTE.—From 1791 to 1803 the returns do not separate foreign and domestic articles exported, but the great bulk of iron exported was undoubtedly of domestic manufacture.

From Pitkin's Statistical View of Commerce, it appears that there were exported in the year 1770 from the British continental colonies 6,017 tons of pig. 24,044 tons of bar, 2 tons of castings, and 8 tons of wrought iron, valued at \$145,628, \$173,891, \$158, and \$310, respectively

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IRON-ROLLING MILLS.

Table showing the average weekly carnings of workmen employed in the Iron-Rolling Mills of Massachusetts and the Middle States (with the price per tun) in the year 1874.

	Massachusotta	usotts.	New York.	York.	New Jersey.	reey.	Pennsylvania	lvabia.	Delaware.	Fare.	Average in Middle States.	n Middle
Gouppation.	Per week.	Por ton.	Per week.	Per ton.	Per week.	Per ton.	Per week.	Per ton.	Per week.	Per ton.	Per week	Per ton.
Puddlers Peddlers	8 = 8 = 8	7 83	2 2 3 3 3	28	617 19 19 91	8 8	15.	22 22	818 80 80 80 80 80 80	35- 35-		2 -
Shinglers helpers					188		17.82	8	3.		::. ::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	
Puddle-mill roller	33			<u>e</u>	3	11	283	₹8	11 83	3		*
Top and bottom rouer Forge-rollers			389	==	• -		8 :	3				* = 1
Merchant-mill rollers.	38			111	38		38	10 10 10 10	3	•		3=
Sheet and plate rollers						181			8			181
Third rollers					٠.	a a						S or
Furnace-men's or heaters' helpers	10 83			8	9	8		Ħ		\$		æ
ShearmenRilleters	38											
Catobera	. œ		2 2	Ē		7	12	6	10 17			134
Rongbers	32		3 S	2 2 2 3 5	38	8		9 2	5	8 5		7
Foremen or superintendents	8		_						ا ھ			•
Machinete	12.8											
Carpenters	19 00											
Blacksmiths	300					:						
Teamsters	88				88							
Apprentices and boys	4 73		4 55		8		4 50		4 67		1 47	
Hours of labor	2		99		9		8,		99		8	

IRON-ROLLING MILLS.

Table showing the average weekly earnings of workmen employed in the Iron-Bolling Mills in the following Western States in the year 1874.

	Ohio.	ů.	Illinois	ols.	Indiana.	ana.	Ka	Kansas.	Average in preceding Western States.	preceding States.
Coon hereon	Per week.	Per ton.	Per week.	Per ton.	Per week.	Per ton.	Per week.	Per ton.	Per week.	Per ton.
Paddlers Puddlerg helpers	\$24 30 11 92	8 25	\$24 85.53	25 22 28 28	88.71 55.55	\$6 50			25 25 25 25 25 25	₹. 88.8
Shinglers									88	
Puddle mill roller	ક્ષ ક	92		18.2-10	21 60	8			28	61.25
Forge rollers.	18 00			3					389	3
Merobantmiii rollers			49 55	12 9-10			S 4:24	70 07	38	2
Sheet and plate rollers Second rollers	37 28	89	28 05	07 7-10					83	60 07 7-10
Third rollers Furnavamen or heater's helpers	12 0-2		16 2H	17				25		18
Shearmen	8		27 71	12 8-10			12 00		15 66	12 8-10
Catchers	16 81			09 8-10				10	21 46	08 4-10
Ronghers	16 50			10 4-10				88	83	26.85
neators Foremen or superintendents	38	0,		01-0 70	25 00			8	5 23	2
Machinista	19 50								S.	
	16 81		19 47		88		88 76		19 33	
Blacksmiths		•			98				38	
Laborers and unskilled workmen							8		98.8	
Apprentices and boys	28						3 00		4 18	
Hours of labor.	20		8		3		8		P1.9	

IRON-ROLLING MILLS.

Table showing the average weekly earnings of workmen employed in the Iron-Rolling Mills in the following States in the year 1874; also the general average of

Per we						ern States			
87	sek. Per ton.	1. Per week.	Per ton.	Per week.	Per ton.	Per week.	Per ton.	Per week.	Per ton.
07	9 00 8 00 8	50 120 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 18	8	\$28 00 13 00		98 98 11 90 81 90 90	98 20		55 73 1 374 96
88	88	128		95 98 8		88			48 10
Forge-voluers Rechant mill rollers Rail-mill rollers 42 06		45 30 00 14		3 8		35 90		2882	* \$ = \$
Second rollers Third rollers Furnational reserves				3 : 8		5	• • •		01·10 8
Shearmen of treese shear and the Billoters		122							12 4-5
11	288								134 164 30 7 10
120	88	3 2 2 2 				855 855		1281	
200	888			250 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200		18 35 28 35 38 35		11.0	
Teamsters 7 56 Apprentices and boys.	20	3 60				8 % 8 %		c 4	
Hours of labor		25		8		1 53		57 13-16	

IRON-FOUNDERIES AND MACHINE-SHOPS.

Average rates of weekly wages paid in the Iron-Pounderies and Machine-Shops in the New England States in the respective years 1869 and 1874.

	Maine	90	New Hampshire.	w shire.	Vermont	ont.	Massachusetta	husetta.	Rhode Island	leland.	Connecticut.		Average in New England States.	in New States.	
Coorbatton	1869.	1874.	1869.	1874.	1869.	1874.	1866.	1874.	1869.	1874	1969.	1874.	1869.	1874	
									Ī	Ī	Ì	Ī	İ		
Iron-molders.	13 8	13 27	821	25	23	115 00			98 61			55 55	\$16 T3		
Machinists, (best)		3:		399									28		
Machinista (inferior)	18	; %	38	11 8		38			38			38	2 2 2		
Machinista, (helpere)		8		8									5		
Buller-makers	8	88	:	25					-				85		
Riveton		38		38									58		
Holders-on.		12 00		99									55		
Flangers	:	88	:	88	:							:	88		
Helpers	\$	38		18	• -				•				3 2		
Helpers	٠.	8	38	8	38	38			88				3		•
Foremen	8	19 60		8	_	_						_	2		-
Engineers Pottern-makers and carnenters	25	3 2		85	16.50				16.50			85	3 5		
Assistants		8		28	•				٠.			_	13 16		
Laborera, carters	38	4 5	88	27	28	85	88	83	88	25	385	8	88	0 e	
Milwrights		3	_	16 96					•				88		~
Assistants Brass-founders.				12 00			15 00	17 85		8			15 00	16 75	
Fitters. Turners		13 00		13 00			19 50						19 50	28	
Hours of labor per week		3		8		8); 	3	1	33		28		ਭ	~••
			-							-	-	-	-		

IRON-FOUNDERIES AND MACHINE-SHOPS.

Average rates of wages paid in the Iron-Founderies and Machine-Shops in the Middle States in the respective years 1869 and 1874.

Commonton	Now York	York.	New J	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania	lvania.	Delaware.	rare.	Maryland	land.	Average in Middle States.	n Middle
Coordinations	1369.	1874.	1869.	1874.	1869.	1874	1869.	1874	1869.	1874.	1969.	1874.
Iron-molders.	91	\$15 83	817 75	\$16 50	\$17.85	814 00	\$14.50			\$14.50	\$15 90	
Machinista, (best)	1	16 06	18 18		16 90	15 41	15 50		15 00	17 82	16 54	
Machinista, (ordinary)	8 9 9	33	14 81		Z =	22	25	88	90 91	25	= = = = = = = = = = = = = = = = = = =	21 t
Machineta (beloers)	9	1.00	10 46		200	200	25			88	6	
Boiler-makers	7	15 90	15 48		15 00	16 90	15.00			15 75	15.03	
Helpers	2 6 71	3 2	200		39	85	8		:	8	200	
Holderson	9 25	38	9 87		38	3 2	200			38	30	
Flangers	16 12	 8				17 00	18 00			16 50	17.08	
Helpera	98 6	0 9 6				9 9 1	10 00			8	20	
Blacksmiths	16 12	15 75				15 38	15 96		15 00	25	15 46	
Helpere	9 6	3				98 90 90 90	98		•	8	6 6	
Forement	32	2 2				5 . 5 .	8; 8;			25 25	8 8	
Pattern-makers and cerpenters	12.5	3 52	29		14 92	2 2	15 00		38	3 5 5	2 5	
Assistants	8	12 60				11 38	9			15.00	8	
Laborera, carters	98 66	18 8	10 55	12 00		9 59	8		8	8	7 6	
A pprentiose	2 2	5 41	-			55 35	4 33		8	4 23	89	
Millwrighte.	91	:				16 62	120			98 98	200	
Resentantions	0					3 8	38		:		38	
Titlers	3			55.08	14 50	14.57	38		:		3 5 5	
Turnera					3	12 81	28				:: :8	
Hours of labor per week.		3		33		8		8		8		56 33

IRON-FOUNDERIES AND MACHINE-SHOPS.

Average rates of weekly wages paid in the Iron-Pounderies and Machind-Shops in the Western States in the respective years 1809 and 1874.

Ocennation.	Ohio	<u>ۃ</u>	Indiana.	-ea	Illinois.	ois.	Michigan	"Ron	Minnosota.	senta.	Wiscon- sin.	IOWA	Missouri.	Average in West- ern States.	in West- tates.
	1969.	1874.	1869.	1874.	1969.	1874.	1869.	1874.	1869.	1874.	1869.	1874.	1869.	1989.	1874.
ron-molders			15 00	\$14 79	918	\$17.34					\$14 66	25.			\$15 16
Machinista, (best)	38	88	38	3 28	32	2 2	33	88	82 82	88	18	11 12 13 13	8 3 8 8	17 62 27 57	16 98 13 51
Machinista, (inferior)			38	35	88	88					288	55			10 00
Briller makers			3	16.88	3	1,8					2	88			25
Holpers		-		e 1		38		-				8 8			===
Holderson				- 4		17.									12 24 25
Flangere		:		25		2 2 2 2 2	:	:	28						8 8 8
Blacksmiths		14 25	8	25	15 75	15.39	1. 13.		88	19 00	17 56				38
Helpers				20 8 20 6		= 8		53	28	8 2	S 5		28		98 28
Engineers				. E		88		38	3	1 2 2					3 3 5 8
Pattern-makers and carpenters			Z 33	16 79		17 61	12	16 50	18 00	18 38					16 74
Amistante			:	2 6		23.9		88	8	2,0	8 8				3 3
Appropriate and the second sec		328		4 E	8	2		38		3 12					8
Millwrights			Ī	83	:	22	-		28		_				91 88
Brass-founders		25 8		38		3		13 50	19 20		18 00				38
Fitters Turners		12 00		85 88								33 88	5 5 8 5 8 5	- :	16 75 14 17
Hours of labor nor week		S		8		2		8		2		8			50 1.6

IRON-FOUNDERIES AND MACHINE-SHOPS.

Average rate of weekly woges paid in the Iron-Founderies and Machine-Shops in the Southern and Pacific States in the year 1874, and the general average in the United States.

General aver- age of United States.	######################################	59 3-10
ni eyato y A Recific States.	\$\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2	3
-sastaoM	88888 88888 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	3
Xevada.	#44 98282 68826324 644	5
Oregon.	\$22525252525252525252525252525252525252	8
-altrolla-O	\$4357272233358433535358888888888888888888888888	3
Average in Southern States.	2425862862862952522848888888888888888888888888888888	इं
Texas.	\$\frac{3}{2}\text{2728722373737872} \text{53.2629}	3
авапоят А	88953	3
.епнівіпо.І	8888 388 888 888 888 888 888 888 888 88	3
.amadalA	8523350	33
Georgia.	######################################	33
North Carolina.	#5 5 50 15 6 20 12 00 12 00 13 50 6 00 6 00	8
Теппсевее.	28 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25	2
Kentucky.	\$\frac{9}{9}\$27555555555698989853555 \$\text{9}\$888888888888888888888888888888888888	8
West Virginia.	1128 1238 1238 1238 1238 1238 1238 1238	33
Virginia.	### 1	8
Occupation.	Iron-molders Machinists, (best) Machinists, (inferior) Machinists, (inferior) Machinists, (helpers) Bolien-makers Holpers Holpers Blockeniths Blockeniths Reipers Blockeniths Referens Referens Analysis	Hours of labor per week

MISCELLANEOUS IRON AND STEEL MANUFACTURES.

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in iron and steel works in Pittsburgh, Pa., in the year 1c74.

[Average hours of labor per week, 54.]

	_				
Average number of the complex of the	Occupation.	Wages.	A verage number employed.	Occupation.	Wages.
111111111111111111111111111111111111111	BON-WORKS. Manager Shipping-clerk Mill-clerk Weigh-master Forge-carpenter Blacksmiths Night-watchmen Master-ongineer Assistant engineers Machinist Steel-shear-men Common laborers Ore-stokers Ash-wheelers Metal-stockers Boilers, (puddlers) Helpers Muck-rollers Rougher-down Catchers Helpers Hookers-up Dragger-out Weighers Shear-men Bar-roller	15 00 23 00 6 00 11 10 15 75 12 75 28 00 13 50 8 40 11 25 10 50 11 25 10 50 11 25 12 00 12 90 8 25 13 75 12 90 13 90 14 90 19 90 19 90 19 90 19 90 19 90 19 90 19 90 11 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	2 2 4 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	IRON-WORKS—Continued. Catchers Roughers-up Straighteners Shearmen Bundlers Heaters Stockers Draggers-down STREL-WORKS. Converter Helper Breakers Sorap-shearers Steel-melters Helpers Gas-producer Ingot-inspector Weigher Cogging-hammer men Helpers Heaters Engineer Finishing-hammer man Helper Inspectors Manager STREL-MILLS. Stockers Heaters Helpers Rollers Helpers Helpers Rollers Helpers Helpers Rollers	10 00 10 50 9 30 10 00 10 00 12 00 9 00 12 00 15 75 15 75 10 00 12 00 12 00 12 00 13 00 9 00 14 00 15 00 10 00 11 00 12 00 13 00 14 00 15 00 16 00 17 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 19 00 10 00
2	Guide-mill rollera Roughers-down		1	Straighteners. Shear-man	

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in steel-works in Pittsburgh, Pa., in the year 1672.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Average number employed.	Occupation.	Wages.	Average number employed.	Occupation.	Wages.		
12 36 1 4 1 6 6 8 10 35 10 22	Steel-melters Helpers Machinist, best Machinist, ordinary Machinist, inferior Puddlers Puddlers' helpers Rollers Heaters Rollers' helpers Heaters Rollers' helpers Hammer-men Hammer-men's helpers, (men and boys). Blacksmith Blacksmith	17 55 18 00 15 00 10 75 34 33 22 00 43 75 33 00 97 50 36 80 29 18 19 50	1 4 1 3 130 25 2 4 4 1 2	Engineer Shelpers Converter Pattern-maker and carpenter Assistants Laborers, carters, &c., (men). Apprentices, (boys). Gas-makers Inspectors Shear-men Millwright Assistants. Roll-turner Roll-turner's helper, (boy).	13 87 94 00 18 00 14 88 11 53 5 00 19 00 18 00 94 00		

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Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in the Neutral Foundary (forge and Bessemer pig-iron) in Harrisburgh, Pa.

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages
Clerk Foreman or founder Engineer Engineer's essistant Blacksmith Carpenter Keopers	28 00 17 36 11 97 12 18 12 18	Keepers' helpers Fillers and cinder-men. Iron-weigher Carters Laborers. Conductors on ore-trains.	9 45 10 15 7 56 7 38

Note.—All the above wages, except clerk's, blacksmith's, carpenter's, and conductors', are calculated at 7 days per week, which furnacemen usually make. The exceptions are calculated at 6 days per week.

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed by the Corrugated Iron Company of Chicago, Ill.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wagos
Iron-chutter makers Engineers Laborers or unskilled workmen	\$18 00 18 00 9 00	Apprentices or boys	\$5 00 18 00

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in malleable iron-fittings works in Branford, Conn.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wagos.
Iron-molders, including apprentices	19 25	Foromen Engineers Pattern-makers and carpenters Aasistants Laborers, carters, &c. Boys and girls, making cores	\$19 08 13 50 18 00 13 00 9 60 5 00

HARDWARE MANUFACTORIES.

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in hardware-manufactories in Gonnecticut in the years 1872 and 1874.

Occupation.	Wages in-	
Occupation.	1879.	1874.
78	•••••	16 50 15 00 13 50
atorsn.makers	\$13 69 20 93	15 00 12 00 24 00 15 00
s-up cutters miths	17 25 12 00	19 00 15 00
ntices or boys	5 78 5 67	6 00 4 50
	s	workmen

Tab'e showing the average weekly earnings of persons employed on brass and tinners' hardware in Meriden, Conn.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Machinists Drop-men Press-men Press-girls Solderers, (girls) Ordinary-work girls	15 00 18 00	Men in rolling-mill	20 00 12 00 27 00 40 00

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in iron and brass works in Chioago, Ill.

[Hours of labor per week, 66.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Blacksmiths Cabinet-makers Carpenters Finishers, brass Machinists Macons Molders, gray-iron Molders, malleable-iron Millwrights	16 74 14 64 16 32 18 66 17 54 12 12	Painters Pattern-makers Steam-fitters. Welders, pipe Engineers Laborers. Apprentices Foremen.	16 50 17 34 14 76 18 79 10 44 5 40

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in the umbrella-frame manufactory in New York City.

[Hours of labor per week, 59.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occu pation.	Wages.
Machinists Stretcher-hands Molders Runners and notchers Cap and ferrule makers Plunchers and tippers Hardeners Fingerers Springers and testers Lappers. Drillers	6 00 20 00 18 00 15 00 5 00 6 00 6 00 5 00 7 00	Grinders. Frame-makers Japanners Packers Labelers. Labelers. Engineers Apprentices Foremen. Watchmen and carmen Book-keeper	12 00 9 00 10 00 5 00 25 00 14 00 7 00 35 00

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in correct-steel works in New Haven, Conn.

Average number employed.	Occupation.	Wages.	Average number employed.	Occupation.	Wages
1 1 2 1 3 3	Overseer Assistant Steel-temperers Steel-temperer's assistant Steel-cutters Furnace-boys Japan-overseer	10 00 7 50	1 5 80 8 30 140	Japan-carrier Japan-dippers Press-hands Packers Pasters. Kid-sewers.	\$12 08 4 50 4 50 5 06 4 00 3 09

Table showing the average daily wages of persons employed in a bank-lock factory in Stanford, Conn., in the year 1872.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Machinists, best	2 25 to 3 00 1 50 to 2 25 1 00 to 1 50 3 50	Engineers. Pattern-makers and carpenters Laborers, carters, &c. Apprentices Brass-founders	\$4 50 to \$50 \$4 50 to \$50 \$1 50 to \$2 00 *70 to \$1 50 \$2 75 to \$4 00

^{*} Apprentices receive 70 cents per day for the first year, 90 cents for the second, \$1.15 for the third, and \$1.50 for the fourth.

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in iron-safe manufactorics in Cincinnati, Ohio, in the year 1872, and in Chicago, Ill., in the year 1874.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

	Wages i	n—		Wages i	D—
Occupation.	Cincinnati in 1872	Chicago in 1874.	Occupation.	Cincinnati in 1872.	Chicago in 1874
Machinists, best	\$20 00 to \$25 00 15 00 to 20 00 19 00 to 15 00 10 00 to 12 00 20 00 to 25 00 12 00 to 15 00 25 00 to 30 00	\$15 00 12 00 38 50	Engineers	\$16 00 \$20 00 to 25 00 12 00 to 15 00 3 00 to 8 00 15 00 to 20 00	\$15 00 18 00 9 00 5 00

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in scale-making and steam-heating works in Chicago, Ill.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

SCALE-MAKERS' WORKS.	STRAM-HEATING WORKS.					
Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages			
Scale-makers Beam-makers Blacksmiths Carpenters Laborers Apprentices Foremen	20 00 15 00 15 00 10 00	Foremen Fitters Fitters' helpers Carpenters. Masons Engineers Blacksmiths	18 00 12 00 18 00 18 00			

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in sheet-iron works in Galveston,

Tex.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages
Tinners. Gas-fitters Copperamiths Blacksmiths	18 00 21 00	Machinists Sheet-iron workers. Apprentices	15 00

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in a nail-mill in Belleville, Ill. [Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wagos.
Nailers Feedors Boilers First helpers Second helpers Heaters Heaters Bollers Catchers	30 00 15 00 6 00 35 00 12 00 25 00	Hookers-up Draggers-out Roughers Shovers-under Engineers Laborers Apprentices Foremen Mason and helper.	12 00 18 00 12 00 17 40 10 00 2 40 35 00

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed on the Marine Railway, Madison, Ind.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Ship-carpenters Calkers Bolters Blacksmiths Joiners Mill-hands	18 00 15 00 18 00 15 00	Teamsters Engineers Laborers Apprentices Foremen	18 00 9 00 4 00

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in bridge and car works in Chicago, Ill.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Average number of the contract	Occupation.		Moan rates.					
15	Machinists	\$ 15	50	to	\$18	00	\$16	75
20	Drillers	\$15 9	60	to	12	00		80
10	Bolt-cutters	8	40	to	10	50	9	45
5	First-class blacksmiths	15	00	to		50		75
25	Blacksmiths' helpers				9			50
30	First-class carpenters					00		00
50	Second-class carpenters					50		50
20	First-class helpers				19	00		00
30	Second-class helpers				9			00
5	Pattern-makers	15	00		16			75
1	Engineer	18		to				00
75	Laborers or unakilled workmen	. 9		to		50		75
20	Apprentices or boys			to		00		00
10	Foremen or overseers	15	00	to	29	00	222	00

IRON-SHIP BUILDING.

Average rate of wages (per week of 60 hours) paid to persons employed in the skip-building yard and iron-works of Messes. W. Cramp & Sons, Philadelphia, at the close of 1874.

	ENGINEERING AND BOILER WORK	8.		SHIP-BUILDING YARD.	
Average number.	Occupation.	Wages.	Average number.	Occupation.	Wages.
16 94 17 93 58 23 33 6 47 81 67 115 68 125 229 4 9	Machinists: Best Ordinary Inforior Helpers Pattern-makers and joiners Engine-fitters Blacksmiths Apprentioes Laborers Riggers Boiler-makers Riveters and calkers Holders-on Flangers Rivet-boys Laborers and helpers Foremen, (engineer, &c.) Foremen, (sundry)	15 00 12 00 10 50 16 50 16 50 16 50 10 50 10 50 13 50 13 50 13 50 12 00 4 00 9 00 30 00	16 7 5 12 14 22 115 68 125 28 14 47 3 117 770 90 91 929 6	Fitters Helpers Angle-iron smiths Helpers Ship-smiths Helpers Riveters Holders-on Rivet-boys Calkers Drillers Joiners Apprentices Pattern-makers Machinists Carpenters Riggers Laborers Cartere Furnace-men Foremen	9 00 18 09 10 00 12 99 10 00 10 50 11 00 11 00 11 00 16 00 16 50 16 00 18 00 10 50 10 50
885	A verage	14 08	903	Average	19 49

Average rate of wages (per week of 60 hours) paid to persons employed in the ship-building yard and iron works of Mesers. Pusey, Jones & Co., Wilmington, Del., at the close of 1874.

ENGINEERING AND BOILER WORK	8.	SHIP-BUILDING YARD.	
Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Machinists:		Fitters.	\$12 00
Best	\$17 00	Helpers	8 60
Ordinary		Angle-iron smiths.	
Inferior	11 00	Helpers	8 5
Helpera	7 50	Ship-smiths	
Pattern-makers and joiners		Helpers	3 54
Carrent makers and joiners	15 00	Directors	10 0
Turners	15 00	Rivoters	
Engine-fitters.	15 00	Holders-on.	8 54 3 04
Blacksmiths	13 00	Rivet-boys	
Hammer-men, (at steam-hammer)	20 00	Calkers	15 00
Millwrights	13 00	Drillers	10 00
Apprentices*		Joiners	13 50
Laborers	7 50	Apprentices*	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Brass-founders	14 50	Cabinet-makers	15 00
Foundery dressers	7 50	Pattern-makers	14 30
Foundary laborers	7 50	Block-makers	13 50
Brass-finishers	14 00	Machinists	13.50
Coppersmiths		Carpenters	
Crane-men		Boat-builders	12 6
Riggers		Iron-finishers	13 5
Boller-makers		Brass-finishers	14 00
			14 00
Riveters and calkers		Mechanics	15 00
Molders-on		Plumbers	19 50
Flangers	17 00	Tinsmiths	
Blacksmiths	13 50	Painters	12 50
Rivet-boys	3 25	Red-leaders	10 50
Laborers and helpers	775	Riggers	13 00
Foremen, (engineer, &c.t)	. 	Laborers	8 00
Foremen, (sundry †)	l. 	Carters	8 00
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	1	Furnace-men	8 75
		Foremen ‡	
Average, including laborers and			
apprentices	11 00	Average	9 50
appronaces	1 00		

Average rate of wages (per week of 60 hours) paid in 1874 to persons employed in the machine-shop, iron-ship-yard, and car-works of the Harlan & Hollingsworth Company, Wilmington, Delaware.

Average number.	Occupation.	Wages.	Leading articles produced.
18 46 6 7 8 100 300 15 3 8 200 200 15 4 2200 200 18 200 60 18 200 60 6 10	Machinists: Best Ordinary Ordinary Inferior Helpers Boiler-makers Helpers Riveters Helpers Holders-on Flangere Helpers Blacksmiths Helpers Blacksmiths Helpers Blacksmiths Helpers Laborandl-builders do Assistants Laborers, car-builders, and ship-joiners Assistants Laborers, carters, &c. Apprentices Painters Ship-carpenters Mill wrights Assistants	15 00 18 50 15 00 9 00 15 00 9 00 15 00 12 00 12 00 12 00 9 00 15 00 9 00 15 00 15 00 15 00	Iron steamships. Iron steamboats. Iron sailing-vessels. Engines. Boilers. Tanks. Machine-work generally. Cars of every description.

IRON-FOUNDERY AND MACHINE SHOP IN CALIFORNIA.

Average rate of wages paid to persons employed in the Union Iron Foundary, in the city of San Francisco, California, in the year 1874.

[Hours of labor per day, 10; 60 hours per week.]

Occupation.		W	ekly ear	wages ings.	Leading articles.
Iron-molders				\$94 00	Engines; boilers; mining-ma
Helpers Riveters Holderson Flangers Helpers Blacksmiths Helpers Foremen Pattern-mak Assistants Laborers, &co	Best Ordinary Inferior Helpers sees and corporators	18 15 10 18 10 18 12 24 12 18 19 18 19 10	00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to	94 00 91 00 18 00 13 50 91 00 13 50 97 00 13 50 97 00 13 50 94 00 13 50 94 00 13 50	ing.works, quarts mills, saw mills, flour-mills, and all kind of heavy iron-work for mil ing and manufacturing pu poses.

CLOTHING.

Table showing the average weekly earnings of persons employed in the manufacture of clothing in the following States, in the year 1874.

Occupation.	New York.	New Jersey.	West Virginia.	Virginia.	Kentucky.	North Carolina.	Georgia.	Louisiana.	Texas.	Tennessee.
Head cutters for custom-clothing Cutters for ready-made clothing . Bushelmen Machine-operators. Finishers Laborers or packers Apprentices or boys	91	50 90 00	15 00 7 00 6 00	12 00 18 00	18 75 10 00 6 00 10 00	*\$3 50 4 00 2 50	14 00	12 00 11 40 6 00 4 00 10 00	\$25 00 15 00	6 00 4 50
Ready-made clothing: On sack overcoats. { Cheap. Broadcloth frock-coats Cheap. Cassimere business-coats Cassimere sack-coats Vests, woolen. Pantaloons, woolen. Shirts. { Muslin. Woolen. Custom-made clothing: On sack overcoats Broadcloth dress-coats Cassimere business-coats Vests Vests Pantaloons.					4 75 4 75 18 00 15 51			6 00 7 50 6 00 6 75 5 60 6 75 4 00 20 00		
		•• •••••		13 00	12 22			16 50		
Occupation.	Ohlo. Illinoia	Indians.	Iowa.	Wisconsin.	Minnesots. 5	Montans.	Wyoming.	California. 91	Washington Territory.	General aver-
Occupation. Head cutters for custom-clothing \$ Cutters for ready-made clothing Bashelmen Machine-operators Kinishers Laborers or packers Apprentices or boys	95 00 \$15 (12)	6 4 5 00 00 435 00 00 00 00 3 00	\$40 50 15 00 15 00	W 15 00 10 00 10 00 10 00 10 00 10 00 10 00 10 1	######################################	25 00 08 25 00 08 Montena	200 00 \$20 00	\$34 37 \$34 37 \$1 87 \$1 87 \$8 12 18 75 10 00	Washington S Territory.	
Occupation.	95 00 \$15 (12)	6 4 5 00 00 435 00 00 00 00 3 00	\$40 50 15 00 15 00	W 15 00 10 00 10 00 10 00 10 00 10 00 10 00 10 1	######################################	25 00 08 25 00 08 Montena	200 00 \$20 00	\$34 37 \$34 37 \$1 87 \$1 87 \$8 12 18 75 10 00	Washington S Territory.	

Table showing the rates paid to operatives in clothing establishments, for piecework, in 1874,

Articles.		New York.	New Jersey.	West Virginia.	Virginia.	Kentucky.	North Carolina.	Georgia.	Louisiana.	Texas.
Ready-made clothing: Sack overcoats. { Fine	each each each each	\$5 00 3 00 4 50 2 66 2 00 87 94	\$4 00 2 00 4 00 2 00 1 50 75 75		\$4 00 2 00 3 00 2 50 2 00 50 35 2 50	\$3 50 2 73 4 00 2 50 2 50 67 67	\$0 25 25 15 1 60		\$3 50 2 25 3 75 3 00 2 25 80 75 2 00	
Custom-made clothing: Sack overcosts Broadcloth dress-coats Cassimere business-coats Vests Pantalcons Pantalcons Shirts, muslin per d	each each each each		8 00 8 00 5 00 5 09 1 50 2 00	10 00 8 00 2 00	12 00 10 00 9 00 1 50	7 00 8 17 6 33 4 75 1 42 1 87	10 00 5 00 3 00		13 60 10 00 8 00 2 50	\$11 00 12 00 8 00 7 00 3 00 3 00
Articles.	Tennessee.	Ohio.	Illinois.	Indiana.	Wisconsin.	Minnesota.	Wyoming.	California.	Washington Territory.	Genoral over-
Beady-made clothing: Sack overcoats { Fine	\$4 00 1 25 4 50 1 50 1 00 50				\$2 50 1 50 2 75 1 00 90 32 70 1 44 1 44			5 00		\$4 00 2 30 4 00 2 50 1 60 70 2 50 2 50 2 50
Custom-made clothing: Sack overcoatseach Broadcloth dress-coatseach Cassimere business-coatseach Cassimere sack-coatseach Vestseach Pantaloonsper pair Shirts, muslinper dozen	8 00 10 00 4 50 4 00 1 50 2 00	9 00 7 00 6 75	8 00 7 00	8 00 6 00 2 50 3 00	10 00 7 00 7 00 2 00	12 00 8 00 7 50 2 00 3 00	10 00 10 0 3 50	16 00 13 00 11 00 3 50	8 50 8 00 3 50 3 75	9 6 10 8 7 9 6 9 2 1 2 5 9 2

LEATHER.

Table showing the average weekly wages paid to persons employed in the manufacture of leather in the following States in the year 1874.

Occupation.	New Hampshire.	Now York.	Maryland.	West Virginia.	Ohio	Indiana	Illinois.	Kentucky.	Tennessee.	Louisiana.	California	Oregon.	General average.
Sole-leather. Tanners		\$10 00 8 33	10 00	\$12 00 9 50	12 00	\$10 00 9 00		14 50 10 00	15 00 9 00	10 50 7 50	15 00 10 50	18 00 14 00	9 99
Rollers & spongers. Bark-grinders Common laborers		10 00 7 50 10 00	9 00		9 00	9 00		17 50 8 00 9 50	9 00	6 00	10 50	13 00	9 00

Average weekly wages paid to persons employed in manufacture of leather, &c .- Continued.

Occupation.	New Hampshire.	New York.	Maryland.	West Virginia.	Ohio.	Indiana.	Illinois.	Kentucky.	Tennessoe.	Louisiana.	California	Oregon.	General average.
Upper leather and calf-skin.													
Tanners. Curriers. Splitters. Shavers. Table-hands, scour-	\$12 00 18 00 15 00		\$12 00 15 00 15 00 18 00	\$12 00 12 00	12 00	\$13 50	\$11 00 13 00	12 00	18 00	16 50 16 50	16 50 16 50	22 00 24 00	14 70
ers Blackers Finishers			10 00 12 00 15 00	12 00	10 00		11 00	10 00 11 00 12 00	9 00 9 00 20 00	12 00	16 50	15 00	12 18
Morocco, patent and enameled leather.													
Tanners								10 00 14 00 18 00 4 00 90 00 18 00			15 00 15 00 16 50 9 00 16 50 16 50		13: 50 14: 30 17: 25 6: 50 18: 25 17: 25
Sheep-skins, skivers, &c.													† -
EngineersLaborers or un- skilled workmen. Apprentices or boys Foremen or over-		\$8 00 9 00	9 00		10 00	7 56 4 50		16 00 9 25 5 00	9 00		13 50 10 50		19 97 9 46 4 75
800r8	 -	13 00	12 00	14 50	·····	20 00		20 50	20 00		18 00	·	16 85

BOOT AND SHOE FACTORIES.

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in boot and shoe factories in the following States in the year 1874.

Occupation.	New Vork		Massachneette		Ditnota		Collegements			General average.	
Cutters Stock-fitters Sole-sewing-machine operators Other sewing-machine operators Lasters Second lasters Hoelers Trimmers Burnishers Finishers Finishers Hand-sewers Shoe-cleaners Packers	94 94 94 94 94 95 94 95	00 50 00 00 00 50 50	15 10 10 10 10 10	00 00 00 00 00 00 00	\$18 00 12 00 10 00 20 00	20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 25 23	00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to 00 to	25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 27	00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	16 16 14 18 17 23 19 19 27	83 95 33 83 83 85 50
Laborers or unskilled workmen Apprentices or boys. Foremen or overseers Crimpers Treers Bottomers.	18 6 35	50 00 00		00	20 00 20 00 15 00	. 5 95	00 to	15	00	18 7	50

TOBACCO.

Table showing the average earnings of persons employed in the tobacco-manufactories of the undermentioned States in the year 1874.

		New Y	ork.	Dola	ware.	Vir	ginia.	w. vi	rginis.	OI	nio.	Indi	nds.
Occupation.		м.	F.	м.	F.	M.	F.	м.	F.	М.	F.	M.	F.
VINE-CUT TOBAC	co.												
Stripping		\$15 00 14 00 15 50 12 00 8 00	\$4 00 7 50 7 50			\$7 00 5 75 6 50 7 00 8 25	4 25	\$6 00 6 00 12 00		9 00 7 00	\$ 3 00		
CuttingGranulatingLaborers		12 50				6 75 6 75 5 50	6 37	6 00 4 00				\$ 9 0 0	
PackingLaborers		•		\$12 16 10 49	\$5 00	7 50 6 00						9 00	
	Wisc	onsin.	Iov	va.	Misson	ari. K	entuck	y. Lou	islana.	Geo	rgia.	Ave	rage.
Occupation.	М.	F.	M.	F.	м.	F.	м. 1	r. M	. F .	M.	F.	М.	F.
FINE-CUT TO- BACCO. Stripping Casing Cutting	9 00 16 50		\$2 25 9 00 12 00		9 00	11	33 67	\$2 0 11 0 12 0	0	7 50 10 00	\$ 5 00	8 99 11 78	\$ 3 6 0
DressingGrindingPackingSpreadingPicking	18 00 8 33		4 00 4 00				00	10 0	0	7 50 10 00		13 12 7 64 6 00	7 50 7 50 4 37
emoking. Cutting Granulating Laborers			5 00			19	2 00 2 00 7 50	10 0	0			8 95 9 25 7 90	6 37
SNUFF. Packing Laborers	7 66						50*	10 (0	7 50		9 88 7 02	5 00

* Children.

CIGARS.

Table showing the average earnings of persons employed in the manufacture of eigers in the undermentioned States in the year 1874.

			0	ocupatio:	n.	
States.	Olgar-makers	Strippers.	Casers.	Prokors.	Laborers.	
New Hampshire	Per 1,000	\$14 00 16 00	8 5 00		\$ 7 00	
Vermont	Per 1,000 Weekly earnings	9 00 12 00	2 50	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		
New York	Per 1,000	19 00 17 50	7 10	17 00	23 50	19 00
New Jersey	Per 1,000	8 40 10 35	2 75		1 28 15 00	
Delaware	Per 1,000	5 10 6 55	2 25		75	
Maryland	Weekly earnings Per 1,000	8 00	2 00	82 00	14 00	
Dhio	Weekly earnings Per 1,000	5 46				
ndiana	Weekly earnings Per 1,000	9 50 9 50	2 56	10 00	13 50	\$6.54
Ilinois	Weeklyearnings Per 1,000	10 00 8 63	3 00		15 00	
Wisconsin	Woeklyearnings Per 1,000	10 75 11 50	2 50	7 50	19 67 1 50	
Minnesota	Weekly earnings Per 1,000	13 75 12 00	4 37	5 00	90 00	10 0
Iowa	Weeklyearnings Per 1,000	19 50 10 95	3 25		20 00	
Arkansas	Weekly earnings Per 1,000	11 00 15 00	3 00	7 50	13 88	
	Weekly earnings Per 1,000	12 00 9 50				
Kentacky	Weekly earnings Per 1,000	12 17 10 25	3 00 63		17 00	6 0
Virginia	Weekly earnings	13 00	3 00		10 60	
West Virginia	Weekly earnings Per 1,000	6 50 13 00	2 00	15 00		6 0
North Carolina	Weekly earnings Per 1,000	16 00 11 50	3 00		1 50	
Georgia	Weekly earnings Per 1,000	15 00 11 75	3 50		15 00	••••
Tennessee	Weekly earnings	14 00	2 50		20 00	
Louisiana	Yeekly carnings.	16 00 17 00	8 50	10 00	22 50	3 0
California	Per 1,000	7 50	5 00		10 00	
Average	{ Per 1,000	10 57 12 15	3 54	9 95	1 16 15 65	7 2

FURNITURE.

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in furniture-manufactories in the following States on the year 1874.

Occupation.	Massachusotts.	New York.	Illinois.	Tennessee.	Alabama.	, Lonisians.	General Aver-
Cabinet-makers Chair-makers Carvers Turners Painters Upholsterers Varnishers Scroll-sawyers Approntices or boys Foremen or overseers	\$16 00 18 00 16 00 18 00 12 00 15 50 7 25 4 50	\$15 00 16 00 15 00 16 00 3 50	\$15 75 25 00 15 00 5 00 95 00	\$19 00 12 00 10 00 10 00	\$16 00 15 00 15 00 16 00	\$10 00 to \$12 00 10 00 to 12 00 15 07 10 00 to 12 00 15 07 10 00 to 13 00 12 00 to 15 00 10 00 to 12 00 6 00 to 9 00 3 00	\$15 45 11 00 16 59 13 50 10 60 17 50 13 50 19 16 11 95 16 00 25 00

AGRICULTURAL-IMPLEMENT FACTORIES.

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in agricultural-implement factories in the following States in the year 1874.

Occupation.	New York.	Ohio	Minnesota.	Iowa.	Kentucky.	Virginia	General av.
Molders	18 00 12 00 to 15 00 19 00 to 15 00 15 00	\$22 50 13 87 14 25 9 75 10 00 15 75 14 63 12 75 16 60 9 50 5 50 25 00	\$21 00 18 00 19 00 10 50 10 50 13 50 15 00 12 00 15 00 12 00 10 50 9 00	\$15 00 13 50 9 00 13 50 16 00 18 00 12 00 9 00 9 00 4 00 18 00	\$15 00 8 00 15 00 12 00 12 00 15 00 15 00 15 00	\$18 00 18 00 15 00 7 00 12 00 13 00 15 00 16 00 5 00 5 00 5 00	\$20 50 16 37 14 54 8 81 11 33 14 15 00 15 00 14 40 9 00 8 16 7 91 - 5 12

GLASS-WORKS.

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in the window-glass works of Mesers. Thomas Wightman & Co., in the city of Pittsburgh, Pa., in the year 1874.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Wages.	. Occupation.	Wages.
Glass-blowers, window. Vial-blowers Assistants, window-glass blowers'. Batch-mixers Master teasers Assistant teasers Pot-makers Assistant pot-makers	25 00 20 00 10 50 25 00 12 00 25 00	Packers Blacksmiths Carpenters Demijohn-coverers. Skilled boys Laborers or unskilled workmen Apprentices or boys Foremen or overseers.	12 00 6 00 10 50 10 00

Table showing the average weekly wages paid to persons employed in glass-works in Berkshire, Massachusetts.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Average number employed.	Occupation.	Wages.	Average number employed.	Occupation.	Wages.
30 30 6 9 3 6	Blowers	\$25 00 16 00 30 00 98 00 95 00 13 00	10 2 10 8 2	Pot-makers and workers in pot- room Ragineers Laborers or unskilled workmen Apprentices or boys Foremen or overseers	\$10 00 12 00 9 00 8 00 25 00

Note.—The principal impediment to the successful competition with the Belgian manufacturers is the unwillingness of the employés to act independent of trades-unions. We are isolated, being the only establishment for window-giass in New England, but our men are controlled by a union ruled in Pittaburgh. Our men will not do what the Belgian workmen do, and it is impossible for us to turn out more than 75 per cent. as much product as they do.

Table showing the average monthly wages of best window-glass blowers in Pittsburgh, Pa.

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Large double glass, say Second class, or, rather, single strength: Blowers of best Second-rate same Third-rate same	150 to 175 195 to 150	Best gatherers Second-class gatherers Best flatteners Master teaser Second teasers Glass-cutters	\$190 to \$140 100 175 to 980 150 120 150 to 269

Six blowers will average in one calendar month 108,000 square feet.

CARRIAGES.

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in carriage-making and combuilding in the following States in the years 1872 and 1873, respectively.

	3			· — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —					
Occupation.	New Hampshire, 1872.	Massohusetts, 1872.	Connectiont, 1873.	New York, 1879.	New Jersoy, 1873.	Pennsylvania, 1873.	Delaware, 1879.	Maryland, 1879.	Obio, 1879.
Body-makers Carriage-part makers Wheelwrights Coach-smiths Helpers Finishers Ornamenters Painters Trimmers Stitchers Engineers Laborers or unskilled workmen Apprentices or boys Foremen CAR-BUILDERS	15 00 17 00 13 00	\$15 00 13 50 15 00 18 00 11 00 18 00 15 00 15 00 12 00 5 00 24 00	18 00 15 00 19 50 19 50	\$28 50 17 00 17 00 25 50 9 50 15 50 15 50 16 50 18 50 36 00 11 00 5 00	\$15 00 15 00 18 00 7 00	\$12 42 12 00 13 00 9 40 14 00 12 00	\$18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 7 00 15 00 15 00 15 00 10 00 8 00 5 00 90 09	\$13 50 13 50 15 00 5 00 13 50 14 00 14 00	\$17 00 13 50 15 00 15 73 8 00 18 00 18 00 15 50 18 00 4 50 16 00
Wood-workers Blacksmiths Helpers Painters Hours of labor per week				594			15 38 13 00 7 75 14 37 60	•••••	60
Occupation.	Illinois, 1872.	Wisconsin, 1873.	Wisconsin, 1872.	Minnesota, 1872.	Iowa, 1872.	Missouri, 1873.	Virginia, 1879.	West Virginia, 1872.	Kentucky, 1879.
Body-makers Carriage-part makers Wheelwrights Coach-smiths Helpers Finishers Ornamenters Pointers Trimmers Stitchers Engineers Laborersorunskilledwork	12 00	15 00 15 00	\$13 50 15 00 10 50	\$20 00 15 50 20 00 	\$15 00 12 00 15 00 16 00 5 50 24 00 15 00 16 50	\$16 00 16 00	\$15 75 13 50 13 50 17 00 6 75 6 09 16 00 15 00	\$21 00 15 50 17 50 25 09 8 50 15 00 19 60 16 50 17 00 9 00	\$19 00 13 00 14 00 15 50 6 75 9 50 99 00 16 00 12 00 95 06
Apprentices or boys		10 00	4 00		11 00 7 00 23 00	3 00	6 37 3 00 18 00	7 00 5 00 21 50	9 09 3 75 20 00
CAR-BUILDERS.	1					•	ı		

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in carriage-making, &c.-Con'd.

Occupation.	Tennessee, 1672.	Arkansas, 1679.	Louisians, 1879.	Alabama, 1872.	Georgia, 1873.	North Carolina, 1872.	California, 1879.	Oregon, 1879.	Average in 1872.	Average in 1873.
Body-makers Carringe-part makers Wheel-wrights Coach-amiths Helpers Finishers Ornamenters Painters Trimmers Stitchers Engineers Laborers or unskilled workmen Apprentices or boys. Foremen	\$19 95 16 50 20 50 7 25 9 50 21 00 14 25 18 00	\$19 50 18 00 16 50 19 50 8 25 10 50 16 50 15 50 15 50	\$18 00 17 00 19 00 13 00 8 00 15 00 18 00 19 50 15 00 19 00 19 00	\$15 00 18 00 5 00 15 00	\$21 00 12 00 19 00 19 00 8 50 3 50 21 00	\$12 95 10 00 10 00 10 00 10 00 10 00 12 00 12 75 12 75 20 00 5 00 8 50 18 00	\$34 00 \$2 00 \$2 00 \$2 50 15 00 \$7 50 \$2 00 \$1 00 \$2 00 \$1 00 \$5 00 \$6 00	\$18 00 18 00 19 50 19 50 12 00 21 00 21 00 19 00 6 00 21 00	\$17 92 15 31 15 61 16 43 8 69 19 07 19 27 15 40 16 15 11 81 12 00 9 07 5 14 22 50	\$16 48 13 75 15 50 12 20 13 90 16 50 8 50 4 30 25 50
Wood-workers Elseksmiths Helpers Painters Hours of labor per week	18 00 20 00 15 00 60	60	19 50 15 00 9 00 19 50	60	60	12 00 11 50 6 00 12 00	21 00 27 00 19 00 19 00	60	15 96 16 50 9 53 4 65 59 6-10	59 6-10

. Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in carriage-making and carbuilding in the following States in the year 1874.

Occupation.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	New York.	ОМо.	Iowa.	Tennessee.	Louisians.	Georgia.	Average.
Body-makers Carringe-part makers Wheelwrights Cooch-amiths Helpers Finishers Ornamenters Painters Trimmers Stitchers Engineers Laborers Apprentices Foremen	\$18 00 15 00 12 00 13 00 15 00 15 00	\$21 00 19 00 21 00 24 00 14 00 17 50 22 00 15 00 7 00 18 60	\$23 50 17 00 17 00 25 50 9 50 15 50 25 00 15 50 16 50 18 50 36 00 11 00 5 00 35 00	\$15 00 15 00 15 00 15 00 15 00 8 00 15 00 15 00 15 00 15 00	\$15 00 15 00 13 50 9 00 14 00 18 00 9 00 4 00 96 00	\$17 95 17 95 18 00 19 00 6 00 16 50 18 00 15 75 17 50 4 50 3 00	\$18 00 17 00 18 00 13 00 8 00 15 00 18 00 12 50 15 00 18 00 3 00 18 00	\$21 00 19 00 19 00 19 00 8 50 3 50 91 00	\$18 46 16 70 16 33 17 50 9 50 15 55 19 75 14 65 13 16 27 00 8 33 4 28 22 66
CAR-BUILDEES. Wood-workers	18 00	60		15 00 6 00 4 00 16 00			12 50 15 00 9 00 12 50	60	13 75 16 33 6 50 14 25

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

The following tables show the average wages or earnings of persons employed in various occupations in the year 1874.

Place and occupation.	Wages.	Hours per Week.	Place and occupation.	Wages.	Hours per
builders' materials.			SCHOOL AND OFFICE FURNITURE.		
Dent Medican (Onesan) mills		j i	į ·		ı
Port Madison (Oregon) mills:	\$44 00	72	Chicago, Ill.: Machine-handsper week.	\$15 00	10
Engineers First-classper wk.	20 00	72	Bench-handsdo	10 50	1
Foremendo	25 00°	72	Cabinet-makersdo	22 00	1
Sawyersdo	20 00	72	Finishersdo	10 50	1
Filersdo Edgers and screw-turnersdo	18 00 10 00	72 72	Packersdo Pattern-makersdo	10 50 15 00	1
	15 00	72	Engineers do	18 00	1 8
Choppersdo	12 00	72	Engineersdo Laborersdo	9 00	
Carpentersdo	18 00	72	Apprenticesdo Foremendo	3 00	
Blacksmithsdo	20 00	72	Foremendo	94 00	
Campers do Carpenters do Carpenters do Carpenters do Carpenters do Carpenters do Carpenters do Laborers do Carpenters do	9 00	79	SASH, DOOR, AND BLIND FACTORY.		1
Dagordia			' '		1
BUILDING-TRADE.	1	1	Chicago, Ill. :		Ι.
regon:	3 50		Engineersper week.	18 00 21 00	
Carpenters or joinersper day. Stone-masons do. Brick-layers do. Plasterers { do. Plasterers . per sq. yd. Lathers . per M. Painters . do. Common laborers . do.	5 00		Foremendo Machine-handsdo	12 90	
Brick-laversdo	6 00		Carpentersdo	12 00	1 (
Pleaterers Sdo	5 00		Men and boys on piecework.do	8 54	1
per sq. yd.	28		Machine-hands do Carpenters do Men and boys on piecework do Teamsters do Laborers do Boys do Lebanon, N. H.:	10 55	1
Latnersper M.	2 00 75	• • • • ·	Done do	8 35 3 45	
Painters }	3 00		Labonon N. H.	3 53	1
	200		E OI CHICH	17 50	١,
Excavating cellarsper cu. yd. an Antonio, Tex.:	20		Carpentersdo	19 00	
n Antonio, Tex. :			Laborersdo	7 50	1 (
Masonsper week. Stone-cuttersdo	15 00 15 00	60	Apprenticesdo Chicago, Ill. :	3 50	1
Plasterers do	18 00	60	Machine-menper week.	21 00	١.
PlasterersdoQuarrymendoTeamstersdo	9 00	60	Stair-builders do	16 00	1 (
Teamstersdo	18 00	60	Carversdo	21 00	
Carpenters doBlacksmiths do	15 00	60	Joinersdo Blind-makersdo	16 00	1
Blacksmithsdo	15 00 7 50	60 60	Engineersdo.	16 00 18 00	1.5
Laborersdo Apprenticesdo	7 50	60	Laborersdo	11 75	
hicago, Ill. :	1	۱ ۳	Apprenticesdo	7 50	
hicago, Ill.: Watchmenper week.	9 00	60	Foremendo	30 00	
Firemen	12 00	60			I
Machinistsdo	15 00 18 00	60 60	PLANING-MILLS.		i
Turnersdo Carpentersdo	10 00	60	Wheeling, W. Va.:		ł
Sawvers do	10 00	60	Carpenters per week Other mechanics do.	13 60	1 :
Stair-buildersdo	15 00	60	Other mechanicsdo	13 60	
Stair-builders do. Tallymen do. Glaziers do.	12 00 10 00	60	Turnersdo Box-makersdo	16 50 7 6 0	
Pointers	9 00	60	Teamsters	7 00	
Paintersdo Shippersdo	20 00	60	Watchmendo	7 00	1
Teamstersdo	9 00	60	Engineersdo	15 00	1
Dry-kilnmendo	9 00	60	Laborersdo	9 00	
Engineersdo	25 00 6 00	60 60	Apprenticesdo	3 00 18 00	:
Laborers do. Apprentices do. Foremen do.	2 50	60-	Foremendo	12 50	
Foremendo	30 00	60	Date and the second	12 00	Ι.
Carversdo	20 00	60	HUB AND SPOKE FACTORY.		1
rafton, W. Va.:	19 00	60	Metropolis, Ill.:		
Carpentersper week. Plasterersdo	18 00	60	Turnersper week.	18 00	L
Stone-masonsdo	15 00	60	Engineers do	15 00	Lè
Paintersdo	18 00	60	Machine-turnersdo	15 60	
Blacksmithsdo	12 00	60	Machinistsdo	12 00	1
Millersdo	12 50 12 00	60 60	Bacamasts Go.	10 00 10 00	!
Brick-moldersdo	18 00	60	Watchmen do	10 00	1 2
Brick-layers do Laborers do Boys do Teamsters do Clerks do	9 00	60	Day-laborers do	9 00	lì
Boysdo	4 00	60	Laborersdo	7 50	{
	9 00	60	Powe do	2 40	
Teamstersdo	12 00	60	Doys	470	

NOTE.—The rate of wages for the State of Oregon is computed in United States gold.

Table showing the average wages or earnings of persons employed, &c.—Continued.

Place and occupation.	Wages.	Hours per weck.	Place and occupation.	Wages.	Hours per week.
HUB AND SPOKE FACTORY—Cont'd. Portsmouth, Ohio: Engineers	15 00 13 00 14 00 12 00	999999	PAINTING AND GILDING. San Francisco, Cal.: Gilders per week. Painters do. Grainers do. Carpenters do. Composition and ornamonting per week.	\$91.00 21.00 25.00 24.00	
Sawyersdo Laborersdo Boysdo	10 00 9 00 3 00	60 60 60	Boysdodol		

Table showing the average weekly wages or earnings of persons employed in different occupations, with average number employed in each establishment named, in the year 1874.

No.	Place and occupation.	Wagos.	Hours per week.	No.	Place and occupation.	Wages.	Hours per week.
20 10 430 50 6 20 120 6 8 35 65 12 12 3	CORSET-FACTORY. New Haven, Conn.: Overseers	\$50 00 12 00 12 00 4 50 3 00 6 00 5 00 12 00 7 00 3 00 6 00 3 00 12 00 12 00 12 00		4 6 4 5	WHOLESALE PAPER-WAREHOUSE. Chicago, Ill.: Accountants	20 00 12 00 15 00 15 00 15 00 10 00 5 00 3 00	60 60 60 60 60 60
1 1 1 1 786	Porters	10 00 94 00 18 00		1 9 1 1 1 6	Job-printing office. Chicago, Ill.: Foreman printer	10 00 21 00 15 00	50 50 59 59 59 259
36 2 7 2 1	UMBRELLA-FACTORY. New York City, N. Y.: Sewing parasolsfemale. Foremenmale. Boys	15 00 8 00	58 58 58 58 58 58	1 1 2 3 1 2 6	Blank-book manufactory. Foroman bindory, (blank-books only). Head finisher	24 00 24 00 18 00 21 00 18 00 15 00 7 50 3 00	59 59 59 50 50 59 59 59
2 1 1 1 2 10	Selma, Ala.: Pressmen. Fireman Foreman and engineer Assistant cooper Ginners. Laborers PRINTING-PRESSES AND PHINTERS' FURNITURE, MANUFACTORY OF. Chicogo, Ill.: Skilled workmen	9 00 12 00 9 00 6 00 6 00	72 72 72 73 72 73 73	1 1 2 1 1 1 1 8 2	Boys, apprentices 2d year. 2d year. 3d year. PUBLIBHING COMPANY. Portland, Oreg.: Editor Manager. Beporters Pressman Engineer Foreman Printers Apprentices.	50 00 40 00 95 00 30 00 95 00 35 00 27 50	60 60 60 60 60 60

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in the following occupations in the years named.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Place and occupation.	Wages.	Place and occupation.	Wages
HARDWARE MANUFACTURY.		AGRICULTURAL-IMPLEMENT FACT'T—Cont'd.	
Berlin, Conn.—1874:		New Madrid, Mo.—1872:	
Molders, iron	\$15 00	Blacksmiths	\$18 00
Molders brass	18 00	Blacksmiths Blacksmith-helpers	9 66
Cupola-tenders	12 00	Plow-makers	94 00
Cupola-tenders Annealing-furnace tenders Filers Japanners	12 00	Carpenters	34 00 34 00
Filers	10 50	Painters	94 et
Japanners	15 00	Teamsters	94 01
	18 00	Apprentices or boys	3 00
HelpersGrinders	10 50		İ
Grinders	12 00	TOBACCO AND CIGAR MANUFACTORY.	İ
Turners	15 00 12 00	Louisiana-1874:	
Machinists.	18 00	Cigar-makers	15 60
Engineers	19 00	Strippers	15 🕊
Formore.men	9 00		
Furnace-men Laborers	9 00	COTTON-GINNING.	ł
Packers	12 00	Louisiana-1874:	l
Pross-workmen	12 00	Ginners and balors	12 60
Rollers	15 00	Engineers Laborers	15 00
Welders	15 00	Laborers	9 00
Jointers	12 00	Foremen	20 00
Stampers	12 00		ŀ
Graduators Finishers	15 00	CORNICE-MANUFACTORY.	ł
Finishers	12 00 24 00	Ohio-1873:	1
Pattern-makersCarpenters	18 00	Cornice-manufacturers	19 64
Trip-hammer-men	18 00	Tinners	15 00
Witterson	12 00	Slate-roofers	94 00
Fitters-up Screw-cutters Blacksmiths Helpers	15 00	LaborersApprentices	11 00
Blacksmiths	15 00	Apprentices	5 00
Helpers.	9 00	Foremen	30 00
Foremen	18 00		l
Apprentices or boys	7 50	PAPER-MAKING MACHINERY.	l
Girls	4 50	Vermont—1874:	I
Foremen Apprentices or boys Girls Waterbury, Conn.—1874: Annealing-furnace tenders		Iron-molders	39 94
Annealing-furnace tenders	12 00	Machinists Bost Ordinary	15 👀
Filers	9 00 18 00	Urdinary	12 00
Filers Forgers Helpers Machinists	10 50	Helpers	9 04
Machinists	18 00	SCALE-MANUFACTORY.*	ł
Engineers	17 00		l
Furnace-men	18 00	Vermont—1874:	
Laborera	9 00	Iron-molders	15 60
Packers Die-makers	15 00	Mechanics Joiners	13 50 13 50
Die-makers	18 00	Painters	19 00
Press-workmen	12 00	Rngineera	19 00
Rollers	18 00	Engineers Laborers	9 8
Jointers	15 00	Foremen	95 00
Jointers Stampers Carpenters	10 50 12 00		
Blacksmiths	18 00	Harness-Making.	l
Helpers.	10 50	Vermont—1874:	
Foremen	20 00	Harness-makers	10 00
Apprentices or boys	4 50	Harness-fitters	14 00
		Harness-stitchers	8 59
AGRICULTURAL-IMPLEMENT FACTORY.		Apprentices	6 50
Dhillimshwash N. T. 1972.		COOPERAGE.	1
Phillipsburgh, N. J.—1873:	15 00	COOPERAGE	
Molders	15 00	Indiana—1874:	
Plackamiths	15 00	Coopers	11 55
Blacksmith-helpers	9 00	Machine-handa Machine-boys Draymen Engineers	12 00
Grinders	9 00	Machine-boys	5 00
Blacksmith-helpers Grinders Wood-workers	15 00	Draymen	16 00
Plow-makers	15 00	Auguneers	13 50 3 60
Pattern-makers	16 50	Laborers	22.00
Pattern-makers Carpenters Painters Engineers	16 50	TOTOMOH	W
Painters	19 00	CIGAR-MANUFACTORY.	l
Engineers	12 00	· ·	
Watchmen.	8 50	Vermont—1874:	
Teamsters Laborers or unskilled workmen	10 50	Cigar-mekers, (\$11 to \$15 per M)	18 0
Lauorers of unskilled workmen	9 00 5 00	Strippers	8 54
A nomentions on he			
Apprentices or boys Foremen or overseers	18 00	CssersPackers	20 04

WAGES IN CALIFORNIA IN 1869 AND 1874.

Statement showing the wages paid in San Francisco and vicinity in the years 1869 and 1874, for the following kinds of labor.

[The table of wages for the year 1874 was prepared for this report by Mr. W. H. Martin, general agent of the California Immigrant Union, January, 1875.]

Occapation.	Wages in 1869.	Wages in 1874.
Apothecaries	\$40 00 to \$50 00	
Release nor month with hourd i	30 00 to 50 00	\$40 00 to \$60 00
Barbers	90 00 40 00 to 45 00	60 00 to 80 00
Bed-makersdodo	25 00 to 35 00	
Bell-hangers per day Bolt-makersdo	9 50 to 3 00	2 50 to 3 50 2 59 to 3 50
Rickemithe	2 50 to 4 00	3 00 to 4 00
	2 00 to 2 50	2 00 to 2 50
Boot-Duliders	••••••	3 00 to 3 50 3 75 to 4 00
Boiler-makers, flange-turnersdo		4 00 to 4 25
Blacksmiths' helpers		3 00 to 5 00 4 00 to 15 00
Book-keepersper month	35 00 to 100 00	80 00 to 200 00
Book-keepers in banks and brokers' officesdo	•••••	900 00 to 350 00
Boot-blacksdodo	45 00	30 00 to 45 00
Bottlersdo		
Box-makersper day	4 50 to 6 00	2 50 to 3 00 4 00 to 5 00
Brick-layers, foremendo	100 00 0 00	600 to 800
Bottlers do. Box-makors per day. Brick-layers foremen do. Bubbers per mouth, with board. Brown-makors per do. Brown-makors per month and found. Brick makors per month and found.	35 00 to 60 00	40 00 to 75 00 50 00 to 75 00
Broom-makers	50 00	50 00 to 75 00 2 50 to 3 50
Butter-makersper month and found	30 00 to 45 00	40 00 to 50 00
Distributed and a second	10 00 10 00 00	40 00 to 60 00 20 00 to 40 00
Carpenters, houseper day	3 00 to 4 00	3 50 to 4 50
Carpenters, foremendo	0.00.4- 6.00	4 50 to 6 00 4 00 to 5 00
Carpenters, ship. dodododododo	3 00 to 5 00	5 00 to 7 50
Cabinet-makersdo	3 00 to 4 00	3 00 to 4 00
Doys in omces and stores per montal	3 50 to 4 00 3 00 to 4 00	3 00 to 4 00 3 00 to 3 50
trumors	3000 00 4100	3 50 to 4 50
paintorsdodo	3 00 to 4 00	2 50 to 4 00 4 00 to 4 50
Carversdodo		4 00 to 7 00
Carvers do. Celkers do. Coopers do.	3 00 to 4 00	4 00 to 5 00
Confectioners do	2 00 to 3 25	2 50 to 4 00 3 00 to 4 00
Coppersmithsdo	3 00 to 4 50	3 50 to 5 00
Clarks do	2 50 to 4 50	3 00 to 4 50 2 00 to 3 50
Clerksper month, with board	40 00 to 75 00	200 10 5 50
Charcoal-burnerspor day		2 00 to 3 50 2 00 to 3 00
Coachmen per month, with board	30 00 to 75 00	35 00 to 50 00
Cooksdodo	35 00 to 100 00	35 00 to 100 00
Cooks in hotels do do	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	30 00 to 35 00 40 00 to 100 00
Coopers do Confectioners do Confectioners do Coffee miths do Coffee miths do Coffee miths do Coffee miths do Colerks do Colerks do Clerks per month, with board Charcoal-burners per day Charcoal-burners per day Cochmen por month, with board Cooks do Cooks do do Cooks in private families do do do Cooks in private families do do Cooks in private families do do Cooks in forels do Cooks in private families do Cooks do Cooks in forels do Conductors, borso-cars do Conductors, horso-cars do Conductors steam cars do Conductors steam cars do Conductors steam cars do Conductors steam cars do Conductors steam cars do Conductors steam cars do Conductors steam cars do Conductors steam cars do Conductor do Conductor do Cond		1 50 to 3 00
Conductors, horse-carsdo	•••••	3 00 to 5 00
Chambermaids in familiesper month, with board	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	15 00 to 20 00
Chambermaids in hotelsdodo		20 00 to 25 00
Dress-makers in families		10 00 to 12 00 1 50 to 3 00
Dairymenper mouth, with board	30 00 to 45 00	35 00 to 40 00
Drivers, horse-carsper day	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	2 50 to 3 00
Drivers, expressdo		2:00 to 3:00
Chambermaids in hotels. do do. Dress-makers in stores. per week. Dress-makers in families. per day, with board. Dairymen. per mouth, with board. Drivers, horse-cars. do. Drivers, drays and trucks. do. Drivers, express. do. Drivers, hacks do. Door and sash makers do. Druggists. per mouth, with board. Dovers do.	0.50.40.4.00	2 00 to 3 50 3 00 to 4 50
Druggists	8 50 50 4 00 60 00	60 00 to 75 00
Dyers	40 00 to 50 00	45 00 to 60 00
Deck-nandsdododododo	40 00	40 00 to 50 00 200 00 to 250 00
Editors, second-classdo		75 00 to 100 00
Engraversper day	4 00 to 8 00	4 50 to 6 00 3 00 to 5 00
Editors, first-class per month Editors, second-class do Engravers per day Engineers, mills do Engineers, railroads do	10000000	3 00 to 4 00

Statement showing the wages paid in San Francisco and vicinity, &c.-Continued.

· Occupation.	Wages in 1869.	Wages in 1874.		
Ingineers, steamships, &c per d Parm-laborers { Winter per month, with boa do	ay	\$3 90 to \$		
hrm-laborers Winter per month, with boa	rd \$30 00 \$40 00 to 50 00	95 00 to 3		
loristedodo	990 00 10 30 00	35 00 to 5		
ounderymonper d	ay 2 00 to 2 50	3 00 to		
Tornse do de de de de de de de de de de de de de	3 50 to 4 00	4 50 to		
Ounderymen bross de	····	3 00 to 3		
ardenersper month, with box	rd 30 00 to 40 00	45 00 to 6		
ardeners, short jobsper d	ny	l 92.50 to 3		
ga-fitters do	3 30 10 1 1 30	3 00 to 3 00 to		
ildera		3 50 to		
laziersdo) l	2 00 to		
arness-makersdo)	2 50 to		
atters do do do do do do do do do do do do do	~~	3 90 to 30 90 to 4		
welersper month, with both	AV	3 50 to		
aundrymenper month, with boo	rd 30 00 to 45 00	30 00 to 4		
aundrywomendododo				
weiers per month, with box aundrymen per month, with box aundrywomen do do ooksmiths por d thographers, draughtsmen, and engineers d	ay 3 00 to 4 00	3 00 to 4 00 to		
ithographers, printersde)	4 00 to		
thographers, printers	rd. 35 00 to 70 00	30 09 to 5		
achinistspor d	ny 3 50 to 4 50	3 00 to		
asonsdo	4 00 to 5 00	4 00 to 6 00 to		
asons, foremendo odel or pattern makersdo	4 00 to 4 50	4 90 to		
illers do	3:00 to 4:00	3 00 to		
illwrights	3 00 to 5 00	3 90 to		
inersdo	2 00 to 3 50	3 00 to 1 50 to		
nusesdo		1 90 to		
ginters, house	2.50 to 4.00	3 50 to		
sinters, shipdo) . 	3 00 to		
ameers sup- sper-hangers de lasterers de lumbers de orters per month, with boe	2 50 to 3 50 4 00 to 6 00	9: 50 to 4:00 to		
lumbersdc	3 50	4 00 to		
ortersper month, with box	rd 30 00 to 55 00	30 00 to 5		
iano-makersper d	ay	4 00 to		
rinters, jobdo		3 50 to 4 50 to		
olicemen per mon	th	150 20 19		
iggersper d	ay	4 00 to		
iddlersdo		3 00 to 3 00 to		
ll-maxors	eh	300 to 3		
vilors, coasters		40 00 to 4		
desmenper d	ау	2 50 to		
ipsmithsdo	4 00	3 00 to 15 00 to 9		
ryanta, general nonsework	40 00 to 100 00	40 00 to 7		
10emakersper d	ау	2 00 to 25 00 to 3		
ano-makers per d inters, job de cinters, foremen de plicemen per mon lidemen per d ddlers de liders de li	rd 95 00 to 35 00	95 00 to 3		
dodododo	35 00 to 40 00	35 00 to 4		
raw-workerado	-J	1 50 to		
vilors, pantses	oh	3 00 to		
ailors, vestsdo		2 00°10 €		
LLIOTS, CORGS	ay 3 50 to 4 00	6 00 to 1		
runkmakersdo	2 50 to 3 00	2 50 to		
namithado	3 00 to 4 00	9 50 to		
ailors, panes de dilors, coats do dilors, coats de dilors, coats de dilors, coats de dilors de d		9:50 to 5		
semsters owning teams	64	39 00 to 5 45 00 to 90		
pholaterera	by 3 00 to 4 00	2 50 to		
ineyard-menper month, with box	rd 30 00 to 40 00	30 00 to #		
agon-makersper d	ny 300 to 400	3 00 to 4		
recommenper mon	th 50 00 to 75 00	50 00 to 7: 40 00 to 5		
aitersper month. with box	rd 90 00 to 40 00	99 60 to 46		
ood-shoppers do alters per month, with boa stoh-makers per d hip-makers do	у	3 00 to		
hip-makers do	3 00			

Young men of energy, not afraid of work, can almost always get employment in the country at from \$25 to \$30 per month.

The foregoing prices are in gold coin.

REMARKS.—It is much easier to get employment in rough or mechanical work than in clerking, keeping books, or in school-teaching; and persons who have no money and

no friends in California able to assist them, and no special knowledge that will certainly command employment, should not come here in the expectation of an easy life. Men who expect to make their living by the shovel, plow, and ax are wanted.

Teachers should disabuse their minds in reference to our educational affairs. We have the best schools and teachers in the Union. Our teachers are mostly graduates of our high schools and State normal schools, and we get a new supply from these sources every year. These are well paid, and as long as they keep up to the standard it would be folly in us to advise our friends in the East to come here expecting to get positions as teachers.

Chinamen work willingly for 75 cents to \$1 per day. We have a large supply, and they soon learn and perfect themselves in any department of business. They are a necessary evil at present, for the reason that most of the young men of our State, and new-comers generally, will not work for small wages. As soon as this is remedied by an importation of Eastern and European labor willing to work for \$1 to \$1.50 per day, the employment of Chinese will gradually be diminished.

W. H. M.

WAGES PAID BY RAILROAD COMPANIES.

Statement showing the average weekly wages of persons employed by railroad companies in the following States in the year 1874.

		-	-	•				
Occupation.	Maine.	Massa- chusetts.	Pennsylvania.	Illinois.	Indiana.	Kentucky	Missouri.	General average.
Machinists Boiler-makers Blacksmiths Car-builders Painters Engineers Firemen Pattern-makers Laborers Apprentices Conductors Baggage-masters Brakemen Hours of labor per week	\$12 00 12 00 12 00 13 50 16 50 15 00 10 00 7 50 5 00 9 60	\$14 25 15 50 16 00 14 50 23 00 12 00	\$15 00 13 00 12 43 12 30 13 00 9 00 4 80	\$19 50 13 00 13 00 15 60 17 41 25 00 19 56 19 56 19 50 9 60	\$16 50 14 85 17 25 16 50 23 70 10 50 10 90 17 00 12 30 15 50	\$15 00 14 00 15 75 14 40 11 40	\$16 20 16 80 18 90 15 60 32 00 17 25 7 50 23 00 13 00 13 00	\$15 49 14 35 15 45 14 84 21 78 10 83 16 27 8 86 7 13 18 33 11 30 12 36
Occupation.	Saint Louis, Iron Mountain and Southern Railroad Company.	New York, Providence and Boston.	Rome, Watertown and Ogdensburgh Railroad.	Oocuj	pation.	Saint Louis, Iron Mountain and Southern Railroad Company.	New York, Providence and Boston.	Rome, Watertown and Ogdensburgh Railroad.
Machinists Boiler-makers Blacksmiths Car-builders Paintors Engineers Firemen	\$18 90 18 00 17 00 18 00 14 76 21 54 12 30	§ 16 50	\$18 00 18 00 19 00	Laborer Apprent Conduct	makerss. s.icesorsors	10 00 7 50 21 00	\$9 00	\$9 00

Statement showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company's rolling-mills at Cumberland, Md., in the year 1874.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Puddlers Puddlers halpers Heaters Heaters Rollers Roughers Cotchers Hookers	11 50 22 00 11 00 34 00 22 00 20 50	Buggymen. Dragouts Chargers and pull-outs. Punchers. Straighteners Engineers Laborers or unskilled workmen. Sawyers	11 50 11 50 93 00 19 00

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed by railroad companies in the following States in the years 1874 and 1875.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

	[Hours	of labor	per weel	c, 60.]				
	nies i see, I	paid by n Penns owa, and 1874 and	ylvania, ' l Oregon	Cennes-	Wages paid in railroad, locometive, and car shops in Kansas in the year 1874.			
Department and occupation.	Pennsylvania, 1874.	Tennessee, 1874.	Iows, 1875.	Oregon, 1875.	Kansas City, Saint Joseph and Council Bluffs Railroad.	Atchison and Nebras- ka Railroad.	Missouri River, Fort Scott and Gulf Rail-	Leavenworth, Law- rence and Galveston Ralifond.
LOCOMOTIVE DEPARTMENT.							-	
Machinists Flue-setters Tanks Air-brakes Wipers Water-house	\$12 00 12 00 12 00 12 50 6 00	\$28 00 8 75 7 50	\$15. 99 9 00	\$19 50 *14 00	\$16 08 16 50 *10 50	\$16 20 16 20 8 40	1\$16 50 8 10	\$16 95 8 19
Stationary engineers. Watchmen Oilers Laborers	None. 9 60 8 40 10 00 7 00	15 00 10 00 6 00	10 00 12 00 9 00	*10 00 15 00 *17 50 10 50	*14 77 9 00 17 70	12 00 12 00 6 60	12 00 10 00 10 20 7 50	7 50
Blacksmiths Blacksmiths' helpers Forgers Heaters Roller-makers	14 00 7 00 18 00 18 00 19 00	22 50 13 30 24 00	15 30 11 10 10 50 15 00	21 00 13 50	17 70 10 80	13 50 10 80 16 20	16 80 10 50	19 90 10 50
Stack-makers Coppersmitts Carpenters Pattern-makers	12 00 14 00 11 00 12 60	15 00 13 75 24 00	15 00 18 00 14 64 16 80			15 00 None.	16 90 18 00	
CAR DEPARTMENT.				21 22		10.00		
Carpenters. Repairers Laborers and car-cleaners Cabinet-makers. Oillers Machinists. Locksmiths Tinners. Pattern-makers Blacksmiths Blacksmiths Blacksmiths Gilders Gilders Upholsterers Apprentices or boys TRACK DEPARTMENT.	11 50 10 00 7 00 12 00 10 00 11 00 11 25 12 00 11 60 6 80 11 00 12 00 11 50	16 50 10 50 6 00 11 40 18 00 19 50 24 00 18 00 11 40 18 00	14 88 11 40 9 00 9 00 16 50 9 00 13 14	21 00 18 00 10 50 24 00 19 50 24 00 21 00 13 50 24 00	15 40 13 86 9 00 12 00 12 75 20 00 14 08 18 00	16 20 15 00 None.	16 90 11 10 7 50 10 90 16 50 15 00 18 00 16 80 10 50 14 40 19 50 5 70	15 37 7 50 3 50 15 37
Yard-laborers	6 00	6 00	7 50	15 16	8 15	6 60		6 90 6 69
Yard-section laborers Construction-train Extra gang BRIDGE DEPARTMENT.	6 00 6 00 6 00	4 80 3 90	7 50 9 60 9 00	10 50 6 00	8 15 9 30 9 30	6 30 6 60 6 60	6 60	
Bridge-carpentersEngineer pile-drivers	 - 	13 50	15 00	18 00 18 00	14 65	13 50	15 3 0	15 39 6 00
STATIONS.								ı
Station-laborers Stevedore Scalemen Laborers at small stations Apprentices or boys Foremen or overseers	9 00 None. None. 8 00	5 40 5 40 7 02 24 00		12 00	9 00	8 40 10 00 45 00		

^{*} Seven days.

† One foreman.

Table showing the number of persons employed and the average rate of wages per annum paid employes by the following railroad companies for the year ending June 30, 1874.

			_					
• Occupation.	Louis	and Saint Railroad mpany.	cenne	and Vin- s Railroad mpany.	Shav Railr	ondale and vneetown oad Com- pany.	ton	go and Al- Railroad mpany.
	No.	Wages.	No.	Wages.	No.	Wages.	No.	Wages.
Superintendents. Clerks. Master mechanics. Conductors. Engineers. Brakemen. Flagmen, switch-tenders, gate-keepers, and watchmen. Station-agents. Section-men. Laborers. Other employés.	1 9 14 90	\$780 00 1, 200 00 860 40 898 50 542 70 474 00 637 30 562 80 629 60 538 80	2 1 5 6 8 4 28 25 162 65	\$949 98 1,500 00 1,090 00 996 00 525 00 645 00 *17 00 †1 25	1 1 1 2 1 2 7	\$500 00 1, 200 00 1, 200 00 1, 200 00 500 00 500 00 345 00	4 195 2 111 139 232 76 122 1,254 117 1,137	\$2,575 00 624 00 1,500 00 975 00 1,008 00 540 00 485 00 634 00 500 00 696 60
Occupation.	Railr	Chicago and Illinois Southern Railroad Company,		ago and Railroad mpany.		cago and c Railroad mpany.	and S	go, Pekin outhwest- Railroad mpany.
	No.	Wages.	No.	Wages.	No.	Wages.	No.	Wages.
Superintendents	1 1 2	\$960 00 1, 380 00 460 00 460 00 460 00	1 5 6 10 14 18 4 15 91 18 34	\$900 00 750 00 765 00 954 00 1,042 63 575 00 675 00 680 00 440 00 480 00 501 23	1 3 1 4 4 7 7 7 10 40 50 20	\$2, 500 00 1, 900 00 1, 200 00 700 00 1, 200 00 540 00 800 00 600 00 450 00 600 00	2 2 2 2 4 13 50 2	\$540 00 240 00 780 00 1,000 00 540 00 540 00 420 00 540 00 124 00
Occupation.	Pacific Con	ago, Rock and and c Railroad mpany.	Terre: Chic road	ensville, Hsute and ago Rail- Company.	Louis and (is & Saint Railroad Coal Com- pany.	Bloom West road	anapolis, nington & ern Rail- Company.
Superintendents Clerks Master mechanics Conductors Engineers Brakemen Flagmen switch tenders gate keen	12 92 155	\$3,000 00 828 72 1,500 00 825,00 1,036 00 540 00	No. 2 1 4 4 6	\$900 00 918 00 800 00 1,215 00 540 00	No. 6 7 3 4 7	\$485 00 1,030 85 1,000 00 1,002 00 624 00	No. 1 97 3 35 62 76	\$2,400 00 635 00 1,346 00 900 00 1,080 00 540 00
ers, and watchmen. Station-agents Section-men Laborers Other employés.	152 96 904 625 1, 528	680 00 731 75 375 00 436 68 600 78	3 14 24 15 34	360 00 482 50 481 30 483 00 736 40	14	696 00	40 65 421 490	490 00 570 00 420 00 540 00
*Per mor	ıth.			† P.	er dav.	_		

^{*}Per month.

† Per day.

Table showing the number of persons employed and the average rate of wages, fc.-Continued.

Occupation.	and S Railr	anapolis aint Louis oad Com- pany.	Bloo and M Railr	fayette, mington lississippi oad Com- pany.	Michi ern	Shore a gan Sou Railroa mpany.	d.	ville	and Dan- Railroad mpany.
	No.	Wages.	No.	Wages.	No.	Wage	×6.	No.	Wagos
Superintendents Clerks Master mechanics Conductors Engineers Brakemen Flagmen, switch-tenders, gate-keepers, and watchmea Station-agents Section-men. Laborers Other employés.	75 290 40 54 97 86 46 378 38 173	\$810 84 513 76 899 28 1,173 73 375 24 461 04 681 24 694 76 548 40	1 5 5 9	\$289 80 324 26 612 79 291 76 635 17 459 00 453 00	9 404 8 334 467 596 591 900 4, 245 1, 583	\$2, 254 719 1, 660 915 1, 021 540 496 728 443	00 00 00 00 00 00 00	2 2 4 6 30	\$980 00 1,960 80 540 90 41 65 428 60
Occupation.	catur	and De- Railroad mpany.	Rock Railro	is and Q dad Com-R	uincy, t Saint ailrosc pan		Is	land a	d, Rock and Saint lailroad pany.
Superintendents	No. 1 5 6 6 10 12 2 19 110 10 30	Wages. (1, 900 00 720 00 1, 000 00 840 00 1, 900 00 600 00 480 00 540 00 540 00 750 00	1 6 13 6	1, 200 00 670 00 905 40 973 00 100 00 600 00 396 00 730 00 404 45 313 33	1 8 1, 3 1, 6 6 1, 7 35	900 00 750 00 000 00	1 7 4	\$400 1, 200 900 1, 000 500 \$1. 9	to 1,800 to 1,000
· Occupation.	ton a	Louis, Al- nd Torre e Railroad mpany.	Cort	more and land Rail- Company.	Rails	tern Un coad Co pany.	ion m-	Gener	alaverage.
Superintendents Clerks Master mechanics Conductors Engineers Brakemen Flagmen, switch-tenders, gate-keepers, and watchmen Station-agents	18	\$1,500 00 930 00 608 00 1,148 00 1,030 00 613 00 760 00	1 1 1 1 1	\$600 00 600 00 600 00 600 00	No. 1 41 3 30 31 60	\$1, 320 691 1, 500 868 1, 098 565	00 70 00 00 00 00	No.	\$1,888 23 735 78 1,170 33 906 04 1,081 28 536 59

Table showing the average weekly wages or earnings of railroad-employés in the cities of Bangor, Me., and Chicago, Ill.

Occupation.	Bangor, Me.	Chicago, Ill.	Occupation.	Bangor, Me.	Chicago, Ill.
Locomotive department: Machinists Flue-setters Men at tanks Men at air-brakes Wipers Men at water-house Stationary engineers Watohmen Oilers Laborers Blacksmiths Helpens Forgers Heaters Boiler-makers Stack-makers Coppersmiths Carpenters Pattern-makers Brass-molders	7 50 10 20 12 00 13 50	14 25 8 40 7 50 10 50 11 85 6 25 9 00 7 50 16 50 9 45 94 00 14 70 12 37 13 20 13 50	Car department—Continued. Machinists	13 50 13 75 10 50 7 50 7 50 13 50	8 55 13 80 18 30 16 04 7 50 7 50 8 25 8 25
Car department: Carpenters Repairers Laborers Cabinet-makers Oilers		12 45 8 40 14 25	Station-laborors Stevedores Scalemen Laborors at small stations Station-agents	7 50	10 50 8 95

TRON-FOUNDERY AND MACHINE-SHOP.

Table showing the average weekly wages or earnings of persons employed in an iron-foundary and machine-shop at Salt Lake City, Utah, in the year 1875.

(All persons employed in this factory are paid by the hour, and work from 58 to 60 hours per week.)

Occupation.	Wages,	Articles produced.
Iron-molders Best Machinista Ordinary Inferior Hacksmiths Helpers Foremen Pattern-makers and carpenters Apprentices	\$18 00, \$21 00 to \$24 00 21 00 18 00 15 00 21 00 21 00 12 00 12 00 22 50 15 00, 18 00 to 31 00 3 00 to 12 00	General machinery; smelting-fur- nace castings; from-work for mines; any machine-work that parties are willing to pay for at about 25 per cent above Eastern cost and freight

FURNITURE-MANUFACTURE.

Table showing the average weekly wages or earnings of persons employed in the manufacture of furniture in Vermont and in Utah in the year 1674.

Occupation.	Ver- mont.	Utah.	Occupation.	Ver- mont.	Utah.
Cabinet-makers Chair-makers Carvers Turners Painters Upholsterers	18 00 16 00	\$18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00 18 00	Varnishers. Soroll-sawyers. Laborers Apprentices Clerks	19 00 7 50	\$18 00 18 00 13 00 10 00 23 00

PAPER-MANUFACTURING.

Table showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in paper-mills in the following towns in the year 1873.

Occupation.	Belfast, Me., (working 72 hours per week.)	New Haven, Conn., (working 73 hours per week.)	Dorlan's Mills, Pa., (working 70 hours per week.)	Niagara Falls, N. Y., (working 60 to 72 hours per week.)	Cnyahoga Palls, Obio.	Dayton, Oblo. (working 60 hrs. per week.)	Avernge.
Machine-tenders Assistant tenders Machinists Engineers Foremen Cutters Bleachers Firemen Laborers	\$18 00 12 00 18 00 12 00 10 50 10 50 10 00 9 00	\$18 00 15 00 15 00 15 00	\$12 00 12 00 6 00	\$15 00 12 00 15 00 10 00 10 00 12 00 9 00	\$11 00 15 00 15 00	\$15 00 25 00 12 00	\$14 80 12 00 16 00 13 20 16 33 10 25 10 25 11 00 9 42
Boys Rag-creaners Rag-sorters, (women and girls)	7 00	4 75	5 00	5 00	5 00 5 00	5 00 5 00	5 75 5 00 4 94

PIANO-FORTE MANUFACTURE.

Table showing the average weekly wages or earnings of persons employed in piano-forte manufactories in Boston, Mass., and St. Louis, Mo.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Boston, Mass.	St. Louis, Mo.	Occupation.	Boston, Mass.	St. Louis, Mo.
Case-makers Action-makers Key-makers Tuners of reeds Fly-finishers Varnishers Reed-makers Reed-board makers Carvers Trimming-makers Blacksmiths	98 00 92 00 13 00 90 00 19 00 94 00	\$25 00 94 00 30 00 31 00 96 00 - 18 00 95 00 30 00 30 00 19 00	Gilders Regulators Packers Gig-sawyers Engineers Laborers Apprentices Foremen Teamsters Clerks Book-keepers	18 00 18 00 10 00 6 00	\$30 60 30 60 14 00 20 00 20 00 12 00 5 00 40 00 18 00 18 00

THE SILK INDUSTRY IN AMERICA.

As the rapid growth and great importance of the silk industry seem to require that some account be given of its rise and development in the United States, the following article, prepared by Franklin Allen. esquire, secretary of the Silk Association of America, is presented:

Silk is of Chinese origin; and the silk-worm is indigenous to China and Japan, where it doubtless fed and spun for ages uncared for by man. The annals of the former country attribute its discovery to the Emperor Fan Hi, who is said to have first employed silk in the manufacture of a musical instrument of his own invention 3,400 years previous to the Christian era. The Empress Si Ling Chi, it is alleged, invented silk tissues 2650 years B. C.; and so important were her services considered, that she was placed among the Chinese divinities, and sacrifices annually made to her memory. At a very early day the Chinese had a large traffic in silk with Persia, Greece, and Arabia. It is about fourteen centuries since the production of silk was originally introduced into Europe. A few silk-worm eggs were concealed in the hollow of a bamboo by two monks and brought to Constantinople; but its cultivation was at first slow, as the Chinese were forbidden to reveal the secrets of its production under the penalty of death.

The principal seats of the silk industry in this country are Hartford, Manchester, and Williamstric, Conn.; Paterson, N.J.; New York City; and Philadelphia, Pa. There are also factories at Mansfield, Middletown, Rockville, Watertown, and Norwich, Conn.; Florence, Northampton, Holyoke, and Canton, Mass.; Yonkers, on the Hudson, Oneida, and Sauquoit, near Utica, N.Y.; College Point, Williamsburgh, and Brooklyn, Long Island; Scranton, Pa.; Antrim, N. H.; Brattleborough, Vt.; Williamsburgh, Kans.;

San Francisco, Cal.; and in several other localities.
Within the last thirty-five years there have been many vicissitudes attending the within the last unity-live years there have been many vicisatudes attending the silk manufacture in the United States, commencing with the disastrous and mad speculation in mulberry-trees and silk cocoons in 1839 and 1840. But the domestic silk trade of America is now sufficiently established to afford every encouragement for its continued and greatly-increased prosperity in the future. We already find that its expansion has quadrupled since the passage of the tariff act of June 30, 1864; and we have the highest authority for stating that there are now employed in its production and distribution more hands than were engaged in the same line of trade in France after two hundred years of its existence; while its accelerated progress here is far in advance of that made in any European country for a corresponding length of time. The statistics also show that the importations of China silk into the United States are larger than those of Great Britain for the ten years ending with 1845, and fully equal to those of the same country for the ten years ending with 1850.

The State of Connecticut early became identified with the silk trade. Barber's History of Connecticut (published in 1836) contains the following, under the head of "Mansfield:"

"A larger quantity of silk is manufactured here than at any other place in the United States. This branch of industry was introduced into this country by Dr. Aspinwall, of this place, about 1766, who established the raising of silk-worms in New Haven, Long Island, and Philadelphia. At this period (1766) half an ounce of mulberry-seed was sent to every parish in Connecticut, and the legislature for a time offered a bounty on mulberry-trees and raw silk. Two hundred and sixty-five pounds were raised in 1793, and the quantity has been increasing ever since. In 1830, 3,200 pounds were raised. Two small silk-factories have been established in this town by an English manufacturer. The double wheel-head was invented by Mr. Horace Hanks, about the year 1800, for the purpose of spinning silk. It was first used in the family of Mr. Wright. The first silk reeled from cocoons was the work of the wife of the Rev. Mr. Martin, who had been in France, and had seen the operation in that country."

The growth of silk-culture in Mansfield, as indicated above, steadily rising from 265'

pounds, in 1793, to 3,200 pounds in a period of thirty-seven years, was continuous until 1843-'44, when a blight of the mulberry-trees and other concurrent misfortunes led to an abandonment of silk-culture, not only in that locality, but throughout the country. The three thousand pounds of raw silk which were then (1830) annually produced in

Mansfield could only be disposed of when converted by hand-manufacture into sewing-silk, and for the most part had to be offered in barter. It was hoped that by means of machinery a sewing-silk could be made equal to the Italian, and, like it, capable of being sold for cash instead of being exchanged for goods at irregular valuations. When the machinery was put in motion, about 1831, the serious difficulties of manufacture soon

became manifest. The machinery was very crude, and a Yankee "throwster" of seventeen to-day would scarcely recognize it as bearing any relation to the work. It was capable of doing all that had been claimed for it, but it proved inadequate for the man-

ufacture of American silk, as that was then reeled.

Among those who closely observed the principles of the machinery employed in the silk-mill was Nathan Rixford. He had just established himself as a builder of ma-chinery at Mansfield Hollow. Scarcely was the machinery of the mill complete, when this young man projected considerable improvements upon it, and began construction accordingly. Doubling and winding frames and a spinner made upon his plans were a notable advance on the English machinery of Golding, and many marked features then introduced by Mr. Rixford are retained among the improvements of the silk manufacture of to-day. His success attracted attention. He soon began to receive orders from different parts of the country, and for several years was the principal builder of silk machinery. Prominent among the earlier silk culturists and manufacturers in the New England States were Jonathan H. Cobb, of Dedham, Mass.; the Nantucket Silk Company, of Nantucket, Mass.; Samuel Whitmarsh, of Northampton, Mass.; and Cheney Brothers, of Manchester, Conn. Mr. Whitmarsh and others introduced new varieties of mulberry-trees, prominent among which was the much-vaunted Kulticaulie, and of less celebrity, though more value, the Alpine and the Brussia, the two latter being really worthy of cultivation in this country, while the former, by its utter and wide-spread failure, after being absurdly overrated, brought loss and diagrace on the entire silk industry of the United States.

This industry in America began, as we have seen, with home growth and a home manufacture; the latter originally depended upon the native product, but gained suffi-cient foothold to survive the extinction of American silk culture.

The yearly value of silk goods now made in this country is over \$20,000,000, and there is a constant improvement in style, quality, and mode of finish. Prominent among the leading manufacturers may be mentioned Messrs. Chency Brothers, at South Manchester, Conn., who, though destruction overtook their earlier efforts in rawsilk culture, have been eminently successful in spinning, weaving, dyeing, and all the

branches of the manufacture.

The silk manufacture was early undertaken in other States; by Mr. William H. Horstmann, at Philadelphia, in 1815; by Mr. B. B. Tilt, at Boston, in 1834; by the Nonotuck Silk Company, at Florence, in 1838; by Messrs. Murray & Ryle, Paterson, N. J., in 1840; by Mr. Hirsch Heinemann, at New York, in 1842; by Mr. E. De Boissieu, at Williamsburgh, Kans., in 1869, and in San Francisco, by the California Silk Manufacturing Company, in 1870, for the manufacture of tram, organzine, fringe-silk, sewing-silk, and twist; and in 1674, by the Union Pacific Silk Manufacturing Company, who have undertaken to establish silk-weaving on the Pacific coast.

An interesting feature of the latter enterprise is the proposed employment of Chinese help, for the supply of which the company has made advantageous contracts. As the company presents this feature, and the cheapness of such labor, as one of its conditions of success, the employment of the Chinese in American silk manufacture may be said to be inaugurated. Recent reports state that their labor proves to be very satisfactory, that they are very quick to learn, and that already many are able

to take care of their looms, and are in fact equal to the best white employee.

The importance of the silk manufacture in the single item of affording healthy, clean, and remunerative employment to women and girls is attested in all the States where the manufacture is carried on. While a few persons may be startled by the introduction of Chinese cheap labor in the silk industry as an element of financial success, because the rewards paid to labor form the largest item in the manufacture of textile fabrics, we believe that fears on this subject are groundless. It is not unreasonsble to expect that before long the higher wages of the Caucasian will affect rather than be affected by the rate paid to the Mongolian. At least the experiment is interesting, and the result will be watched with attention.

The representative houses now engaged in the silk business in this country are clas-

sified as follows, namely:

Broad-silk weaving.—Cheney Brothers, South Manchester and Hartford, Conn.; W. A. Machle, West Hoboken, N. J.; P. G. Givernaud & Sons, West Hoboken, N. J.; Herman Simon, Union, N. J.; the Phœnix Silk Manufacturing Company, B. B. Tilt, president, Paterson, N. J.; Hamil & Booth, Paterson, N. J.; John Ryle & Sons, Paterson, N. J.; Frederick Bàarê, Paterson, N. J.; C. Chaffonjon, Hudson City, N. J., and John N.

Stearns & Co., East Forty-second street, New York.

Ribbons, &c.—William Strange & Co., Paterson, N. J.; Dexter, Lambert & Co., Paterson, N. J.; A. Soleliac & Sons, Paterson, N. J.; Pelgram & Meyer, Paterson, N. J.; Werner Itschner & Co., Philadelphia; Silbermann, Heinemann & Co., New York; College Point Silk Mills, Long Island; Hobbey Brothers, Williamsburgh, L. L, and the

Norwich Loom Company, Norwich, Conn.

Thrown-silks, (silk threads.)—Besides many of the above firms who are throwsters as well as broad-silk weavers, the following named make a specialty of the manufacture of tram and organziue: George B. Skinner & Co., Yonkers on the Hudson, N. Y.;

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Wm. Macfarlane, and Wm. H. Copcutt & Co., Yonkers on the Hudson, N. Y.; D. A. Barnes; P. & J. Bannagan, and J. H. Booth & Co., Paterson, N. J.; the Scranton

Barnes; P. & J. Bannagan, and J. H. Booth & Co., raterson, N. J.; the Scranton Silk Company, Scranton, Pa.; the Sauquoit Silk Manufacturing Company, Sauquoit, near Utica, N. Y., and Philadelphia, Pa. Soving-silks and machine-twist.—The Nonotuck Silk Company, Florence, Mass.; Warner & Lathrop, Northampton, Mass.; William Skinner, Holyoke, Mass.; Seavey, Foster & Bowman, Canton, Mass.; Belding Brothers, Rockville, Conn.; O. S. Chaffee & Son, Mansfield, Conn.; Macfarlane Brothers, Mansfield, Conn.; the Holland Manufacturing Company, Masser A. A. & H. F. Conant and C. I. Bottom & Co. Williamontic Son, Mansheld, Conn.; Mactariane Brothers, Mansheld, Conn.; the Holland Manufacturing Company, Messrs. A. A. & H. E. Conant, and C. L. Bottum & Co., Willimantic, Conn.; J. H. Hayden, Windsor Locks, Conn.; P. W. Turner & Co., Turnerville, Conn.; the Heminway Silk Company, Watertown, Conn.; the Excelsior Manufacturing Company, Paterson, N. J.; John Dunlop, Paterson, N. J.; E. J. Watson & Co., Paterson, N. J.; John Lovatt's Sons, Tarrytown, N. Y.; the Singer Manufacturing Company, Newark, N. J.; the Oneida Community, Connecticut and New York; Messrs. Aub, Heckenburg & Co., B. Hooley & Son, Philadelphia, Pa., and the California Silk Manufacturing Company, Newark, N. J.; The Oneida Community, Connecticut and New York; Messrs. Aub, Heckenburg & Co., B. Hooley & Son, Philadelphia, Pa., and the California Silk Manufacturing Company, Newark, N. J.; The Oneida Community, Connecticut and New York; Messrs. Aub, Heckenburg & Co., B. Hooley & Son, Philadelphia, Pa., and the California Silk Manufacturing Company, Newark, N. J.; The Oneida Community, Connecticut and New York; Messrs. Aub, Heckenburg & Co., B. Hooley & Son, Philadelphia, Pa., and the California Silk Manufacturing Company, Newark, N. J.; The Oneida Community, Connecticut and New York; Messrs. Aub, Heckenburg & Co., B. Hooley & Son, Philadelphia, Pa., and the California Silk Manufacturing Company, Newark, N. J.; The Oneida Community, Connecticut and New York; Messrs. Aub, Heckenburg & Co., B. Hooley & Son, Philadelphia, Pa., and the California Silk Manufacturing Company, Philadelphia, Pa., and the California Silk Manufacturing Company, Philadelphia, Pa., and the California Silk Manufacturing Company, Philadelphia, Pa., and the California Silk Manufacturing Company, Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Philadelphia, Pa., and Phil

Hokenburg & Co., B. Hooley & Son, Fillsdeiphia, Fa., and the Camorina Silk Manufacturing Company, San Francisco, Cal.

Braids and bindings.—The Dale Manufacturing Company, Paterson, N. J., and the Novelty Weaving and Braiding Company, Hartford, Conn.

Patent sewing-silk veils.—S. M. Meyenberg, and Prall Brothers, Paterson, N. J.

Ladies' dress-trimmings.—Louis Franke, New York; Bernstein & Mack, New York; J. C. Graham, Philadelphia; Hensel, Colladay & Co., Philadelphia, and M. W. Lipper & Control of the Control Co., Philadelphia. Prominent in this department also is the house of William H. Horstmann & Sons, Philadelphia, who add coach-laces, military goods, and regalia to their varied assortment of silk manufactures.

Guipure, blonde, and Brussels laces .- A. G. Jennings, Nottingham Lace Works, Park

avenue. Brooklyn.

The great middle classes are the patrons of these manufactures, and the time is not far distant when domestic dress silks will be in all respects so perfect in material and color as to come in direct competition with the most finished and costly productions of the looms of Brussels, Lyons, and Paris. In the line of twills and fancy silks, ribbons, sewing-silks, dress-trimmings, and bindings, our manufacturers have already attained deserved distinction; and, in respect to material and finish, these goods will compare favorably with the best imported.

On this point a speaker at a recent banquet of the Silk Association of America said: "When our countrymen learn that silks are being manufactured in their midst to the value of from \$16,000,000 to \$20,000,000 every year, they want to give them a trial; and that, gentlemen, is all we sak. We do not ask our neighbors to buy inferior silks because they are made at home, but we do ask them not to condemn our silks because they have been told they were not made abroad. And, in my judgment, nothing can so further the interests of this industry as to publish far and wide throughout the land the figures representing the extent to which silk goods of American manufacture are

actually consumed."

The silk trade of America has suffered for many years from the overimportation of foreign goods; but people have slowly been made aware of the fact that the cheap and inferior silks of European production are very heavily weighted and adulterated, and they are now supplanting them with the rich and handsome products of our own looms. The rapid strides we have made in supplying our home requirements are seen by a comparison of the value of product and the amount of capital invested in this business in 1860 and 1874. In the former year, the capital was reported at \$2,926,980, which had increased in the succeeding fourteen years to \$14,146,392; amount of wages paid to employes, \$1,050,224, against \$4,470,441; number of operatives, 5,435 for the former year, and 15,310 for the latter; while the value of product was \$6,607,771 in 1860, to be compared with \$19,027,482 at the more recent date.

The total imports of raw-silk in all the ports of the United States were, in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1864, 374,973 pounds; June 30, 1873, 1,159,420 pounds; June 30, 1875, 1,101,681 pounds.

The total imports of foreign silks were, in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1860, foreign gold-cost, \$33,065,820; June 30, 1873, foreign gold-cost, \$29,890,035; June 30, 1875,

foreign gold-sost, \$22,380,916.

The American manufacturers have declared their utter independence of foreign makers, keeping their own designers and cutting their own cards for Jacquard patterns. The Jacquard process was invented years ago, by Joseph Marie Jacquard, and, after superseding hand labor in the manufacture of figured goods, is now doing its works and wonders on both sides of the Atlantic, being now in extensive use among our own manufacturers. The dyeing of silk is a process requiring the greatest care, in connection with both theoretic and practical skill. Great progress has been made in this art in the past few years. The following firms and individuals make a special business of dyeing silk, in addition to the chemists and dyers attached to the principal silk establishments: C. Greppo, Jacob Weidman, Morlot & Stettheimer, and See & Shean, Paterson, N. J.; Rudolph Klauder, and Wm. Derbyshire, Philadelphia, Pa.; Jas. Heidenreick, New York. Digitized by GOOGIC

A great difficulty has long been experienced by importers and manufacturers by reason of the deterioration in the quality and irregularity in the size of the raw material produced in China and other countries. This evil has led the Silk Association of America to consider the expediency of establishing, at New York, a silk-conditioning house, after the manner of those now in successful operation at Lyons and St. Etienne, France. More than half the supply of silk is obtained from North China, and sufficient care should be given to the assortment of sizes, and to the protection afforded by a conditioning process in testing the true weight of silk, which is often fictitiously increased by the absorption of moisture from the atmosphere or from reservoirs of water near which silk may be conveniently placed or stored.

To establish a safeguard in this respect belongs to the province of what is termed "conditioning." The utility of the proposed measure is confirmed by reference to tabular statements of the average result of silk-conditioning for a period covering several years, as received from some of the principal silk markets of Europe. By these reports, we find that between the worst and best samples of raw silk, when properly tested, there is a difference of 3 per cent. in the moisture contained, and that the worst sample of organzine conditioned contained six per cent. more moisture than the best.

Looking back to so many triumphs in the past, it is but fitting that we should take into consideration the establishing of a permanent museum of art and design, like the India House in London. Here might be gathered specimens of manufactured goods of great variety from the varied climes in the lands of the Orient and the Occident, and here might be found scope and verge sufficient to stimulate the hopes and aims of the most ambitious. To imitate these treasures of inventive industry should be the true passport to position and hereditary fame.

SILK MANUFACTURES.

Table showing the rates of weekly wages paid the various class of operatives employed in the silk-industry in the following States in the year 1873.

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NOTE BY THE SECRETARY.—The rates of wages above given are the average of returns received from a number of allk manufacturers in the several States. The returns were received in the spring of the year 1874, and related to the year 1873, during the last four months of which the average rewards of labor were lowered by the consequences of the commercial panic commencing in September of that year.

The rates given may, therefore, be considered the standard of wages earned by the allk operatives in America, so far as they can be expressed in a table of this character.

*In many instances operatives will earn much more than the above rates; especially is this the case with soft-silk winders, warpers, and weavers who work by the piece or by the pound. The wages for these will vary according to the skill of the operative and the quality of silk employed, frequently running as high as \$12 per week for soft-silk winders, and \$20 for male weavers.

PRINTING-OFFICES.

Table showing the rates of weekly earnings, also the price per 1,000 ems, paid to compositors in printing-offices in the following cities in the year 1875.

	9	Per	1,000 e	ms		gj.	Per	1,000 e	ms
Cities.	Weekly wages.	On book-wk.	On morning papers.	On evening papers.	Cities.	Wookly wages.	On book-wk.	On morning papers.	On evening papers.
Albany, N. Y. Annapolis, Md. Baltimore, Md. Boston, Mass. Buffalo, N. Y. Cambridge, Mass. Charleston, S. C. Chicago, Ill. Cincinnati, Ohio. Cleveland, Ohio. Cleveland, Ohio. Columbus, Ohio. Dayton, Ohio. Denver, Colo. Des Moines, Jowa. Detroit, Mich. Hartirsburgh, Pa. Hartford, Conn. Indianapolis, Ind. Jackson, Miss. Jersey City, N. J. Kansas City, Mo. Little Rock, Ark. Louisville, Ky. Memphis, Tenn.	15 to 20 15 18 20 21 21 15 16 16 16 16 15 17 18 18 20 18 18 21 18 21 18 21 18 21 18 22 18 22	Cents. 50 50 50 45 40 45 50 50 50 640 60	Cents. (a) 50 47 45 45 50 40 40 55 35 45 45 65 65 60 50	Cents. (b) 50 42 42 42 42 45 50 37 4 40 40 55 50 60	Milwaukee, Wis Mobile, Ala Montgomery, Ala Nashville, Tenn Newark, N. J New York, N. Y Philadelphia, Pa Pittsburgh, Pa Portland, Me Providence, R. I Raleigh, N. C Richmond, Va Rochester, N. Y Salt Lake City, Utah *San Francisco, Cal Savannah, Ga Scranton, Pa Saint Louis, Mo Syracuse, N. Y Topeka, Kans Troy, N. Y Utica, N. Y Washington, D. C Wilmington, D. C	244 2234 200 18 20 20 20 15 14 to 18 18 24 30 14 to 19 14 to 19 15 15 15 15 19		Cents. 40 60 40 50 50 50 45 50 50 35 55 60 35 40 40 60 80 80 80 80	Cents. 35 60 40 50 40 50 48 45 38 50 50 50 33 45 40 40 40 60 60 60 60 60

a \$18 per week. b \$17 per week. c 50 cents for reprint. s 371 cents for reprint. f 47 cents for reprint. g 48 cents for reprint. *Gold prices.

d 43 cents for reprint.

IV.—EXPENSES

COST OF PROVISIONS, GROCERIES,

Table showing the average retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of States, in the respective years

						,		
Articles.	Mai	ne.	New	Hampa	hire.		Vermont	
	1967.	1869.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
PROVISIONS.								
Flour, wheat, superfine per bbl. Flour, wheat, extra family do Flour, rye do do Corn-meal do Beef, fresh, roasting-pieces per lb. Beef, fresh, roasting-pieces do Beef, fresh, rump-steaks do Beef, fresh, rump-steaks do Beef, for quarters do Yeal, for quarters do Yeal, for quarters do Wal, for quarters do Mutton, for quarters do Mutton, for quarters do Mutton, for quarters do Pork, fresh de Pork, corned and salted do Pork, fresh de Pork, sausages do Pork, sausages do Cod-fish, dry do Cod-fish, dry do Butter do Butter do Potatoes per lb. Beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per lb. Beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per lb. Beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per qt. Milk do December 10 de Cod-fish de Port beans per lb.	\$12 35 13 10 7 00 3 04 15 66 94 15 15 11 12 13 16 11 19 20 20 20 20 21 13 14 07	90 15 9 40 6 33 9 38 14 06 93 110 111 15 15 109 111 16 22 22 21 18 19 9 34 18 19 19 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 12 14 16 17 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	\$13 10 14 40 8 50 3 50 15 50 15 13 18 18 18 19 17 19 17 19 17 19 17 19 18 18 18 18 18 19 17 19 19 17 19 19 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 1	9 81 7 991 8 90 9 84 113 113 118 119 118 22 23 217 21 21 22 23 24 24 25 26 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27	\$7 17 8 75 5 77 3 92 16 07 10 11 15 50 11 17 17 14 14 14 16 16 16 16 16 17 18 16 16 11 11 16 16 16 11 11 11 11 11 11	\$13 95 13 00 80 14 90 15 16 16 16 16 16 17 17 18 1	\$10 12 9 75 7 00 18 18 12 9 11 10 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	#6 96 7 67 5 87 5 87 5 87 5 87 5 87 5 87 6 87 6
→ 880		28	30	31	311	25	27	27
GEOCERIES, ETC. Tes, Colong or good blackper lb. Coffee, Rio, greendo Coffee, Rio, roasteddo Sugar, good browndo Sugar, good browndo Sugar, gollow Cdo Gogar, coffee Bdo Molasses, New Orleanspor gall. Molasses, Forto Ricodo Sirupdo Soap, commonper lb. Starchdoper ton. Fuel, coalper ton. Fuel, pine, wooddo DOMESTIC DEY-GOODS, ETC.	1 06 30 37 15 15 16 90 79 1 00 1 17 9 50 5 55 3 15 66	1 00 27 34 15 15 17 93 84 1 00 12 16 11 20 6 00 3 15 49	1 30 38 41 14 15 16 1 00 90 1 28 13 16 10 20 6 90 4 44 61	1 18 30 40 15 15 17 88 85 1 15 18 11 33 7 35 4 81 46	77 324 364 099 104 118 86 704 634 094 10 50 6 22 3 89	1 40 99 39 14 15 18 1 00 84 1 25 13 14 15 00 5 66 4 00	1 98 33 40 14 15 17 1 97 34 1 16 13 15 11 75 5 50	1 37 274 34 004 107 11 90 71 874 06 12 6 77 6 98 4 75
DOMESTIC DEL-GOODS, MIC.			ا ا			١	١.,	
Shirtings, brown, 44, standard quality per yd. Shirtings, bleached, 44, standard quality per yd. Sheetings, brown, 98, standard quality	17	17	18	18	124	17	18	101
	16	16	19	19	13	19	17	191
Sheetings, blevched, 9-8, standard quality per yd. Cotton, fiannel do. Ticking, good quality do. Prints, Merrimac do. Mousseline de laines do. Satinets, medium quality do. Boots, men's hoavy per pair.	20 95 33 14 90 74 5 00	21 25 33 14 21 70 4 83	92 94 37 16 94 77 4 85	91 94 36 15 94 65 4 37	15+ 17+ 29+ 10 99+ 93 4 03	99 95 99 14 91 58 50	95 95 98 15 99 56 4 50	16 177 294 10 214 79
HOUSE-REST. Four-roomed tenementsper mo- Six-roomed tenementsdo	4 50 6 40	4 45 6 45	4 25 7 26	5 30 7 70	6 85 9 52	4 00 4 50	5 00 7 60	9 59 . 10 33
For menper week.	3 70 9 70	3 79 2 70	4 00 3 06	3 90 9 85	4 02 2 91	4 66 3 00	4 50 2 62	4 00 3 33

OF LIVING.

DRY-GOODS, HOUSE-RENT, ETC.

consumption, also prices of house-rent and board, in the towns of the several New England 1867, 1869, and 1874.

Ma	seachuse	itta.	RI	hode Isla	and.	C	mnection	nt.	Averag	e in Nev land.	Fing-
1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1969.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
\$14 66 15 65 15 65 4 74 26 08 15 15 16 26 18 26 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	\$9 28 10 51 6 47 4 22 24 08 55 15 119 27 114 20 20 20 20 20 21 22 23 23 23 23 24 26 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27	\$8 64 9 47 6 30 9 22 10 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 13 18 19 17 17 16 17 17 16 17 17 18 19 17 17 18 19 17 17 18 18 19 17 18 18 19 17 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	\$18 27 13 12 6 00 3 80 09 15 15 16 12 22 24 24 29 19 19 19 20 20 21 22 21 22 21 22 21 22 21 22 21 21 22 22	\$9 70 10 40 15 50 3 06 621 23 23 23 24 24 24 29 20 20 21 23 21 23 24 24 24 25 26 27 27 28 29 20 20 21 21 21 22 21 22 21 21 21 21 21 21 21	\$8. 91 9 10 4 25 3 13 9 10 11 2 12 11 12 13 14 14 14 14 14 15 15 17 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	\$14 00 10 24 4 20 12 13 16 16 16 19 20 20 20 20 20 21 19 21 19 21 19 21 19 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21	\$9 61 10 92 7 75 3 75 21 11 23 16 16 19 23 15 21 22 23 24 10 16 16 19 21 22 23 24 24 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64	\$8 12 9 12 6 75 4 12 0 09 17† 12 14 18 21 15 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17	\$19 55 15 10 10 12 4 30 09 20 20 20 21 21 21 21 21 21 20 20 21 20 20 21 21 20 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21	\$9 53 10 12 6 72 3 58 99 93 14 13 16 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21	\$7 89 8 80 5 78 3 83 18 06 19 11 12 15 21 13 17 16 16 13 16 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17
1 93 33 43 15 15 16 96 83 1 34 13 16 10 00 8 55 6 17 62	1 25 30 41 15 16 1 15 88 1 25 13 15 11 06 8 72 6 72 47	84 22 364 094 10 10 83 764 934 917 772 625	1 20 37 45 15 16 16 1 05 89 1 11 14 8 50 7 25 6 68	1 11 32 40 12 15 16 1 03 88 1 11 11 10 50 7 21 6 71 49	74 33½ 37½ 09½ 10½ 11 86 73½ 92½ 09 11½ 9 50 7 42 5 92 23½	1 20 32 36 15 16 18 1 00 90 1 21 13 15 10 55 7 00 5 50	1 20 32 36 15 16 18 1 00 90 1 21 13 15 10 55 7 00 5 50	92 24 30 104 111 11 89 76 1 10 09 14 8 83 7 33 4 00 25	1 23 40 14 15 17 98 84 1 18 13 15 10 59 6 81 4 99	1 17 31 38 14 15 17 1 03 87 1 15 19 6 11 06 6 96 5 38 48	93 28 35 10 10 11 17 73 93 09 12 8 95 6 95 4 96 21
21	17	113	18	17	11	18	18	10	18	18	11
21	18	143	22	20	121	21	21	13	20	19	13
21	19	134	25	20	151	20	20	.14	19	19	13
94 30 41 17 25 67 5 02	22 26 36 15 23 68 4 88	148 193 248 10 248 58 4 03	30 35 40 16 24 87 4 50	25 33 38 15 24 70 4 50	19 184 254 10 25 674 3 79	23 30 34 15 25 80 4 90	93 30 34 15 95 80 4 90	16 20 25 10 21 50 3 56	24 28 36 15 23 74 4 84	93 27 35 15 23 69 4 66	16 16 94 10 92 68 3 87
8 77 11 74	9 70 13 08	5 10 6 95	3 39 3 91	3 26 3 92	4 45 5 70	4 85 6 25	5 19 7 00	3 28 4 75	4 96 6 84	5 47 7 62	5 85 7 45
4 68 3 41	4 70 3 52	4 19 3 10	3 70 3 00	3 95 3 25	4 04 2 87	4 72 3 71	4 72 3 71	3 81 2 62	4 34 3 14	4 93 3 09	4 00

Table showing the average retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of in the respective year

	Ne	w Yor	k.	New	Jerse	у.	Penn	sylvar	ia
Articles.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
PROVISIONS.									
FROVISIONS. Flour, wheat, superfine per bbl. Flour, wheat, extra family do. Flour, rye do. Corn-meal do. Beef, fresh, roasting-pieces per lb. Boef, fresh, soup-pieces do. Beef, fresh, rump-steaks do. Beef, fresh, rump-steaks do. Veal, fore quarters do. Veal, fore quarters do. Veal, fore quarters do. Mutton, fore quarters do. Mutton, fere quarters do. Mutton, fere quarters do. Mutton, fere quarters do. Mutton, fore quarters do. Pork, corned or salted do. Pork, corned or salted do. Pork, hams, smoked do. Pork, shoulders do. Lard do. Cod.fish, dry do. Mackerel, pickled do. Mackerel, pickled do. Mackerel, pickled do. Cheese do. Potstoos per bus. Rice per lb. Beans per qt. Milk do. GEOCERIES, ETC.	\$12 50 11 35 8 16 5 18 19 10 21 14 14 15 16 16 16 17 17 20 18 22 19 09 99 16 35 17 08 25	\$7 85 7 80 6 5 8 3 65 19 20 114 113 116 20 20 114 117 118 119 122 24 14 12 14 14 15 16 17 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	\$7 50 9 12 9 12 4 25 4 15 6 08 15 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	\$14 12 13 50 9 40 9 5 50 23 14 17 22 26 14 18 18 18 18 18 23 20 22 20 20 11 11 11 14 47 72 26 13 33 36 13 36 36 37 38 38 38 38 38 38 38 38 38 38 38 38 38	\$9 68 9 00 92 14 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 13 39	\$8 00 10 17 4 25 3 55 90 90 90 113 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	12 44 8 65 5 18 12 17 13 13 12 13 12 13 15 15 16 23 20 10 10 13 32 22 10 10 11 11 11 11 11 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 17 18 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	\$7 53 7 75 6 4 38 112 18 14 111 113 111 113 116 117 119 118 119 119 119 119 119 119 119 119	7 00 7 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5
Tea.Oolong or other good black per lb. Coffee, Rio, green do. Coffee, Rio, roested do. Sugar, good brown do. Sugar, gollow C. do. Sugar, coffee B. do. Molasses, New Orleans per gall. Molasses, Porto Rico do. Sirup. do. Scap, common per lb. Starch do. Fuel, coal per ton. Fuel, wood, hard per cord. Fuel, wood, pine do. Oil, coal per gall.	1 28 31 36 14 15 16 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	1 12 29 33 15 16 17 1 02 88 1 18 12 13 8 10 6 30 4 12 46	99 29 34 34 09 10 11 11 80 77 97 08 18 5 27 4 18 18 18	14 15 16 1 04 67 1 14 11 15 7 90 6 60 7 00	1 53 31 38 14 15 16 1 04 89 1 18 11 14 8 84 5 40 6 50 55	90 25 334 094 10 11 964 734 1 00 07 131 6 92 9 00 9 00 23	81 1 96 09	1 35 28 31 16 17 17 1 12 77 1 16 08 13 4 44 4 00 2 72 50	97 78 89 08 11 5 60
Shirtings, brown, 44, standard quality per yard. Shirtings, bleached, 44, standard quality per yard. Sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard quality per yard. Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, standard quality per yard. Cotton-flannel, medium quality do. Tickings, good quality do. Tickings, good quality do. Mousseline de laines do. Satinets, medium quality do. Boots, men's heavy per pair	18 24 26 28 30 35 15 24 77 4 62	18 20 21 28 28 34 11 23 67 4 40	123 15 15 203 214 204 11 204 11 204 4 22	25 28 32 28 44 16	28 28 25 37 15 28 25 37 15 23 65	134 164 15 16 18 264 101 19 65 4 50	24 32 35 26 42	90 94 98 34 93 23 15 23 82 5 19	134 134 174 194 19 20 21 21 440
Four-roomed tenementsper mo. Six-roomed tenementsdo BOARD. For men, (mechanics, &c.)per week.	11 20	8 40 11 20	6 76 10 58 4 29	7 70 11 80	10 46 14 95	16 00 20 00 5 00	6 16 9 74 5 19	4 40 9 30 4 40	9 37 12 70

consumption, with prices of house-rent and board, in the towns of the several Middle States, 1867, 1869, and 1874.

I	elaware.			Lary land		We	st Virgi	nia.	Averag	e of the States.	Middle
1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
\$14 00 15 00 5 00 5 00 19 15 18 12 14 16 18 15 17 18 20 25 25 22 21 25 08 10 10 10 10	\$7 00 00 4 00 18 15 12 14 15 15 15 18 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	\$6 19 7 69 114 119 129 139 139 129 139 149 149 124 124 126 149 156 167 168 168 168 168 168 168 168 168 168 168	\$12 00 14 00 5 00 90 90 90 90 17 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90	\$7 00 8 00 5 00 15 16 18 18 18 18 18 18 25 20 20 20 20	\$6 41 8 08 5 88 4 37 12 10 13 11 15 15 11 15 17 17 12 18 16 16 16 16 19	\$11 47 14 25 8 08 4 09 12 08 14 14 11 11 15 08 11 14 11 14 16 16 16 18 09 19	\$6 58 8 14 5 32 7 11 08 12 12 13 10 11 15 18 21 16 19 19 19 19	\$6 11 7 29 5 33 1 11 10 12 12 12 11 11 14 14 14 11 13 13 13 14 14 11 13 13 13 14 14 14 14 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16 16	213 20 101 131	\$7 60 8 11 5 98 4 17 13 16 19 11 15 17 17 17 20 1 22 21 22 22 23 31 14 42	\$6 87 8 35 5 38 4 10 10 10 12 13 13 13 15 15 17 15 17 17 19 16 16 16 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19
50 92 1 00 12 10 05 35	50 25 60 10 08 03 40	45 21 1 09 12 10 09 34	40 25 75 15 10 10 28	40 25 1 00 13 10 10 22	20 27 23 76 1 111 09 071 25	29 23 91 15 11 09	09 12 27 23 61 13 10 09 16	29 24 97 111 09 09	391 23 1 00 14	42 234 79 124 10 1 084 29	36 201 93 11 10 081 28
1 25 28 30 18 16 14 1 00 1 00 08 8 00 4 00 60	1 00 30 35 17 16 13 90 90 1 20 08 08 9 00 5 00 5 00	73 224 344 092 104 110 121 75 834 06 10 6 10 6 50 5 25	1 50 36 35 16 17 19 75 1 25 08 12 8 50 4 00 3 50	1 25 30 35 15 18 19 960 106 12 8 50 4 00 3 50	1 10 27 31 31 12 11 11 10 5 83 90 00 12 12 12 12 13 3 83 3 50 22	1 69 31 31 35 35 17 18 19 1 12 88 1 35 10 17 3 41 3 05	1 40 28 32 16 17 19 1 02 86 1 21 09 15 3 28 2 87	1 01 22 32 12 12 13 13 96 73 99 09 09 10 3 89 4 10 3 16	1 41 32 36 16 16 16 17 1 02 87 1 20 13 6 65 4 89 4 25 63	1 28 29 34 15½ 16½ 17 7 95 86 1 32 90 13 7 09 4 60 4 17 52	94 28 33 100 11 11: 95 77 77 92 08 11: 5 69 4 90 24
35	30	12}	. 28	25	13	21	18	114	233	21 1	12{
32	25	13	40	28	18	25	23	13	281	231	15
35	30	13	i	25	321	2 8	24	13	1	25	18
35 30 50 31 37 1 25 6 75	30 25 40 18 20 90 6 00	21 <u>1</u> 15 33 <u>1</u> 11 <u>1</u> 24 <u>1</u> 49 3 25	65	37 28 50 18 25 50 5 25	35 16 32 10 23 90 4 50	30 29 49 19 27 1 02 6 19	26 24 39 15 25 81 5 44	15 17 33 11 20 73 4 33	34 29 471 191 26 1 09 5 61	301 251 38 151 23 72 5 21	21; 18 26 11 21; 69 4 20
4 00 5 00	4 00 5 00	8 50 11 12	6 00 10 00	6 00 10 00	9 00 13 25	7 16 10 32	6 96 10 27	11 70 19 10	6 59 9 66	6 70 10 12	10 92 14 59
5 00 3 00	5 00 4 00	4 62 3 50	4 00 3 50	4 00 3 50	3 871 3 25	4 33 3 96	4 16 3 83	4 33 3 29	4 66 3 59	4 46 3 63	4 45 3 43

Table showing the average retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of States, in the respective years

,							ske resj		
Articles.	v	irginia	•	North	h Carol	lina.	South	Carol	ina.
	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
PROVISIONS.									
Flour, wheat, superfine per bbl Flour, wheat, extra family do Flour, rye do Corn-meal do Beef, fresh, ronsting-pieces per lb Beef, fresh, soup-pieces do Beef, fresh, soup-pieces do Beef, fresh, rump-steaks do Beef, forend de Veal, fore quarters do Veal, hind quarters do Mutton, fore quarters do Mutton, leg do Mutton, leg do Mutton, leg do Pork, fresh do Pork, corned or salted do Pork, saussages do Lard do Cod-fish, dry do Mackerel, pickled do Matchese do Date do Matchese do Matchese per bus Rice per lb Beans per qt Milk do Eggs per do Eggs ger GROCERIES, ETC.	\$9 95 11 86 7 96 4 20 13 09 14 111 115 110 112 112 114 116 116 118 23 217 119 20 20 20 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21	\$6 61 8 09 4 14 12 12 12 12 12 11 13 13 10 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13	\$6 59 7 61 11	\$10 72 12 14 6 00 5 25 09 07 07 08 08 08 08 08 08 11 11 13 19 22 12 18 19 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21	\$9 50 10 64 66 66 66 67 67 66 68 67 67 67 67 69 68 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69 69	\$6 50 8 83 07½ 12½ 15 05 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	15 50 13 00 7 08 12 08 12 14 14 11 13 117 12 12 12 23 25 25 20 20 24 17 17 17 17 17 28 18 28 18 18 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	\$9 62 10 75 15 10 00 10 11 11 12 10 10 11 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12	\$9 000 11 000 11 000 11 000 11 000 11 000 11 000 11 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12
Tea, Oolong or other good black per lb. Coffee, Rio, green	1 56 28 31 16 18 20 1 09 64 97 11 17 10 93 3 81 3 43 67	1 45 27 27 16 16 17 19 1 01 83 89 10 16 10 78 3 54 2 86 59	1 27 20:13 31:13 10:11 11:12 90 60 85 07:3 1 59 4 44 3 75 33	1 89 29 33 18 17 20 99 84 1 16 09 18 2 53 2 19 77	1 94 30 33 31 19 20 98 79 1 14 09 19 2 05 1 89 72	1 00 268 40 123 113 134 86 67 75 66 074 11 8 00 3 17 3 50 414	55 21 21 21 1 36 1 12 1 35 14 21 5 33 3 33	1 77 99 30 17 18 19 1 92 84 1 14 17 4 81 3 95	1 2 3 3 3 5 6 6 1 2 5 6 6 1 2 5 6 6 6 1 2 5 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6
Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard quality per yard. Shirtings, blesched, 4-4, standard quality per yard. Sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard quality per yard. Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, standard quality per yard. Cotton-finanel, medium quality do Tickings, good quality do Prints, Merrimac do Mousseline de laines do Satineta, medium quality do Boots, men's heavy per pair	92 26 34 36 32 40 18 90 50 5 47	19 23 23 34 28 34 15 26 66 4 96	11 13 24 258 21 333 11 33 523 4 58	19 24 50 50 29 38 17 29 84 4 78	19. 22. 38. 39. 27. 35. 16. 27. 73. 4.47.	13 154 104 114 19 28 114 25 60 4 00	33 38 33 47 21 34 79 6 50	19 95 33 31 37 38 16 38 72 5 98	
Four-roomed tenementsper mo. Six-roomed tenementsdo BOARD.	9 57 13 64	9 10 12 97	17 17 94 83	6 25 9 00	6 06 8 56	14 75 20 00	19 33 16 66	10 56 15 6±	
For men, (mechanics, &c.)per week. For women in factoriesdo	4 56 4 20	4 47 3 87	5 06 3 63	3 31 3 06	3 40 2 90	3 75 2 83	6 41 6 06	4 87 4 50	7 04

consumption, with prices of house-rent and board, in the towns of the following Southern 1867, 1869, and 1874.

	Georgia.			Florida.		1	Alabama		M	ississipp	i.
1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
12 03 14 96	\$0 54 10 37 8 00 5 70 13 15 10 113 13 13 14 17 24 24 115 40 115 40 115 40 115 40 115 40 115 40 115 40 115 40 115 40 115 40 41 41 41 41 41 41 41 41 41 41 41 41 41	\$6 75 8 50			\$6 19 9 50 8 00 6 25 19 00 09	\$11 14 14 00 8 75 5 10 12 10 13	\$8 38 10 90 4 11 10 08 12 12 11 14 10 12 12 12 11 14 10 12 11 14 11 17 12 18 12 18 11 18 12 18 13 18 14 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 1	\$6 68 8 18 8 00 3 90	\$19 90 13 40	\$8 97 10 72	\$7 75 8 25
5 40 14	5 70 11	4 47 11			6 X5	5 10 12	4 54 11	3 90	6 80 15	5 67 12	4 83 104 08 111 110 100 100 102 122 111 113 144 16 16 16 19 18 111 111 111 111 112 113 33 34 14 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10
10 16	09 13	15 15			09 09	10 13	08 12	05+104 114 128 114 107 114 108 144 108 144 108 114 1104 1104	09 130 139 139 131 17 180 347 250 277 144 250 14 250 14 250 17	08 12	08 11
18 13	15 12	13 1 10 1			171 175 175 175 175 175 175 175 175 175	15 14	19 19	12 111	90 12	14 10	11} 10
15	13	15			90 95	16 18	14	121	19	12	10
ii	10	131			15	ii	10	00.1	ii	11	07
14 15	13 13	15	. .		90 95	13 15	12 12	11 11	17	13 15	12
16	15 17	12 191			90 14	16 18	14 17	10	16 90	13	11
31	21	15 13 13 15 15 12 12 13 13			15	23	23	14	24	23	14
17	17	10			10	25 17	19	16 101	21	30	10
25 24	24 24	163			95 19	27 23	23 23	18 181	30 25	26 25	90 18
13	12	20 25 30 20			09	14	12	141	17	13	11
39	40	30			35	41	39	32	44	37	33
1 80	1 69	80 80			1 50	1 14	1 14	1 36	1 50	1 28	1 25
13	11 15	· 104			10 121	17	14 17	10 <u>1</u>	14	14 18	00 12
14 10 16 18 13 15 17 11 14 15 16 18 18 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	14 27	80 104 124 90 21			90° 95	15 116 180 133 156 180 255 177 231 414 193 114 193 193 194 194 194 194 194 194 194 194 194 194	13 27	101 20	17 30	5 67 108 114 109 116 113 115 118 217 226 114 137 15 118 217 226 114 137 17 12 12 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13	10 22
1 80 30 36 18 90 90 94 15 12 80 18 19 44 44 3 93	1 71 97 33 119 18 19 91 74 1 12 10 15 12 80 3 93 3 28 67	1 25 26 21 11 12 13 87 55 55 80 08 18 2 3 50 4 00			1 00 95 471 10 11 12 50 621 50 67 08 10	9 20 31 16 19 18 1 15 1 00 1 42 10 91 8 00 3 39 9 2 75 95	2 03 29 16 18 19 1 06 75 1 32 10 18 8 55 3 47 2 75 77	1 24 96 35 104 12 124 70 97 09 13 8 40 4 20 4 30	1 90 93 90 14 1 95 1 03 1 44 15 16 00 4 00 3 25	1 87 27 31 17 20 21 1 06 90 1 25 15 12 67 4 00 3 34 70	1 18 23; 30 111 12; 13; 13; 16; 60 90 10 12;
19	18	114	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		09	20	19	104	2 5	91	11
24 24	22 23	14 <u>1</u> 16 <u>1</u>			10 15	99 47	33 21	151	30 32	23 31	15 15
	İ	1			ŀ	1	1	-	l		l
32	26	15 22] 34			15 121	33	27	231	29	36 27 43 17	16
19	16	111			18 09 18	53 33 43 17 33	39 27 41 16 32	17 234 31 104 203 75	49 99 54 99 35 70	17 30	10
28 32 48 19 31 68 5 51	25 26 40 16 27 73 4 86	414 384 4 58			521 5 50	5 00	69 4 55	75 4 42	70 6 40	5 05	17 16 92 10 96 40 3 25
18 50 26 50	15 99 99 50	95 00 35 00			91 50 97 50	94 43 39 43	90 60 29 00	16 75 21 87	21 00 28 00	18 69 94 63	9 90 15 00
5 83 5 98	1 72 4 58	4 00 2 15			5 00 3 50	5 41 5 10	4 63 4 60	3 75 2 95	6 33 4 83	4 84 4 43	3 7: 2 5:

Table showing the average retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading

Articles.	L	caiaire	.		Pexas.		A	rkansa	.
Armoios.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869	1674
PROVISIONS.									
Flour, wheat, superfine per bbl. Flour, wheat, extra family do Flour, wheat, extra family do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, rye do Flour, fresh do Flour, rye	10 09 11 14 14 13 15 14 16 19 16 91	87 64 10 05 5 22 19 08 8 10 13 13 15 16 16 19 18 19 44 18 90 92 13 11 17 17	66 00 7 75 5 50 4 12 4 12 2 22 2 15 15 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	17	\$8 95 9 65 3 46 40 03 3 46 05 07 07 07 07 12 15 17 19 15 17 20 31 61 15 10 14	8 06 75 75 78 8 8 9 75 75 8 8 9 75 75 76 76 76 76 76 76 76 76 76 76 76 76 76	\$13 00 15 00 16 00 2 95 111 112 123 608 811 114 114 115 118 128 233 233 233 233 234 238 231 231 231 231 231 231 231 231 231 231	99 00 10 65 9 90 9 98 9 06 06 06 07 13 15 11 11 21 22 27 18 31 17 19 11 15 17 19 11 15 17 18 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	05 00 6 50
GROCERIES, ETC. Cea, Colong, or other good black per lb. coffee, Rio, green	9 90 30 38 91 90 19 1 15 93 1 53 1 3	1 92 98 34 15 17 17 90 82 1 27 10	70 95 324 094 11 114 65 471 85 06	1 61 29 40 16 18 18 90 61 1 19 12 17	1 66 94 40 16 18 19 90 81 1 21 11	1 04 97 31 10 13 13 88 87 1 09 10	2 42 21 21 23 1 10 1 02 1 52 11	19 19 18 90 98 1 00 1 38 10 17	7 2 2 14 14 14 7 7
loap, common	7 50 6 66 3 25 82	6 00 5 00 59	6 00 5 00 3 50 994	3 12 2 58 93	2 90 2 13 95	19 00 5 83 5 75 524	3 05 4 37 6 00 90	5 00 3 34 4 79 78	8 0 4 8 6 8
Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard qual- ity per yd. Shirtings, bleached, 4-4, standard qual- ity per yd.	96 97	93 93	351 30	19 26	18 22	11 2 12 1	27 25	92 99	15
sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard qual- ity per yd. Sheetings, blesched, 9-8, standard	46	39	30	30	26	14	27	38	1
quality per yd. otton-fiannel, medium quality .do. clokings, good quality .do. rints, Merrimae .do. do. dousseline de laines .do. satinets, medium quality .do. 300ts, men's heavy per pair	48 36 40 19 37 66 5 80	41 97 32 16 33 63 5 20	8 72 80 134 30 33 33 34	34 26 50 18 30 84 5 20	30 95 44 15 28 83 4 37	15 18 25 10 22 67 87	27 38 55 21 47 1 26 6 56	39 32 48 17 36 90 5 40	1 9 1 9 1 4
HOUSE-RENT. Four-roomed tenementsper month.	16 17	17 98	92 50	14 00	16 40	90 83	90 09	19 19	39 (1
ix-roomed tenementsdo	22 00	24 98	32 50		24 25		37 00		40 0
evenu.		i i	1 1					1	

articles of consumption, with prices of board and house-rent, &c.—Continued.

1	Kentucky	•	7	onnesse.	8.		Missour	.	Average	e of the	South-
1967.	1869.	1874.	1967.	1969.	1874.	1967.	1969.	1874.	1967.	1869.	1874.
\$10 86 19 56 6 40 3 42 11 07 12 11 109 11 109 10 11 10 11 10 11 10 11 11 11 11 11 11	\$6 50 7 70 5 53 3 11 00 11 14 08 09 10 11 14 19 11 15 16 17 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	\$5 00 6 21 5 75 3 06 6 6 11 10 10 12 15 10 11 11 12 13 11 11 12 13 14 14 14 16 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	\$10 15 11 44 4 83 09 08 08 10 09 08 08 10 10 10 11 17 19 14 14 14 14 19 10 11 10 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	\$6 78 8 00 4 58 06 05 5 08 07 07 09 11 11 10 12 17 20 15 17 20 13 10 19 11 19	\$6 30 6 33 6 63 10 07 11 10 10 10 10 10 12 10 13 10 13 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	19 10 13 17	\$6 95 7 80 6 31 13 63 110 100 100 113 114 115 114 119 115 114 119 115 114 119 111 119 111 119 111 119 111 119 119 111 119 119 111 119	\$5 50 6 75 4 50 3 00 114 03 114 114 114 116 110 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	08 111 121 11 11 13 13 131 131 131 17 191 23 171	\$8 08 9 61 7 08 4 42 100 101 103 109 11 113 108 109 111 121 112 113 123 133 134 144 133 134 144 133 134 144 133 134 144 133 134 144 133 134 144 134 13	\$6 56 8 10 6 31 4 29 11 108 128 129 114 14 109 13 13 13 16 16 16 10 16 16 16 11 12 13 13 16 16 16 16 16 17 18 18 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19
2 00 30 37 18 18 19 1 08 87 1 47 11 14 7 47 3 85 3 17 71	1 91 28 34 17 18 1 07 90 1 96 19 19 3 76 3 37 61	1 00 26 31 10 11 18 89 85 07 3 08 4 69	2 40 33 32 20 20 21 1 12 1 58 11 1 19 7 27 3 21 3 03 88	1 93 30 30 17 17 18 1 02 87 1 41 10 17 7 00 9 80 9 75	1 10 98 33 12 12 13 90 75 95 00 3 80 4 50 • 36§	1 69 30 34 18 17 15 97 1 38 09 14 5 78 3 87 2 00 69	1 65 98 32 17 18 90 1 04 95 1 34 02 13 6 42 3 77 9 00 56	78 261 331 111 113 60 80 80 12 00 5 00 4 00 221	9 00 30 30 19 181 90 1 10 91 1 24 118 8 75 4 11 3 24 85	1 83 88 39 17 18 19 1 02 93 1 22 106 8 80 3 70 3 11 69	1 04 26 26 34 10] 11 12 85 68 90 08 35 4 17 4 10 33
20	18	13	۵۱	19	12	293	18	113	293	90	12
26	90	14	26	22	14	27	25	137	95	23	15
34	31	93	29	30	14	34	28	35	35	30	19
35 33 46 16 39 1 03 5 36	33 28 38 14 28 87 4 97	251 19 32 10 24 66 3 83	35 33 51 90 . 35 . 89 5 58	39 39 46 16 29 89 4 73	15 19 30 10 27 73 3 90	41 37 54 17 32 95 5 62	27 29 42 14 26 86 5 10	40 80 85 113 85 65 4 85	39 33 47 19 34 87 5 70	34 28 40 16 30 73 4 90	90 19 98 11 96 64 4 03
13 02 17 78	19 79 17 45	6 90 9 80	12 25 17 52	12 18 17 12	12 10 19 87	14 80 19 80	12 00 16 14	16 00 20 00	15 90 91 95	14 90 20 15	17 10 17 15
4 43 4 12	4 98 4 04	3 93 3 00	4 75 3 95	3 80 3 35	3 62 3 00	5 80 4 50	4 99 3 84	4 95 3 50	5 17 4 40	4 47 4 14	4 60 3 03

Table showing the average retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of in the respective years

	,	Ohio.		Ir	adiana	•	340	ichigar	.
Articles.	1867.	1869.	1674.	1967.	1869.	1874	1867.	1869.	1874
PROVISIONS.									
PROVISIONS. Flour, wheat, superfine	\$12 71 12 88 7 70 3 63 15 16 11 10 16 11 11 12 14 11 12 14 11 17 16 21 11 11 12 11 11 12 11 11 12 11 11 12 11 11	\$6 41 6 88 4 90 15 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 11 11 11 11	\$5 70 6 37 5 19 5 19 5 19 5 19 6 37 19 2 10 10 10 10 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	\$10 87 12 16 8 28 4 05 13 10 14 11 10 12 14 10 11 13 15 16 24 16 16 10 11 13 28 22 22 27 14 12 17	\$5 66 6 38 5 3 75 3 19 20 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	86 12 6 50 3 30 13 13 13 13 16 16 12 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13	\$10 87 11 67 8 49 4 84 15 10 106 16 111 10 12 114 14 16 19 23 16 19 23 111 111 111 113 114 115 116 119 23 116 119 23 116 119 24 25 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27	66 17 7 14 6 6 09 4 18 16 6 17 7 14 19 18 15 15 15 15 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	86 00 6 72 6 00 3 60 11 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12
GROCERIES, ETC. Tea, Colong or other good black per lb Coffee, Rio, green	1 64 33 36 16 19 1 33 1 07 1 44 12 14 6 59 3 45	1 44 20 32 15 16 17 1 12 96 1 29 11 1 3 3 43	1 01 26 31 10 11 12 95 84 96 08 10 3 75 3 86 4 00 22	1 69 32 36 17 17 18 16 1 14 1 00 1 46 10 10 13 5 03 3 49 3 50 64	1 64 28 39 16 17 18 1 08 90 1 33 10 19 5 05 3 42	94 301 371 111 112 92 75 1 10 071 3 77 3 75	1 60 34 37 19 1 19 1 106 1 46 19 19 19 66 3 60 1 86 67	1 46 81 34 15 16 1 96 1 33 11 11 96 3 26 1 85 47	1023
Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard qual- ity per yd. Shirtings, blesched, 4-4, standard qual-	83	18	11	20	18	121	21	17	15
ntyper yu.	27	223	14	94	20	15	27	22	15
ityper yd. Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, standard qual-	25	21	171	95	21	25	30	25	1
Shectings, brown, 9-8, standard quality	34 31 43 19 28 1 09 5 78	29 27 37 14 24 76 5 10	20 17 31 10 901 84 4 69	39 32 45 16 27 94 5 41	25 28 39 14 24 85 5 05	15 30 114 184 75 4 83	38 35 44 17 28 92 5 76	31 99 36 13 93 85 5 16	1 2 1 1 5 6
HOUSE-RENT.					. ~	9 00			ļ., ~
Four-roomed tenementsper month. Six-roomed tenementsdo BOARD.	8 69 12 79	7 53 10 73	8 92 12 77	9 97 12 70	9 20 12 23	13 16	8 49 11 89	7 9 5 11 1 5	12 0 16 0
For men, mechanics, &cper week. For women in factoriesdo	4 50 3 97	4 03	4 10 2 94	4 31 3 87	4 09	4 69	4 73 4 65	4 54	5 0 4 5

consumption; also prices of house-rent and board, in the towns of the following Western States, 1867, 1869, and 1874.

	Illinois.		v	Visconsi	n.	1	linnesots			Iowa.	
1867.	1869.	1874.	1967.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
\$10 51 12 50 8 25 4 10 9 09 13 10 10 11 13 10 11 12 13 16 16 18 19 11 19 11 11 12 13 16 16 19 11 11 11 12 13 14 16 16 16 17 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	#6 19 7 50 6 69 3 75 10 8 12 12 12 12 12 12 14 17 19 22 16 17 11 14 12 29 23 11 14 12 11 17 07 23 23	\$6 60 8 04 18 6 05 4 18 104 111 17 13 121 121 121 121 121 121 121 121 121 1	\$8 67 9 66 7 10 14 17 15 10 13 13 14 12 13 14 12 13 14 17 18 80 16 18 19 19 11 11 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	\$5 35 5 91 4 76 3 75 13 09 13 10 11 11 14 17 19 9 16 18 29 11 14 30 9 9 12 11 14 30 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	\$5 33 6 33 4 69 6 11 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	\$8 15 8 85 6 03 12 09 13 10 10 14 19 20 17 18 20 17 18 20 12 11 21 21 21 21 22 22 22 22 22 22 22	\$4 30 4 71 4 64 85 12 08 11 13 08 11 13 13 13 17 19 22 21 16 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	\$5 41 7 17 5 67 4 37 107 112 107 107 113 113 113 113 114 123 123 114 123 124 125 126 127 128 128 128 128 128 128 128 128 128 128	\$8 10 9 52 4 61 3 12 07 12 09 12 08 11 11 15 17 19 15 14 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	\$5 28 6 15 4 82 3 11 08 12 13 08 10 11 13 16 17 16 17 16 19 12 12 12 12 14 14 10 07 19	\$5 67 7 13 5 00 2 75 101 111 112 112 112 114 115 114 115 116 117 119 119 119 119 119 119 119 119 119
1 65 30 36 17 18 19 1 04 9 9 1 47 10 14 4 47 4 71 4 00 66	1 55 28 33 16 17 18 98 1 36 09 13 4 33 4 44 3 69 59	1 00 97 33 10 11 11 69 97 6 73 5 66 3 80 24	1 60 33 36 16 17 103 1 18 1 15 1 103 5 25 3 41 72	1 50 30 35 15 16 17 99 91 1 26 11 14 11 54 5 15 3 15	1 12 25 35 35 10 [†] 11 [‡] 1 00 60 1 00 9 00 4 50 2 41 19	1 53 34 36 17 18 1 30 1 03 1 47 11 14 4 44 2 96 78	1 45 29 33 33 15 16 16 10 89 1 25 14 4 23 2 82 57	1 01 29 34 11 11 <u>1</u> 1 12 1 03 74 96 <u>1</u> 08 11 12 25 5 00 3 50 33 <u>1</u>	1 70 33 36 18 19 1 19 1 09 1 50 11 16 6 31 4 52 3 20 72	1 56 29 34 16 17 17 1 04 94 1 14 10 15 5 48 4 78 3 00 56	1 00 255 30 100 111 111 90 75 75 08 111 5 08 4 83 4 50 27
20	18	19 <u>4</u>	23	18	113	22	19	11}	22	18	124
25	222	15	26	23	15	27	23	13	29	23	15
33	27	178	39	27	30	25	20	211	29	23	20
38 32 47 17 24 99 5 66	33 97 39 14 24 83 5 07	904 18 26 10 20 763 5 51	41 31 44 13 96 98 6 15	34 27 38 14 24 87 5 28	204 274 104 204 624 5 17	31 36 48 17 27 1 00 4 57	26 30 40 14 24 81 4 80	24 20 224 10 204 704 4 91	38 40 50 18 31 1 11 5 64	29 30 39 14 25 88 4 96	24 17 25 10 21 71 4 58
10 87 14 98	10 84 14 97	10 60 15 82	8 46 11 41	8 24 11 30	6 33 10 00	11 98 15 78	10 57 14 07	9 75 17 87	11 21 15 32	11 54 13 11	7 00 10 87
4 41 4 08	4 26 3 91	4 25 3 66	4 68 4 01	4 44 3 60	3 75 2 92	4 61 3 92	4 22 3 75	3 87 2 75	4 17 3 65	4 17 3 68	3 75 3 25

Table showing the average retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading WESTERN STATES—Continued.

	K	ansas.		Ne	brasks	١.	Averag	states	West-
Articles.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
PROVISIONS.									
Flour, wheat, superfine per bbl Flour, wheat, extra family do. Flour, rye do. Corn-meal do. Beef, fresh, roasting-pieces per lb Beef, fresh, roung-steaks do. Beef, fresh, rump-steaks do. Beef, corned do. Veal, fore quarters do. Veal, hind quarters do. Mutton, log do. Mutton, log do. Mutton, log do. Pork, corned do. Pork, somed ar salted do. Pork, bams, smoked do. Pork, hams, smoked do. Pork, sausages do. Lard do. Cod-fish, dry do. Mackerel, pickled do. Cheese do. Potatoes per lbs. Rioe per lbs. Rioe per do. Eggs per doz	\$9 36 10 21 3 70 12 08 8 13 13 15 09 11 11 11 12 17 91 17 16 16 19 14 17 32 23 110 15 10 19 14 17 29 26	\$6 39 7 68 39 17 68 12 13 15 10 10 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	\$6 25 3 50 05 05 08 04 07 07 12 16 10 10 15 11 10 10 22 25 75 12 20	\$12 00 11 00 	\$6 75 25 4 50 113 105 115 129 25 16 6 127 39 114 127 37 38 127 07 77 35 35		\$10 14 10 92 7 23 4 46 14 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	091 114 1028 1118 1118 117 1191 1161 1171 1111 1111 1111 1111	11: 11: 13: 15: 13: 15: 16:
Tea. Oolong or other good black_per lb. Coffee, Rio, green do. Coffee, Rio, roasted do. Sugar, good brown do. Sugar, good brown do. Sugar, coffee B do. Molasses, New Orleans per gall. Molasses, Porto Rico. do. Sirup do. Seap, common per lb. Starch do. Fuel, wood, hard per cord Fuel, wood, hard per gall. Oil, coal per gall.	1 80 34 42 18 21 23 1 13 97 1 54 12 14 11 94 5 71 7 00 76	1 56 28 33 16 17 19 88 80 1 90 1 90 12 8 66 5 54 5 00	1 12 21 33½ 10 11½ 55 60 1 00 20 4 50 4 25	20 21	1 50 29 34 15 16 18 36 44 1 37 12 17 14 00 8 50		1 66 33 37 18 19 1 17 1 03 1 47 11 1 5 5 5 5 48 3 70 70	151 161 18 95 851 1 28	1 15 27 33 100 99 11 89 71 95 08 16 3 64 26
DOMESTIC DRY-GOODS, ETC. Shirtings, brown, 4-4. standard qual-		ļ							
ityper yard. Shirtings, bleached, 4-4, standard qual-	25	20	15	25	18		534	1	1
ity per yard. Sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard quality per yard.	30 48	25 37	90 17	30	33		98 31	93 95	15
ity per yard Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, standard quality per yard. Cotton fannel, medium quality do Tickings, good quality do Prints, Merrimac do Mousseline de laines do Satinets, medium quality do Boots, men's heavy per pair	54 39 52 18 29 1 11 5 50	49 97 37 13 93 76 4 83	234 20 25 114 15 75 3 62	30			37 344 45 17 974 1 00 5 70	371	16
Boots, men's heavyper pair.		1	í	l	1	1	1	1	1
HOUSE-RENT.	16 71	18 43	9 00	40 00	27 50		13 97	19 49	9 19
Boots, men's heavyper pair. HOUSE-RENT. Four-roomed tenementsper mo. Six-roomed tenementsdo	16 71 23 44	18 43 26 14	9 00 15 00	40 00 75 00			13 97 21 40	19 49 17 10	9 E

articles of consumption, with prices of house-rent and board, &c.-Continued.

PACIFIC STATES.

C	alifornia.	_		Oregon.			Nevada.		Averag	e for the States.*	Pacific
1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
\$6 96 7 07 10 00 10 36 13 13 11 12 14 17 11 12 13 13 13 16 18 91 16 19 90 18 19 48 24 24 47	\$5 71 7 73 11 00 8 09 16 12 13 13 14 15 17 12 13 14 15 15 90 17 15 90 17 17 19 90 17 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	\$5 00 5 33 6 00 111 10 10 10 111 13 16 17 17 17 18 17 19 11 13 14 17 17 18 19 10 10 11 11 13 14 15 16 17 17 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	\$5 57 6 10 8 91 10 9 12 09 11 12 13 08 10 12 13 18 11 18 11 11 14 11 13 18 19 19 32 23 25 77 13 32 32	\$4 78 4 90 8 66 11 10 10 12 10 11 14 10 77 99 12 99 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	44 75 4 92 6 8 33 091 10 08 10 11 12 12 14 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13 13	\$16 60 \$1 25 17 25 16 21 15 19 16 21 18 20 14 17 17 19 25 32 29 26 37 65 41 3 50 21 3 33	\$11 83 11 46 15 17 11 19 19 14 18 15 17 19 20 25 27 28 23 30 20 25 27 28 28 23 25 27 29 20 22 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29	\$8 00 8 50 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 1	\$9 71 11 47 13 62 11 62 12 12 14 12 13 15 13 15 13 15 13 17 2 20 23 17 2 20 16 2 17 16 5 70 1	\$7 44 8 03 10 58 9 25 151 151 151 151 151 151 151 151 151 1	\$5 92 6 95 6 90 7 61 13 19 11 11 10 13 13 13 14 16 16 16 16 17 18 18 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19
1 09 25 36 16 10 18 1 32 1 25 1 29 19 20 6 33 5 00 1 19	1 04 24 24 16 16 17 1 16 1 06 1 25 22 15 60 6 50 5 18 1 00	73 26 33 101 12 1 00 1 00 93 30 60 15 16 25 8 67 8 00	1 14 96 45 15 18 17 1 12 23 90 00 4 00 3 25 93	1 06 24 39 15 17 16 1 06 1 13 11 22 20 00 4 12 3 25 89	871 973 30 14 161 17 50 87 11 201 10 00 4 50 3 67 50	1 90 . 34 . 57 . 24 . 21 . 20 . 2 00 . 2 44 . 20 . 38 	1 00 33 48 21 22 200 1 60 1 56 1 94 1 94 28 8 75 9 43 1 48	75 33 37 14 14 1 00 1 00 1 00 99 95 92 50	1 14 96 46 181 161 1 48 1 62 1 61 141 29 29 29 00 5 11 7 42 1 35	1 06 97 404 104 184 1 27 1 31 1 44 128 24 17 80 6 46 5 93 1 12	78 29 333 14 100 1 00 1 100 20 16 25 6 68 9 22 55
90	17	12}	25	90	14	28	20	12	24}	19	13
94	20	13	97	22	15	29	23	121	1	213	13
41	39	16	27	22	30	67	47	30	45	36	25
53 30 39 15 31 1 00 4 92	48 95 33 13 96 89 5 10	17 20 26 10 21 87 4 75	30 32 46 16 28 1 06 6 43	25 28 39 13 23 92 5 93	34 933 333 11 273 86 5 50	84 39 45 21 40 94 9 20	50 32 38 15 35 1 01 7 50	33 18 37 10 20 75 5 00	54 334 43 174 33 1 00 6 85	41 281 361 131 28 911 6 18	28 20 32 10 22 82 5 68
12 00 16 30	12 42 20 16	17 00 31 00	10 98 14 66	9 71 13 16	13 17 18 50	93 00 31 90	17 86 22 71		15 09 90 79	14 86 35 34	15 68 24 75
6 86 5 79	6 55 6 90	5 33 6 00	5 86 5 50	5 57 5 41	5 17 4 00	11 83 11 33	9 62 9 25	8 00	8 18 7 52	7 25 6 95	6 17 5 00

Table showing the average retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of in the respective years

Flour. Type		I	akota			Idaho.		1	Lontan	
Tes. Oolong or other good black per lb.	Articles.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1967.	1869.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
Tea. Colong or other good black per lb.	PROVISIONS.									
Coffee, Rio, roasted do do 30 91 10 36 97 17 40 95 18 Sugar, good brown do 30 91 10 36 97 17 40 95 18 Sugar, yellow O do 25 92 11 42 33 18 40 27 36 Sugar, coffee B do 25 18 12 46 37 17 40 30 30 18 Molassee, New Orleans per gall 9 00 1 50 10 9 500 3 09 40 00 9 75 9 00 Molassee, New Orleans per gall 9 00 1 25 65 65 86 80 9 40 2 75 9 00 Molassee, New Orleans per gall 9 00 1 25 65 85 80 9 40 9 27 3 20 Molassee, New Orleans per gall 9 00 1 25 65 85 80 9 80 9 0 1 20 8 10 8 10 8 10 8 10 9 9 2 8 10 10 8 10 9 9 2 8 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	Flour, wheat, superfine per bbl. Flour, wheat, extra family do. Flour, rye do. Corn-meal do. Beef, freeh, roasting-pieces per lb. Beef, freeh, roasting-pieces do. Beef, freeh, romp-steaks do. Beef, freeh, romp-steaks do. Beef, freeh, romp-steaks do. Beef, freeh, romp-steaks do. Veal, fore quarters do. Veal, fore quarters do. Veal, fore quarters do. Mutton, fore quarters do. Mutton, fore quarters do. Mutton-chops do. Pork, freeh do. Pork, corned or salted do. Pork, shoulders do. Pork, shoulders do. Lard do. Cod-fish, dry do. Mackerel, pickled do. Butter do. Cheese do. Potatoce per bbs. Rice per de. GEOCERIES, ETC.	\$13 00 15 00 19 00 19 00 10 90 10 90 10 90 22 22 22 22 24 24 24 25 25 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26	6 00 13 108 17 13 15 16 18 16 16 16 16 16 16 25 27 30 27 30 22 22 37 100 18 19 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	5 00 4 75 4 50 121 04 10 081 081 15 17 1121 15 16 17 121 121 121 121 121 121 121 121 121	289 60 286 288 246 296 279 333 339 331 339 40 41 42 42 43 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44	15 56 19 00 16 33 22 23 22 25 24 28 27 31 31 44 44 42 38 42 32 38 47 27 31 31 31 32 33 33 33 33 33 33 33 33 33 33 33 33	6 60 7 00 2 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	33 00 38 18 11 118 14 21 21 21 21 21 21 30 35 45 50 40 100 240 255 252 252 252 253 254 254 254 255 256 257 257 257 257 257 257 257 257	26 00 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	18 00 16 00
ity per yard. 30 32 124 33 25 394 36 26 12 Shirtings, bleached, 44, standard quality per yard. 30 32 15 47 35 294 43 30 17 Sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard quality per yard. 35 30 11 62 62 65 35 40 31 17 Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, standard quality. per yard. 35 37 12 112 70 39 65 35 30 12 Cotton-dannel, medium quality do. 50 45 20 75 52 314 55 40 29 Tickings, good quality. do. 50 45 20 75 52 314 55 40 29 Frints, Merrimas do. 25 75 30 87 65 374 69 69 25 Prints, Merrimas do. 35 27 25 40 33 374 40 31 22 Satinets, medium quality. do. 125 100 100 167 122 75 100 100 87 Boots, men's heavy per pair. 8 00 6 75 5 00 12 90 9 25 5 75 6 00 6 75 6 00 Six-roomed tenements per mo. 30 00 25 00 10 00 62 50 27 50 17 50 50 25 90 18 00 80 ABD.	Tea, Oolong or other good black. per lb. Coffee, Rio, green	9 50 30 30	98 60 91 92 18 1 95 1 25 3 00 19 90 5 50 8 00	30 35 10 11 12 1 00 65 1 00 10 8 00 3 00 2 50	75 36 49 46 5 90 8 13 29 60 11 00 9 50	55 27 33 37 3 09 28 26 45 5 00 8 00	17 18 17 1 69 18 31	40 40 40 4 00 4 00 5 00 50 75	45 75 25 27 30 9 75 3 00 3 37 30 45	1 50
Four-roomed tenementsper mo 30 00 95 00 10 00 87 50 27 50 17 50 59 09 18 00 81x-roomed tenementsdo 60 00 50 00 15 00 87 50 40 00 90 50 55 00 25 00	ityper yard		32 30 37 45 75 17	15 11 12 20 30 124	47 68 1 19 75 87 24	35 62 70 58 65	20 20 20 31 37 12	43 65 65 55 69	30 35 35 40 69 36	50 20 95
EXECUTION CONTROL AND A TRANSPORT OF A SHIP AND A SHIP AND A STATE OF A SHIP AND AND AND AND AND AND AND AND AND AND	Four-roomed tenementsper mo Six-roomed tenementsdo	30 00 60 00	1 00 6 75 95 00	1 00 5 00 10 00	1 67 12 90 62 50	9 25 27 50	75 5 75 17 50	1 00	1 00 6 75 50 00	18 00

consumption, with prices of house-rent and board, in the towns of the following Territories, 1867, 1869, and 1874.

N	ew Mezi	00.	Artı	oda.	Colo	rado.	Washing- ton.	Wyo- ming.	Averag	e for Ter	ritories.
1867.	1909.	1874.	1967.	1909.	1867.	1869.	1874.	1874.	1867.	1869.	1874.
\$12 00 15 00 10 06 11 12 12 12 11 11 11 17 15 40 50 50 50 50 10 45 10 13	\$14 00 15 00 10 07 11 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 40 47 45 46 45 46 45 46 46 47 48 48 49 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40	\$10 00 4 00 06 06 10 110 112 12 08 08 08 20 20 20 20 20 25 25 25 60 75	\$31 00 14 00 94 93 95 95 98 98 98 98 98 98 47 47 42	\$25 00 25 00 25 00 29 21 21 22 22 23 25 25 25 26 27 28 28 29 20 20 21 21 22 23 24 42 42 42 42 42 42 42 42 42 42 42 42	\$17 86 19 00 20 00 14 83 12 16 14 17 19 20 10 19 20 33 339 36 40 37 37 39 34 40 3 39 34 40 3 39 34 40 3 39 34 40 3 39 3 40 3 40 3 57 3 57 3 59 3 69 4 69 5 7 7 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	\$12 43 12 80 12 00 9 44 11 13 16 16 19 11 15 16 16 20 26 27 29 30 29 30 29 29 30 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29	\$5 50 6 00 6 50 10 00 11 04 11 08 09 10 12 12 15 17 20 13 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12	\$8 50 10 00 8 50 5 50 08 15 15 15 15 15 15 20 20 20 17 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15	\$20 93 17 75 90 00 18 14 19 19 19 19 20 23 23 23 24 41 47 41 45 45 45 45 45 45 49 41 99 99	\$16 07 15 06 12 66 13 68 16 17 19 20 20 20 33 33 40 39 39 39 37 71	\$7 95 9 17 8 55 8 08 19 06 10 09 19 13 10 11 15 17 17 19 29 19
95 1 13 64 6 12 45 10 13 50	95 75 45 4 62 35 10 16 40	25 60 75 90 06 90 50	49 60 1 95 80 3 00 90 16 40 1 50	50 1 00 67 2 75 50 09 25 80	36 - 84 40 3 93 34 94 17 99	97 46 39 9 04 96 15 19 56	10 371 25 50 10 06 121 371	40 95 9 10 19 08	41 99 53 4 29 33 31 25 1 17	27 71 44 2 43 33 19 25 74	19 42 35 1 19 15 08 19 40
1 75 55 40 42 47 2 50 2 50 4 50 31 50	1 75 50 35 38 42 9 00 2 00 4 00 95 35	1 95 334 40 18 90 90 9 00 9 00 2 75 13 90	37 47 47 48 6 00 6 00 3 75 55 60	1 25 52 37 40 20 44 4 50 4 50 2 75 42 47	2 70 48 46 35 38 39 2 60 2 56 3 36 29 9 50 11 50 1 5 62	2 10 35 41 94 25 26 1 91 1 78 2 46 23 31 7 20 9 33 4 21	50 274 374 104 104 124 50 50 90 074 25 2 00 4 00	1 50 35 40 12] 13 14 1 25 1 00 2 00 10 20 8 50	\$ 14 51 65 38 39 40 3 68 3 31 3 95 51 9 50 7 842	1 73 43 54 29 97 33 2 68 9 51 3 09 28 354 7 20 6 17 5 37	1 08 33 40 14 16 16 1 35 1 13 1 71 9 40 3 83 5 70
5 00 5 00 4 50	7 00 7 00 9 75	4 50 1 25	4 75 4 50 3 75	4 00 3 00 3 00	11 50 · 5 62 2 00	9 33 4 21 1 33	4 00 4 00 50	7 00 40	9 50 7 85 6 42 3 06	6 17 5 37 9 06	9 40 3 83 5 70 71
33	22	90	20	20	37	25	194	18	314	23	14
33	92	90	95	25	40	27	18	25	36	981	19
44	30	45	95	95	43	33	10	29	46	37	95
44 62 51 33 81 86 7 75	80 43 33 29 57 69 5 50	45 30 95 124 30 90 10 00	30 37 95 15 95 75 9 00	30 37 25 15 25 75 8 00	48 50 61 24 46 1 08 8 91	37 38 43 56 31 77 7 12	10 20 25 10 25 75 6 00	45 35 30 101 221 10 00	56 55 53 25 441 1 10 8 63	40 43 50 28 34 89 7 23	30 26 29 19 27 85 7 46
22 50 32 50	90 00 97 50	8 00 19 00			20 00 28 00	14 94 20 12	19 00 15 00	90 00 32 50	33 75 59 00	27 49 40 50	14 9 5 19 90
12 00 12 00	8 75 8 75	6 00	17 50 17 50	9 00 9 00	11 95 11 10	7 44 7 44		8 00	13 60 13 40	8 97 8 30	6 70

Table showing the aggregate average retail prices of provisions, groceries, &c., in the lowns of the United States in the respective years 1867, 1869, and 1874.

RECAPITULATION.

Articles.	1867.	1869.	1874.
FROVISIONS. PROVISIONS. Per barrel	\$12 90 13 66 11 33 8 07 16 11 14 14 14 16 121 13 15 16 17 90 93 96 94 94 94 94	9 9 56 8 65 154 104 115 115 115 115 115 115 115 115 115 11	\$6 83 7 93 6 94 5 94 13 10 11 13 15 14 15 14 15 16
Latd	904 494 29 1 624 173 163 13 49	173 443 273 1 093 163 13 11 403	11 13 25 29 99 11 10 . 90
Tea, Oolong or other good black per pound. Coffee, Rio, green do. Coffee, Rio, roasted do. Coffee, Rio, roasted do. Sugar, good brown do. Sugar, gold brown do. Sugar, yellow C do. Sugar, coffee B do. Molassee, New Orleans per gallom. Molassee, Porto Rico. do. Sirup do. Soap, common per pound. Starch per oud. Fuel, coal per ton. Fuel, wood, hard per cord. Fuel, wood, pine. do. Oil, coal per gallom.	1 60 314 43 904 904 28 1 57 1 43 1 804 16 16 22 10 83 5 71 5 00 . 1 20	1 43 31 32 173 189 901 1 31 1 52 1 583 10 03 5 44 4 53 90	99 96 34 111 13 13 96 10 10 13 9 11 5 49 5 49
DOMESTIC DET-GOODS, ETC. Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard quality	233 273 34 404 353 453 181 963 6 23	90 23 263 304 304 17 27 794 5 56	191 15 20 291 191 191 271 102 231 731 5 05
Four-roomed tenements	14 99 99 09	13 59 21 80	11 93 16 27
BOARD.			
For men, (mechanics, &c.)per week For women in factories	6 79 6 06	5 65 5 00	5 61 3 53

v.—Expenditures of workmen's families.

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of the families of norkmen in the manufacturing towns of the following New England Stales, with their average weekly earnings, in the year 1874.

			a company									•
		MAINE.				new	HAMPSHIRE	RE.			CONNECTICUT.	ncur.
	Lewiston.	Lewiston. Camden.	Lisbon.	Ports. mouth.	Newmar- ket.	Кеепе.	Fisher. ville.	Manchos. ter.	Ashland.	Dover.	Berlin.	New Brit.
Arables.	2 sdulte and 4 children.	da stluba s s children.	2 sdults.	La sdults and Laorbildren.	S adulta and 1 child.	S adulta and L child.	S sdulte and 6 children.	s adulta and children.	2 adults and 5 children.	2 adults and 3 children.	S adulta and S children.	2 sdults and 3 children.
Front and bread and smoked mestal I and Land Choose	8-1	83 8 888888888888888888888888888888888	### ### ##############################	88	8-1 4858 3385555555888 (F) 8 888	888888888888888888888888888888888888888	825	### ### ### ##########################	## 1	# 1	28	888 825 828 825 828 825 828 825 828 825 828 825 828 825 825
Total yearly expenses												
	936 80	18 00 936 00	246 50 546 00	9 24	8.0 8.8 8.8	88	82 88	1,248 00	1, 427 00	93.8 93.8 93.8 93.8	85 88	246 26 36 36 36
* Estimated.	t Including earnings of 3 children	earnings o	f 3 children	•	↓ Lives in	§ Lives in his own house.	on86.	T Hot	House-rent free	ž		

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of the families of workmen in the manufacturing towns of the following New England States, fro.—Continued.

é	Coventry.	S adulta and 5	#
RHODE ISLAND.	Scituate.	2 sdults and 5 oblidren.	25
	d. Provi.	2 adults and 3 children.	20
	l. Pittaffeld.	2 sdults and 3 obildren.	88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88
	k. Lowell.	S adults and S children.	88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88
Ę	st Stock- pton bridge.	a children. a children. a children. a children.	200
MASSACHUSETTS	Newton. East Hampton.	2 sedults and 2 children.	1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
	Freetown. Ne	S sdulte and S children.	86 88 87
	Dalton. F	S sdults and 3 children.	## 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25
	Holden.	g sdrifts and Gerblide &	**************************************
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		earning	earnings, in the year 1874	ear 1874.				•			
		NEW YORK.	TORK.		NEW JERSET.	nefet.		DELAWARE.	WARE.		MARY. LAND.
	Buffilo.	NewYork	Buffalo.	Little Falls.	Bridgeton	Trenton.	F	Wilmington.	•	Newport	Baltimore
Artholes.	S sdrifts and Linba & Cobild.	S adults sad tobild.	S adulta and 3 children.	S adnits and a confide and	2 adulte and 3 children.	2 sdults and 3 children.	bas stinbs 2 .aexblide \$	Sadnite and Sobiidaea.	baa stinba s aerbiide s	S sdrifts and care.	La adulta and a children.
Flour and bread Meats, fresh, corned, salted, or smoked Later Butset Strees Sugar Milk Confess	28	86 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	1.286 40 88 41 88 81 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	#-	### ### ### ##########################	100 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	88.48 58.88 88.4 188 12 88.82 8	25. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25. 25.	25 4 5 6 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	283	# 1
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* Estimated.				† Taxe	Taxes and interest on property.	st on prop	erty.				

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of the families of workmen in the manufacturing towns of the following Middle States, &c.—Continued.

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	Pittsburgh	9 adnite and 5 childnen.	20 078 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	1, 136 90	
	Linwood.	bas stinbs 2 .aerblide 2		1, 35 00 1, 35 00 1, 35 00	(Cendanoe
	Consho- bocken.	2 adults and 4 children.		1,040 80	Add about (50 for medical attendance
VANIA.	Philadel. phia.	Sadulte and 4 children.		1,060 50	out #30 ro
PENNSTLVANIA.	South Bethle- bem.	2 sdults and 3 children.		200 21 22 22 20 22 23 24 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25	1 A Gal B
	Bethle- hem.	S adulte and . 3 children.		25 SS SS SS SS SS SS SS SS SS SS SS SS SS	
	Philadel- phia.	g sdults and 3 obildren.		20 20 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	
	Norris- town.	2 adulte and 3 children.		30 00 30 00 30 00	
	Reading.	La edulte and Sedulten.		25 25 26 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36	
	Erie.	S adults and S children.		740 56 15 00 750 00	Mart Library
	•	Arnoles.	Front and bread. Fresh, corned, salted, and smoked meats. Interference of the salted	Total yearly expenses. Weekly carnings Yourly earnings, (50 weeks)	

* Estimated.

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of the families of worknen in the manufacturing towns of the following Western States, with their average weekly earnings, in the year 1874.

			earming	earnings, in the year 10/4	ear 10/4.							
				он10.					INDIANA.		WISCONSIN.	NBIN.
•	Dayton.	Bellefon- taine.	Bucyras	Mansfield	Piqua.	Steuben- ville.	Cincin- nati.	Madison.	Evans-	Conners.	Milwan- kee.	Cedar- burgh.
Arbole.	S adulta.	S adolts and R children.	2 adults and 2 children.	S adults and a children.	2 sdulte and 3 children.	S adulte and a oblide a.	S adults and g children.	S adults and S children.	2 adulte and 3 children.	2 adults and 4 children.	S adults and 4 children.	S sdults and 2 chiidren.
Flour and bread Mosts, fresh, corned, salted, or smoked Land	8. 48전	8 883	88	01 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	₽ 1 0\$2		8-1 588	8- 51:3:	8 888	8-1 5283	200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200	
Butter Cheese Sagar and molasses		8228	8228	3832	8 28	2888	\$25 8	8747	6 58	8888	8288	
Mulk Coffee Tea Wish fresh and sait	ខេង	នងនង	322	88	88	ន្តមន្តន	283	នមន	និងដ	388	822	
Soap, starch, salt, pepper, vinegar, &co Eggs Potatoes and other vegetables	송원장	:5 88 8	ននន	អងខរ	8 8	3335	223	8448	200	ងខន	8848	
Fruits, green and dried Fuel Oil or other light Other articles	ន្តន	355	1 25 1 12 1 12	 1888	828	22.00	ន្ទង	828	3 12	882	8 8 8 8 8 8 8	
Spirits, beer, and tobacco (if any). House-rent For educational, religious, and benevolent objects.	2 50 75	8 8 8	ឧឌឧ	2 00	888 888	88 688	1 50 40	a 888	0.0° 84	28	88	
Total weekly expenses	98 8	7.55	7 12	12 02	02 6	23 28	7 97	10 70	10 55	10 40	13 69	2
Total expenses 52 weeks. Clothing per year. Taxes per year.	100 00 9 00	382 282 35 38 35 38	370 24 *125 00	625 04 300 00 160 00	204 100 00 80 00	1, 926 68 375 00 5 00	414 44 85 00 5 00	556 40 75 90 4 90	548 60 150 60 20 50	544 10 88 10 88	711 88 300 00 5 00	2008 2008 2008 2008
Total yearly expenses	221 00	95.2 60	495 24	1,085 04	624 40	1,606 68	504 44	635 40	201 10	804 80	1,016 88	241 50
Weekly earnings Yeaks).	25 28 88	780 780 00 00	785 00 06 00	26 00 1, 352 00	15 00 750 00	42 31 2, 200 00	11 00 572 00	12 00 624 00		18 00 936 00	24 00 1, 248 00	6 75 351 00

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	Belleville.	g sdults and g children.	11 15 57 98 87 87 87 88 87 88 87 88 87 88 87 88 87 88 87 88 88		8 8 8 8
	West Belleville.	S sdults and 4 children.	### ### ##############################		25.00
	Chicago.	S adults and S children.		88 S 88 B	
ILLENOIS.	Metropo- lis.	S adults and 4 children.		576 10 576 10	88
	Decatur.	g adnits and 5 oblidren.		3. 28 8.8 8	88
	Sterling.	S adults and 3 children.		20 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 0	88
	Canton.	S adulte and I child.	25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 2		158
MINNE- BOTA.	Rochester	safinba 2	200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200		38.88
104	Burling. ton.	bas atlubs 2 .norblido 4		88 88 88	17 8
IOWA.	Boone.	S adulta and 5 children.	88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88		15.00
KANBAB.	Grasshop- per Falls.	S adults and R children.		18 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0	18
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Table showing the average weekly expenditures of the families of workmen in the manufacturing towns of the following Southern States, with their average weekly earlift.

, 1	VIRGINIA.	WEST V	WEST VIRGINIA.	NORTH CAROLINA.			KENT	KENTUCKY.		
	Danville.	Hunting. ton.	Charles- town.	Tarboro'.	i	Louisville		Lancas- ter.	Maysville	Coving.
Artiolog.	bas stinbs 2 .aorblido 4	S adults and a children.	bas stirbs 2 .aexblide 4	bas silobs g gardido c	sadults sud. blido i	La sdults and S. children.	S edults and C onlide and	bas atluba 2 .nortblide }	S adults and 6 children.	g sdulte and 6 children.
Flour and bread Meata, fresh, corned, salted or smoked. Metard Battor Chees Cheese Ch	#1	\$1. \$2882888686858888858888	23	## 1	# 1	20 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	#1	## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ##	25 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85	25
Total yearly expenses	619 20	677 08	501 68	732 00	623 20	711 60	703 60	1, 084 20	523 80	1, 659 70
Weekly earnings (32 weeks)	12 50 650 00	16 50 858 00	9 00	14 00 728 00	12 00 624 00	728 00		20 00 1,040 00	11 00 572 00	34 00 1, 768 00

* Owns land, and pays \$45 taxes in all.

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of the families of workmen in the manufacturing towns of the following Southern States, fr.—Continued.

	•	TRNNESSER		ALABAMA, LOUISIANA	LOUBIANA		TE.	TEXAS.		.893 .8 1
	Chatta- nooga.	Memphis.	Lawrence- burgh.	Tallahas-	Baton Rouge.	Galveston	Dallas.	Auetin.	San An- tonio.	S mediu
- Arioles.	S adults and a children.	baa etluba 2 aerblido 2	S sdulte sud and states.	S sduite and 4 children.	S sdults and 2 children.	La sdults and S children.	Las edults and S. Grildten.	bas edulte sud 4 obildzen.	2 adults and 4 children.	08 to 93,816 vA
Flour and bread Meata, freah, corned, saited, or smoked Minter Confee Milk Milk Milk Float and sait Float and sait Fruits, green and other vegetables Fruits, green and dried Float or other light On other light On other light Shirts, been and to bacco, (if any) House-rant Expansive and to bacco, (if any) House-rant Expansive and to bacco, (if any) Total weekly expenses	## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ##	200 88888888888888888888888888888888888	1 255 1 255 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25	1 1 1 888 89378 693778 69378 69378 69378 69378 693778 69378 69378 69378 693778 693778 693778 693770 693770 693770	### ### ### ### ### ### ### ### ### ##	20 1 1 4 6 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	8888 8222 888222 8 6 6	## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ## ##	2012 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
Total expenses 58 weeks Cirching per year Taxes per year	100 00	603 20 50 00	715 00 900 00	540 80 150 90 3 00	946 40 150 00 1 00	1, 511 50	40 00 40 00	639 60 150 00 2 00	682 50 50 00	2885 1288 88 28 88 88
Total yearly expenses Weekly carnings Zearly carnings, (32 weeks)	721 40 15 00 780 00	653 20 11 00 572 00	915 00 18 99 967 46	693 80 10 00 838 00	1, 097 40 25 00 1, 300 00	1, 661 90 31 00 1, 619 00	12 00 084 00	191 40 18 75 00 879	732 50 15 00 780 00	818 07 16 09 836 76

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of the families of workmen in the manufacturing towns of the following Pacific States and Territories, with the year 1874.

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WYOMING.	Cheyenne	S sdults and 5 children.	25 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26	
NEW MEXICO.	Santa Fé.	has etlabs 2 aenblido 2	25.28.28.28.28.28.28.28.28.28.28.28.28.28.	25 00 1, 300 00
MONTANA.	Helena.	bas silubs 2 soblido 2	25 27 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	35 00
IDAIIO.	Lewiston.	S sdults and S children.	90 374 1 000 1 1 000 1 1 50 1 50 3 50 3 50 3 50 3 50 3 50 3 50 3 50 3	
OREGON.	Portland. Lewiston.	bna etluba 2 blido 1	23.05 28.05	18 00 936 00
BRIA.	Oakland.	bas etinbs & .nerblide č	20	
CALIFORNIA	San Fran-	g adulte and t child.	8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	
		Artiolog.	Hours and bread Butter Butter Butter Cheese Cheese Brigar and molasses Milk Coffee Coffee Shap, fresh and sait, popper, vinegar, &co Eggs Froit, green and other vegetables Froit, green and other vegetables Froit, green and other vegetables Froit, green and the company Cother articles Spirits, beer, and tobacoco, (if any) Brines-reri Brines-reri Total weekly expenses Total veerly exrenses Total veerly exrenses	Weekly earnings. Yearly earnings, (32 weeks)

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Although the foregoing statements indicate, with approximate accuracy, the total weekly expenditures of workmen's families, in the respective places named, yet, in regard to details, proper allowance should be made. It must be borne in mind that the number of laborers, mechanics, or factory hands who keep an accurate account of the amount expended for articles of subsistence is very limited; hence the difficulty in obtaining the desired information.

It will be noticed that those statements have been compiled by States and sections, irrespective of the size of the families. The income of the several workmen affords a fair index of the outgo, and a classification on that basis would have furnished data better suited for purposes of comparison; but, unfortunately, the weekly earnings were not, in all cases, stated in the returns. For example, the family in Maysville, Kentucky, consisting of eight persons, expended in the year but \$534.80, for the sufficient reason that the earnings, at \$11 per week for the whole year, amounted to only \$572; while another family of the same size in the same State was able to expend \$1,693.70, because the yearly income, at \$34 per week, reached \$1,768. It was the author's intention, however, only to include the expenditures of the families of workmen, skilled or unskilled, and not of foremen or superintendents, receiving from \$25 to \$38 per week.

VI. CONDITION OF THE WORKING CLASSES IN THE UNITED STATES.

The great advantages enjoyed by the workingmen in the United States, as compared with those of the same class in the Old World, are sufficiently attested by the deep and steady current of emigration which sets toward our shores. One of the most conspicuous of these advantages consists in the equality of political rights with which the workingman is here invested, and the comparatively high respect and dignity attached to his calling; but not less solid and decided are the advantages connected with abundant employment, good wages, and the substantial comforts of life. It is true that, in common with other countries where the system of credit has been largely developed, our country has had its occasional financial crises, accompanied with serious interruptions to the ordinary course of commerce and industry; but such effects have been comparatively transient in their duration, and the normal condition of the country has been marked by a degree of prosperity rarely if ever enjoyed elsewhere; and rarely, if ever, in the history of the world has national prosperity been so largely shared by those usually denominated the working classes.

In some of the larger cities of our eastern coast, where the labor-supply is receiving constant additions from the ranks of emigrants who lack the means of advancing farther into the country, there is at times considerable complaint of the want of adequate employment; and in such places there is occasionally some privation and suffering among the poor. In the city of New York, owing to its great extent and the lack of adequate communication between its commercial center and its suburbs, large numbers of working people, in order to be conveniently near to their places of employment, are compelled to live in crowded tenementhouses, under conditions which are favorable neither to health, comfort, nor deceney.

In some of the manufacturing towns and villages of New England, particularly the seats of the textile industries, the dwellings of the poor are represented to be in a sanitary condition that is far from satisfactory. Such conditions are, however, quite exceptional, and the masses

of working people throughout the country occupy comfortable homes, enjoy an abundance of good food and comfortable clothing, with opportunities for a good common-school education for their children, and possess a degree of personal independence not enjoyed on a large scale by

any other laboring population on the face of the globe.

This statement is true not only in regard to the workmen of the rich agricultural regions of our vast interior and the prosperous manufacturing towns with which those regions are dotted, but also to those of Philadelphia (not more famous for its industrial eminence than for the comfort of its workmen's homes) and most of the manufacturing towns of the New England and Middle States. Of these, Lynn, Worcester, Fitchburgh, Taunton, and Springfield, in Massachusetts; Providence and Pawtucket, in Rhode Island; Hartford, New Haven, Bridgeport, Waterbury, and New Britain, in Connecticut; Albany, Troy, Utica, and Rochester, in New York; and Newark, in New Jersey, with various smaller towns in their vicinities, are best known to the author of this report in the States mentioned; while in Ohio and Illinois nearly every town engaged in manufacturing industry may be included in the same category.

The prevailing comfort and independence of the great masses of mechanics and laborers of this country, taking one section with another, being sufficiently verified by general observation, it is deemed superfluous to enter into a detailed descriptive account of their condition and With respect to the dwellings of factory operatives in the exceptional localities, it may, however, be said that, wherever their sanitary condition is seriously bad, it is believed to be the fault of manufacturing corporations which own the tenement-houses occupied by their employés, while operatives employed by individual manufacturers, who live among them and take an active and observant interest in their wellbeing, are far more comfortably situated. In a recent investigation, conducted by the Massachusetts bureau of statistics of labor, it was found that, out of 393 tenements examined in different towns in that State, 288, or upward of 73 per cent., were worthy of being reported "good," while 105, or less than 27 per cent., ranged from "fair" to "very bad." The animadversions on the poorer class of tenements contained in the reports of that bureau have attracted public attention to the subject, and there is a good prospect that, either through the action of the State legislature or by the force of public sentiment, abuses of this kind will soon be remedied.

The Massachusetts bureau of statistics of labor has made careful inquiry into the receipts, expenditures, and general condition of the families of four hundred workmen in that State, and published the results of the investigations. From the detailed statements which appear in the last report of that bureau the tables on the five succeeding pages have been prepared. The first table shows the yearly expenditures of one hundred and twenty-four families for rent, fuel, groceries, meat and fish, milk, wearing apparel, and "sundries," together with their expenditures for books and papers, and their contributions to religious and other societies. It also shows the earnings of the father, (no other member of these families being in receipt of wages,) the number of rooms occupied, number of persons in each family, and number of children attending school, with other information, indicating with sufficient clearness the condition of each family in respect to comfort, thrift, and æsthetic culture.

The second table contains the same information in regard to eightyone families, and also shows the earnings of children who, in these families, assist the father in providing for the household.

Table showing the yearly expenditures, the earnings of the faller and children respectively, and the condition of the families of eighly-one skilled workmen in the year 1674.

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	Sundries				846844458848484864488888888888888888888
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	Dry-goods.				~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~
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LABOR IN THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN POSSESSIONS.

In the British North American provinces, which now constitute the Dominion of Canada, manufacturing industry has not until recently been developed to any considerable extent, and is even now chiefly confined to Ontario and Quebec. Since the termination of the Treaty of Reciprocity with the United States there has been a marked increase in the extent of manufactures, not only in Canada proper, but in the maritime provinces.

The following statement, condensed from the report of the Canadian census of 1870-71, shows the capital invested, the number of hands employed, and the total value of the products of the leading industries of the provinces then composing the Dominion of Canada:

Industries.	Capitel invested.	Number of hands em- ployed.	Total value of products,
Agricultural implements	\$1, 104, 308	2, 546	\$2, 685, 393
Bakeries of all sorts	1, 054, 531	2, 664	6, 942, 469
Blacksmithing	1, 720, 638	10, 213	5, 364, 411
Boots and shoes	3, 266, 633	18, 719	16, 133, 638
Breweries	1, 666, 140	918	2, 141, 229
Cabinet and furniture	2, 050, 175	4. 366	3, 580, 978
Carding and fulling mills.	752, 962	1, 224	2, 253, 794
Carpenters and joiners	779, 667	5. 408	3, 726, 345
Carriage-making	1, 859, 609	7, 798	4, 849, 234
Cooperage	450. 514		
		3, 442 · 467	1, 772, 663
Distilleries Dress-making and millinery	737, 200		4, 092, 537
Dress-making and initiaery	504, 868	3, 877	2, 585, 679
Edge-tool manufactories	177, 915	376	418, 775
Flour and grist mills	9, 929, 898	4, 992	39, 133, 919
Furriers and batters, &c	1, 159, 038	1, 861	2, 873, 060
Glass-works	136, 120	318	293, 130
India-rubber factories	454, 600	494	502, 613
Iron founding and machine-making	3, 760, 505	7, 653	7, 325, 531
Engine building	709, 900	1,007	1, 014, 525
Iron-rolling mills	440, 000	763	1, 630, 000
Iron-smelting and steel-making	492, 000	624	298, 000
Ment-curing	419, 325	841	3, 799, 552
Nail and tack factories	382, 050	590	1, 147, 380
Oil-refineries	6.4,94)	494	3, 094, 669
Paper-manufactories	610, 400	760	1, 071, 651
Printing-offices	2, 158, 660	3, 497	3, 420, 202
Railway-car factories.	108,000	175	512, 000
Rope and twine making	210,660	450	760, 840
Saddle and barness making	631, 866	2,667	2, 465, 321
Sash, door, and blind factories	967, 291	2, 519	3, 008, 641
Saw-mills	16, 040, 5:9	35, 691	30, 256, 24
Sewing-machine factories	346, 4 0	966	1, 123, 464
Ship-yards	1, 084, 425	6,046	4, 432, 26
Soap and candle making	279, 821	301	1, 323, 853
Spring and axle factories	89, 850	163	238, 819
Stone and marble establishments	200, 704	1, 169	1, 072, 574
Sugar retiueries	425, 000	359	4, 132, 750
Tailors and clothiers	1, 721, 903	11, 092	9, 345, 875
Tenneries	2, 656, 166	4, 207	9, 184, 939
Tin and sheet-fron working	789, 216	2, 351	2, 392, 63
Tobacco working	573, 145	2, 216	2, 435, 34
Wool-cloth making	2, 776, 814	4, 453	5, 507, 549
Total of above and all other industries	77, 964, 020	187, 942	221, 617, 77.
PECAPITULATION BY PROVINCES.			
Ontario	37, 874, 010	87, 281	114, 706, 799
Quebec	25, 071, 868	66, 714	77, 205, 185
New Brunswick.	5, 976, 176	18, 352	17, 367, 687
Nova Scotia	6, 041, 966	15, 595	12, 338, 105
Total	77, 964, 020	187, 942	221, 617, 773

RATES OF WAGES.

The tables on the succeeding pages, though not so full as desired, exhibit with approximate accuracy the average rates of wages for mechanical, factory, and farm labor in various portions of the British North American possessions.

I.—MECHANICAL LABOR.

388538838 នង 8888888888 888 82 8 Tables showing the average daily wages paid to persons employed in the undernentioned trades in different counties and towns in the provinces of Ontarto, Quebec, Nova Scotts, New Brunsweick, and Prince Edward's Island; also, in Newfoundland, and in Jamaica, West Indies, in the yeurs 1873 and 1874. board, Plasterers. 23 With board. 2 00 8 3 :22: 8 8 8 23 : Witho't board. **82283388 252888388 88 1583 ĸ 28 28 8 Puinters. With board. 25 :88 288 83 \$ O1 O1 O1 œ Witho't bourd. 28 ś ដ្ឋខ្លួនខ្លួននេះ **888388888** 83 88 ä Machinists. :8 With board. :3 Witho't board. 8 22223333 :688648888 28 88 8 Coopers. With board. :8 1 25 8 ងន 88 Witho't boord. 88 222223233 888822888 222 28 8 Carpenters. With board. 25 133 1 75 1 25 83 : : 883 88 : 2 Witho't board. Cabinet-makers. 5535888858 858533888 8 33 28 8 883 1 28 88 With board. 1 25 ននន ងន : S Witho't board. Bricklayers or masons. ខងង 88 8 With board. 23 23 8 25 8 8 8 23 25 :8 2 :88 : œ. _ 22 ~ Witho't board. 3 888484888 28382828 8 88 23 22 8 Blacksmiths. CT C1 00 % 1 25 8 S With bourd. 25 1 50 8 : នន : : F 25 E 25 E E E E EE 673 Year. Port Hope... Picton, Prince Edward Co... St. Catharine's. Stormont. Quebeo Stanstead Halifax Picton Windsor Lincoln Northumberland Huntingdon bree Rivers..... amilton..... St. John Prince Edward's Island: Grenville..... : Kent Orilla uron.... Provinces and towns. Charlottetown..... Frederickton New Branswick Nova Scotia: Belleville. Ontario:

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St. Catharine's	2873		22		25		8	:	8	-	8	25			
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Windsor	1873	-	1 75	:			175		1 75		8 12t		2 124	8 8	
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St. John	1873		20	:	8		8	:	200		200		1 68		
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II.-FACTORY LABOR.

Statement showing the average rate of weekly wages paid to persons employed in various industries in Kingston, Cornwall, and Goderich, in the province of Ontario, in the year 1874.

	1	Kingston.	C	ornwall.		Goderich.
Occupation.	Hours of labor.	Wages.	Hours of labor.	Wages.	Hours of labor.	Wages.
Iron-molders Best Machinists Ordinary Inferior Helpers Boiler-makers Helpers Hiveters Holders-on Flangers Helpers Blacksmiths Helpers Foremen Engineers Pattern-makers Assistants Laborers, acreers, &c	59 59 59 59 59 59	\$10 50 8 60 7 00 6 60 10 50 6 60 9 60 7 20 10 50 6 60 10 50 6 60 11 0 50 6 60 12 00 6 60	60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60	\$12 00 12 00 10 50 7 50 6 00 7 50 15 00 7 50 18 00 7 7 50 18 00 7 7 50 12 00 7 7 50 12 00 10 00 10 00 15 00	58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 58 5	\$9 00 to \$13 59 12 00 7 50 6 00 to 7 50 7 50 7 50 7 50 12 00 7 50 12 00 7 50 14 20 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15
Apprentices Carpenters Millwrights Assistants Brass-founders	59 59 	\$0 50 to 1 25 9 60	60 60 60	94 00 10 50	58 58	12 0° 7 56
Fitters	59 59	10 50 10 00			58	10 50

Note.—The articles of manufacture in Kingston are locomotives; Cornwall, general manufactures; and Goderich, not stated.

Statement showing the average rate of weekly wages paid to persons employed in agriculturalimplement factories in Kingston and Whitby, in the province of Ontario, in the year 1874.

[Hours of labor per week, in Kingston, 60; in Whitby, 59.]

Occupation.	Kingston.	Whitby.	Occupation.	Kingston.	Whithy.
Molders	9 00	\$10 00 10 00 9 00	Painters	\$9 60 10 50 7 50	\$10 00 12 00 12 00
Helpers	6 00 7 50	7 50 7 50	TeamstersLaborers or unskilled	6 00	7 50
Wood-workers		9 00	workmen	6 00	7 00
Plow-makers	12 00	9 00 15 00 9 00	Apprentices or boys Foremen or overseers	18 00	2 50 16 50

Statement showing the average weekly wages and daily earnings of persons employed in leathermanufactories in Belleville and Goderich, province of Ontario, in the year 1874.

[Hours of labor per week, 59.]

Occupation.	Weekly wages.	Daily carnings.	Occupation.	Weekly wages.	Daily caroings.
Sole-leather: Tanners Beam-hands Yard-hands Rollers and spongers Bark-grinders Common leborers Upper leather and calf-skins: Tanners Curriers Splitters	\$7 00 \$8 to 10 00	\$1 25 1 00 \$1 to 1 25 75 1 00	Upper leather, &c.—Contin'd. Shevers. Table-hands, (scourers). Blackers. Finishers. Engineers. Laborers or unskilled workmen. Apprentices or boys. Foremen or overseers.	\$7 00 6 00 7 00 \$8 to 10 00 7 00 6 00	

Statement showing the average rate of workly wages paid to persons employed in carriage-factories in Kingston, Cornwall, and Goderich, in the province of Ontario, in the year 1874.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Kingston.	Cornwall.	Goderich.
Carriage-builders:		A	
Body-makers	*************	\$10 50	\$10 50
Carriage-part makers.		9 00	
Wheelers	10 00	9 00	9 00
Coachsmiths		10 50	\$10 00 to 12 00
Helpers		6 00	
Finishers		12 00	
Ornamenters		12 00	
Painters	10 00	12 00	6 00 to 10 50
Trimmers	\$12 00 to 14 00	12 00	11 00
Stitchers		12 00	
Laborers or unskilled workmen		6 00	
Apprentices or boys.		3 00	
Foremen		18 00	
Car-builders:	••••••	-0.00	
Blacksmiths		10 50	l
Helpers		6 00	
Deinton		12 00	ļ······
Painters		12 00	

Statement showing the average rate of wages paid to persons employed in clothing-establishments in Kingston and Belleville, province of Ontario, in the year 1874.

Our world on	King	ston.	Bell	eville.
Occupation.	Piecework.	Weekly wages.	Piecework.	Weekly wages.
Cutters for custom-clothing.		\$ 20 00		\$15 00 to \$20 0 8 00 to 10 0
Bushelmen Machine-operators Finishers		15 00	l. .	5 0 9 0
Laborers or packers		3 00		3 0
Sack overcoots. Fine each.			\$1 50 1 20	
Broadcloth frock-coats	l. . 		1 50	
Vests, wooleneach Pantaloons, woolenper pair			50 50	
Shirts { Muslin			3 00 1 75	
Sack overcoatseach. Broadcloth dress-coatseach.			4 00 5 00	
Cassimere business coatseach Cassimere sack-coatseach	4 00 3 50		3 00	
Vestseach	1 25		1 00 1 00 6 00	

Statement showing the average rate of weekly wages paid in iron-founderies and machine-shops in Dartmouth, Halifax County, in the province of Nova Scotia, in the year 1874.

[Hours of labor per week, 60.]

Occupation.	Wages.	Occupation.	Wages.
Iron-molders Best Machinists Ordinary Inferior Helpers Boiler-makers Helpers Riveters Holders-on Flangers Helpers Blacksmiths	15 00 9 00 7 00 6 00 9 00 7 00 9 00 7 00 12 00 8 00	Blacksmiths' helpers. Foremen. Engineers Pattern-makers and carpenters Assistants Laborers, carters, &c. Apprentices Millwrights. Assistants Brass-founders. Fitters Turners	18 00 15 00 15 00 8 00 7 00 3 00 15 00 9 0

Statement showing the average weekly wages of persons employed by the Grand Trunk Railway
Company, with number employed, in the year 1874.

[Hours of labor per week, about 60, when on full time.]

No.	Occupation.	Wages.	No.	Occupation.	Wages.
	Locomotive department:			Car department—Continued.	
34	Machinists		2	Pattern-makers	
64	Enginemen	18 00	10	Blacksmiths	16 50
59	Firemen		9	Helpers	10 00
38	Wipers or cleaners	10 00	6	Helpers	19 00
4	Waterhousemen, (pumpmen)	11 00	9	Inspectors	12 00
4	Stationary engineers	10 00	6	Cleaners	9 00
11	Watchmen	11 50		Track department:	
16	Laborers	10 00		Yard-laborers	6 37
7	Blacksmiths	15 00		Section-laborers	5 70
5	Helpers	10 00		Construction-train, (extra gang)	6 37
3	Boiler-makers	18 00		Bridge department:	
1	Coppersmith	20 CO		Bridge-carpenters	11 95
6	Carpenters	15 00		Engineer pile-drivers	(*)
- 1	Car department:			Stations:	١ ' ا
25	Carpenters	14 00	1	Station-laborers	8 95
42	Carpenters	12 50		Stevedores	
7	Laborers		1	Scalemen	
6	Oilers		i i	Laborers at small stations	6 75
2	Machinists			Apprentices or boys	
<u> </u>	Tinners	16 75		Foremen or overseers	13 50

^{*} Contract-work.

AVERAGE EARNINGS OF WORK-PEOPLE.

The number of hands employed in the various industries of Canada in the census year 1870-771 are indicated on a previous page, but the amount of wages paid annually was not stated.

The following table shows the number of hands employed, the aggregate amount of yearly wages, and the average earnings of each employe in the several provinces and in the Dominion:

Provinces.	Total number of hands em- ployed.	Aggregate yearly wages.	Average yearly earnings.
Ontario	87, 281 66, 714 18, 352 15, 595	\$21, 415, 710 12, 389, 673 3, 869, 360 3, 176, 966	\$245 37 185 71 210 84 203 67
Total of the four provinces	187, 949	40, 851, 009	217 36

While the average yearly earnings of work-people in the Dominion are undoubtedly small, it must be borne in mind that the aggregate includes some women and a large number of youths under sixteen years of age.

III.-FARM LABOR.

Table showing the average wages paid for farm and other labor in different counties and towns in the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward's Island, in the Dominion of Canada, in the year 1673.

•	Expe	rience	d hand	ls in—	Ord	linary	bands	in—	nmon rere	other then farm: work.	Female
	Sun	mer.	Wi	nter.	Sun	mer.	Wi	nter.	25	ere -	Fel
Province and town.	With board.	Without board.	With board.	Without board.	With board.	Without board.	With board.	Without board.	With board.	Without board.	With board.
DAILY WAGES. Dutario :											
Belleville	41.05	21.50			81 25	A1	\$ 0 80		\$1 00		ļ
Carleton	\$1 25 1 00	8 1 50 1 25	81 00 80	\$1 25 1 00	1 00	\$1 25 1 00	75 75	\$1 00 1 00	1 00	\$1 25 1 00	
Elgin	1 25	1 75	1 00	1 25	1 87		1 00	1 25	1 25	1 50	
Darham										1 37	
Frontenac					1 00		75	- <u></u> -	1 25		
Grenville	1 20	1 50 1 25	1 00	1 25	80	1 00	75	1 00	80	1 00	
Hastings	1 25	1 50	1 00		1 00	1 25	75	1 00	75	1 60	
Kent	1 25	1 50	75	1 00	1 00	i 25	75	1 00		1 25 1 00 1 25	80
Leeds	1 00	1 25	75	1 00	80	1 00	70	- 80		1 50	••
Northumberland	1 00	1 25	.80	1 60	1 00	1 25	80	1 00	1 00	1 00	
Prince Edward	80	1 25	'60	80	70	1 00	50	75	60	1 00	ì
Stormont	1 25 75	1 50 1 00	75 67	1 00	75 75	1 00 1 00	50 50	75 75	1 00 1 00	1 25 1 25	
uebec:	1 13	1 00	64	84	13	1 00	30	13	1 00	1 25	1
Huntingdon	1 25	1 50	60	85	1 00	1 25	50	75	50	75	
Quebec	70	1 00	50	60	60	60	50	60	70	90	40t
Stanstead	1 25	1 50	1 00	1 25	1 00	1 25	80	1 00	1 00	1 25	
Three Rivers	1 12	1 37	1 00	1 25	1 00	1 25	80	1 00	75	1 00	
ova Scotia : Halifax	1 00	1 25	60	85	60	1 00	50	75		••	1
Pictou	1 00	1 23	, ou	83	- 20	1 00	30	75		1 25	••••
Windsor	1 00	1 30	80	1 10	75	1 25		1 25	1 37	1 75	
ew Brunswick:	- 00	1 - 00	"								1
Saint John	. 	1 50] .	1 00		1 20		90		1 00	
York	70	90	60	60	70	90	60	80	60	80	
rince Edward's Island:	ł	l		i	1	i	1	· '	}	1 00	l
Charlottetownewfoundland:		1							•••••	1 00	
Saint John's	1 50	1		1	1 50	1	1 50		1 00	l	l
Kingston		361				30				36 <u>1</u>	:
MONTHLY WAGES.	1		1	1	l	1	ł		l	· -	
ntario:	1	1	1	l		1	1	l	ĺ	ł	1
Belleville	20 00		13 00					. 			5
Carleton	20 00		12 00		15 00		10 00	- -	15 00		8
Dundas	20 00 20 00		15 00 13 50		15 00 15 00		12 00 11 00		12 00		8
Elgin	23 00		20 00		15 00		15 00		25 00		١۴
Frontenac	20 00		15 00								6
FrontenaeGrenville	20 00		15 00		15 00		12 00		15 00	1	6
Homilton	20 00		15 00		10 00		7 50		13 09		5
Hastings	20 00		16 00	·	16 00					:	5
Huron	20 00 26 00		12 00		15 00		10 00	- 			5
Leeds	24 00		16 00		15 00		10 00				6
Northumberland	15 00		12 00		15 00		10 00				I
Prince Edward	20 00	1	10 00		8 00	1	5 00		10 00		5
Stormont	15 00		13 00		13 00		10 00		15 (0		5
Saint Catharine's	20 00		13 50		12 00		10 00	- 	15 00		7
nebec:		1		ŀ	2 00	ļ		ľ		Į.	5
Quebec	12 00 25 00		10 00 18 00		8 00 18 00		7 00 12 00		14 00 15 00		8
ova Scotia:	200		10 00		10 00		1.00	l	1000	1	۱°
Halifax	30 00		16 00		20 00	1	15 00		15 00		6
Pictou	16 00		16 00		10 00	l	10 00	 			5
Windsor	28 00		20 00		20 00		20 00		25 00		5
Yew Brunswick:	ł	1	ł		1	1	ł	1	1	l	۱ ـ
Saint John	16 00		14 00		14.00		14 00		14 00		5
York Prince Edward's Island:	10 00	ļ	14 00		14 00		14 00		14 00		1 3
Charlottetown	13 00	1	11 00	1	8 50	1	6 00		1	ŀ	3
OTHER TOPING COM II	,	1	,	1	1000		1 0 00		1	1	, ,

IV .- PRICES OF PROVISIONS, ETC.

Stalement showing the retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, and of house-rent and board, in the following towns in the province of Ontaris, Dominion of Canada.

•	Belleville.	Brock- ville.	Chatham.	Cobourg.	Chatham.
Articles.	1872.	1872.	1879.	1873.	1874.
PROVISIONS.			<u>-</u>		
Flour, wheat, superfineper barrel. Flour, wheat, extra familydo	\$6 25	\$9 00	\$6 to \$7 00	\$6 50	\$5.59
Flour, wheat, extra familydo	6 50 4 00	8 00 5 00	7 00	7 25 4 2 5	7 09 5 09
Corn mealdo	3 00	4 00	3 00	3 50	5 09
Beef, fresh, roasting-piecesper pound.	10	10	60	10	10
Beef, fresh, soup-piecesdo	08 10	08 10	06 10	06 11	07
Beef, irean, rump-steaksdodo	08	10	05	07	19 10
Veal, fore quartersdodo	04	05	03	05	06
Veal, hind quartersdo	05	05	05	07	07
Veal cutiets	08 05	05 10	08 05	10 06	10 08
Mutton legdodo	06	10	08	og Og	10
Mutton chopsdodo	10	10	08	10	10
Pork, freshdo	10	09 07	08 10	, 07 09	10
Flour, wheat, extra family do. Flour, rye do. Corn meal do. Beef, fresh, roasting pieces per pound seef, fresh, rounp-pieces do. Beef, fresh, rump-steaks do. Beef, corned do. Veal, fore quarters do. Veal, ind quarters do. Veal ind quarters do. Veal pind quarters do. For	10	10	10	10	12 <u>1</u> 15
Pork, hams, smokeddodo	19	15	15	121	17
ork, shouldersdo	10	10	10	11	15
Pork, sausagesdo	12 <u>1</u> 10	13 13	13 12	124 124	15 18
'adaah dee da da da da da da da da da da da da da	07	05	06	07	07
Fork, snoulders do. Jork, sausages do. Lard do. Codflab, dry do. Mackerel, pickled do. Butter do. Leese do. Potatoes per bushel.	10	10	iŏ	07	98
Butterdo	20	25	18	18	25
Cheesedo	15 40	13 25	15 65	15 35	17 40
Riceper bushel.	10	05	06	លី	06
Beans per quart.	05	05	05	05	05
Milkdo	05	05	05	05	05
Eggsper dozen.	15	15	20	12	90
GROCERIES, ETC.	70	70		50	80
Tea, Oolong or other good black .per pound.	25	25	75 30	25	30
Coffee, Rio, roasteddodo	30	30	. 30	30	33
ugar, good browsdo	09	10	10	10	10
ugar, yellow Cdo	10 11	11 11	11 12	11 12	11 194
Joinases New Orleans ner gallon		50	50	50	60
Molasses, Porto Ricodo		50	50	50	60
3irupdo	60	75	75	70	75
oap, commonper pound.	09 10	06 13	08 12	07 10	07 13
Fuel coal	7 00	7 00	9 00	7 50	9 00
fuel, wood, hardper cord.	4 00	4 00	3 50	5 00	4 00
fuel, wood, pinedo	2 00	2 50	None	2 73	2 50
Tea, Oolong or other good black per pound. Office, Rio, green	40	50	40	40	•
DOMESTIC DEL GOODE, 210.					
Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard quality.per yd. Shirtings, bleached, 4-4, stand. quality.do	10 121	14 15	11 121	19 <u>1</u> 13	15 17
Sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard quality.do	128	30	12	33	40
Chectings blesched 9.8 stand auglity do	ł 1	40	12	50	40 50 99 30
Ostron-flaunel, medium quality do Fickings, good quality do Prints. Morrimac do Mousseline de laines do	30	23	90	20	99
lickings, good qualitydo	30 15	25 13	374 121	\$0 25 to 35	39 15
Monsseline de lainesdodo	15	25	10	25	15
satinets, medium quanty	70	90	50	75	75
Boots, men's heavy per pair.	2 50	5 00	2 75	2 75	2 00
HOUSE-RENT.					
Four-roomed tenementsper month. Six-roomed tenementsdo	4 00 5 00	5 00 7 00	6 00 10 00	6 00 to 8 00 8 00 to 10 00	5 00
BOARD.	"	. 30]	2 20 20 20 00	"
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1				Ī
For men, (mechanics, &c.)per week.	2 50	3 00	3 00	9 95 to 3 00	4 60

LABOR IN CANADA.

Statement showing the retail prices of provisions, groceries, &c.—Continued.

	Cornwall.	Goderich.	Hamilton.	Kingston.
Articles.	1872.	1874.	1873.	1874.
PROVISIONS.				
Plour, wheat, superfine per barrel. Flour, wheat, extra family do. Flour, rye do. Flour, rye do. Flour, rye do.	\$5 50 to \$9 00	\$5 00 4 50	\$7 00 7 00	\$5 50 6 50
flour, ryedodo	₽ 50		3 00	4 00
	2 50 10		10	3 50
Peer, fresh, soup-pieces	07		06	10 07
Beef, fresh, rump-steaksdo	10		10	12
Beef, corneddo	60		06	07
Venl, fore quartersdo	05		09	06
Veal, hind quartersdo	06	 	08 10	17
Intton fore quartersdodo	08		06	10 07
Mutton, legdodo	10		07	08
Mutton chopsdo	10		07	10
Pork, freshdodo	08 to 10		11	09
Pork becon do	15 to 18	80 12 to 15	12	11
ork, hams, smokeddodo	15 00 15	15 to 16	14	14
ork, shouldersdodo	12	l 12	13	12
ork, sausagesdo	12	15	12)	. 09
Veal, hind quarters do Veal cutlets do Mutton, fore quarters do Mutton beg do Mutton bope do Pork, fresh do Pork, corned or salted do Pork, bames, amoked do Pork, shoulders do Pork, sausages do Lod fish, dry do	12 07	15 to 18 06 to 08	13 07	17 06
od fish, dry do	06	10	67	06
Butterdo	20	20 to 30	25	25
heesedodo	16	15 to 17	61	15
	40 06	50 to 90	60	60
ticeper pound.	05		05	05 10
Milkdo	06	. 03	07	06
kice per pound. kice per quart. kilk do. Zggs per dozen.	15	20	25	25
GROCERIES, ETC.				1
	45 to 75	75 to 1 00	1 00	50
Coffee, Rio, greendodo	25 to 35	30	30	20
Coffee, Rio, roasteddodo	30 to 40		35	97
agar, good brown	10 11	10	10 12	08
Sugar, coffee Bdodo	12		121	10 11
Iolasses, New Orleansper gallon	40	60		50
Cen Oulong or other good-black per pound	35 to 40			60
irupdo	55 to 75 07 to 10	80 to 1 00 07 to 10	1 00	70 05
Starch do	12 to 20	121	:51	
Fuel, coalper ton	8 00	7 00 to 10 00	; 8 00	7 50
1	5 00	2 50 to 2 75	8 00	4 50
Fuel, wood, pinedo Dil, coalper gallon	3 00 50 to 60	40	4 00	3 00
	3010 00	1		, 29
DOMESTIC DRY GOODS, ETC.			1	
Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard qualityper yard. Shirtings, bleached, 4-4, standard qualitydo	13	08 to 15	08 to 16	12
hirtings, bleached, 4-4, standard qualitydo	18 to 20 25 to 30	10 to 20 30 to 45	10 to 20 08 to 16	15 30
Sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard qualitydo Sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard qualitydo	40	45 to 75	10 to 20	40
Cotton-flannel, medium qualitydo	20 to 25	20	16	25
Sotton-fiannel, medium quality do Cickings, good quality do Prints, Merrimac do	30 to 35	20 to 40	30	30
Zrints, Merrimac	121 to 20 20 to 40	10 to 18	121 to 25	15
Satinets, medium qualitydodo	60 to 1 00	50	626	
Mousseline de laines	2 50 to 3 00		2 50 to 4 00	2 00
· HOUSE-RENT.		1		
Four-roomed tenementsper month. Six-roomed tenementsdo	4 00 to 8 00		8 00	4 00
		1	1	. "
BOARD.			1	•
BOARD. For men, (mechanics. &c.)	4 00 0 6 00	1	3 50 to 4 50	1 3 00

Statement showing the retail prices of provisions, groceries, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Morris- burg.	Ottawa.	Picton.	Port Hope.	Port Stanley.
Zai tavicos	1872.	1873.	1873.	1872.	1872
PROVISIONS.					
Flour, wheat, superfine per bbl Flour, wheat, extra family do Flour, rye do Corn meal do Beef, fresh, roasting-pieces per lb Beef, fresh, soup-pieces do Beef, fresh, soup-pieces do Beef, foren, romp-steaks do Beef, corned do Veal, fore quarters do Veal, hind quarters do Mutton, fore quarters do Mutton, fore quarters do Mutton, fore quarters do Pork, fresh do Pork, sound do Pork, hams, smoked do Pork, bausages do Pork, sausages do Pork, sausages	\$6 '50 8 00	\$6 50 7 00	\$6 50 7 00	\$5 75 6 50	\$3 25 3 75
Flour, ryedo	4 00 3 00	5 00 3 50	3 50 3 00	Not used	2 00 3 80
Reaf fresh reasting nieges ner lh	08	10	08	121	10
Beef, fresh, soup-piecesdo	05	06	04	07	96
Beef, fresh, rump-steaksdo	08	13	10	124	68
Beef, corned do	05	10	05	08	07
Veal, fore quartersdo	04 05	10 12	04 05	· 05	04 , 05 08 07 29 08
Veil, mind quarters	05	15	05	18	, 40
Mutton fore quarters	ŎŠ.	06	05	07	67
Mutton, legdodo	10	08	07	09	29
Mutton chopsdo	10	12	08	10	08
Pork, freshdo	.09	12	08	10	08 08
Pork, corned or salteddo	10 10	10 15	10 10	09	08
Pork, bacon	12	17	10	12 <u>1</u> 16	10 12
Pork shoulders do	íõ	12	09	124	11
Pork, sausagesdodo	13	12	10	124 124	12
Fork, sausages do Lard do Codfish, dry do Mackerel, pickled do Butter do	10	15	.10	14	10
Codfish, drydo	07	06	06	07	06
Mackerel, pickleddo	ก <u>ง</u> 20	07 25	08 17		63
Cheese do Cheese do Potatoes per bush Rico per lb Beans per qt Milk do Cheese Chees	10	15	13	16 14	14 12
Potatoes per bush	30	35		\$0 30 to 50	50
Rice per lb.	05.	06	05	06	06
Beansper qt	บริ	10	05	04	05
Eggs per doz	05 15	06 20	05 13	05 15	05
Eggsper doz	, 19	20	13	13	124
GROCERIES, ETC.					
Tea, Oolong or other good black per lb.	60	60	50	75	75
Coffee, Rio, greendo	28	20	40	25 35	30
Conee, Rio, rousted	30 10	30 10	40 09	35	35 10
Sugar, vellow Cdo	14	ii	10	10	13
Tea, Oolong or other good black per lb. Coffee, Rio, green do. Coffee, Rio, roasted do. Sugar, good brown do. Sugar, yellow C do. Sugar, coffee B do. Molasses, New Orleans per gall. Molasses, New Orleans do. Sirup do. Soap, common per lb. Starch do. Der ton	15	12	12	10	11
Molasses, New Orlcansper gall.	35	50	50	50	68
Molasses, Porto Kicodo	40 60	40 60	60 75	80 to 1 00	75 1 00
Soan common ner lh	08	68	09	07	08 to 10
Starchdo	13	12	15	13	14
Fuel, coal	8 00	9 00 5 50	7 50 3 50 2 50	7 00	6 00 to 8 00
Fuel, wood, hardper cord.	3 50	5 50	3 50	5 00	_4 00
Fuel, wood, pine	2 50 45	2 50 50	¥ 50 40	3 25 45	None.
	•3	30	30	30	₩.
DOMESTIC DRY GOODS, ETC.					
Shirtings, brown, 4-4. stand. qualityper yd	20	14	20	19	95
Shirtings, brown, 4-4. stand. qualityper yd Shirtings, bleached, 4-4, stand. qualitydo	18	14	20	12 <u>1</u> 30	124
	20 20	18 18	13 15	30 37	39 55
Cotton-flannel, medium quality do	20 25	20	40	20	32 90
Tickings, good qualitydo	25	30	17	35	37
Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, stand. quality do Cotton-flannel, medium quality do Tickings, good quality do. Prints. Merrimac do. Monsseliue de kines do.	13	15	15	14	14
Mousseine de la mesdo	25 60	20 75	20 80	12 40	30 1 00
Satinets, medium qualitydo Boots, men's heavyper pair	3 50	3 50	2 50	200 to 300	3 00
HOUSE RENT.	"	0 04	2.00	- 00 0 0 00	
Four-roomed tenements per month	7 00	8 00	4 50	3 00 to 6 00	3 00
Six-roomed tenementsdo	8 00	12 00	7 50	4 00 to 7 00	5 00
BOARD.					
73					
For men, (mechanics, &c.)per week. For women employed in factoriesdo	2 50 2 00	4 00 2 50	3 00 2 50	2 50 to 3 50 1 50 to 2 50	2 50 1 50

Statement showing the retail prices of provisions, geoccries, &c.—Continued.

- الدائمة ٨	Prescott.	St. Catha- rino's.	Average in Province of On- tario, in—		
Articles.	1873.	1873.	1872.	1873.	1874.
PROVISIONS.					
Flour, wheat, superfineper bbl. Flour, wheat, extra familydo. Flour, ryedo.	\$6 50 7 50	\$7 00 7 80	\$6 35 5 84 3 50	\$6 75 7 12	₽ 5 33 6 00
Flour, rye	3 55	1 50	3 50 3 21	4 62 2 84	4 50 4 25
Boef, fresh, roasting-pieces	10	80 08 to 10	091	121	10
Beef, fresh, soup-piecesdo	06	06	06	05	07
Beef, fresh, rump-steaksdo	10	08	09 1 07	10 <u>1</u> 07	12
Veal fore quartersdo	05	04 to 05	044	06	06 06
Veal, hind quartersdo	08	05 to 06	05	074	07
Veal-cutletsdo	10	10	081	10	. 10
Mutton log diarters	08 10	05 06	07 061	06 08	07 09
Matton-chopsdo	iŏ	10	094	094	10
Pork, freshdo	10	08	09	091	09
l'ork, corned or saltoddo	09 13	10 19	07 111	10 12	12 13
Pork hama amokad do	13	12 to 14	14	14	15
Pork, fresh do Pork, corned or salted do Pork, bycon do Pork, hycon do Pork, hycon do Pork, hyms, smoked do Pork, shoulders do	09	10	ii	10	13
Pork, sausagosdo	13	10	123	113	13
Fork, shoulders do Pork, sausages do Lard do Cod-fish, dry do Mackerel, pickled do Butter do Cheese do Potatoes per bush Rice per lb Boans per qt Milk do	13 06	12 06	112 061	12i 06i	17 06
Mackerel pickled do	05	06	08	061	08
Butterdo	22	20 to 25	19	21	25
Checsedo	13	10	14.	21	16
rotatoosper busn Rice	30 05	50 08	41± 06	41 05 8	56 05
Boans	05	06	05	063	06
		06	05	054	05
Eggsper doz.	17	18 to 20	151	171	21
GROCERIES, ETC.		•		•	
Tea, Oolong or other good blackper lb.	65	50 to 1 00	691	663	72
Coffee Rio reseted do	23 35	25 30	29 32	27 334	26 31
Sugar, good browndodo	10	09	. 10	094	09
Sugar, yellow Cdo	11	10	111	11	10
Lea, Colong or other good black	13 50	12 50	114 476	19 50	11 56
Molasses. Porto Ricodo	30	50	483	50	60
Sirupdo	70	75	75	75	78
Soap, commonpor lb.	10	05	08	071	06
Fuel coel	13 7 00	1½ 8 00	13 7 57	7 83	8 33
Fuel, wood, hardper cord	3 50	6 50 to 7 00	4 14	5 37 2 75	3 71
Dougle D	2 00		2 65		2 75
	50	50	45	46	36
DOMESTIC DRY GOODS, ETC.				•	
Shirtings, brown, 4-4, stand. qualityper yd.	12	124	151	14 17	13
Shirtings, brown, 4-4, stand. qualityper yd. Shirtings, bleached, 4-4, stand. qualitydo Sheetings, brown, 9-8, stand. qualitydo	14 35	16 14	141 251	21	15 35
Sheetings, blesched, 9-8, stand. qualitydo	45	17	34	268	50
Cotton-flannel, medium qualitydo	25 35	18	26	93 281	21 30
Prints Merrimando	35 17	30 15	312 14	164	14
Sheetings, brown, 9-8, stand, quality do. Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, stand, quality do. Cotton-fiannel, medium quality do. Fickings, good quality do. Frints, Merrimao do. Mousseline de laines do. Satinets, medium quality do. Boots, men's heavy per pair	25	25	21	234	20
Satinets, medium qualitydo	35	75	71	67	66
	5 (10	3 00	2 75	3 46	2 13
HOUSE-RENT.		8 00 to 8 00	4.40		4 80
Four-roomed tenements per month Six-roomed tenements do	3 00 4 00	6 00 to 5 00 8 00 to 6 00	4 43 6 36	6 00 8 25	4 50 7 50
BOARD.					
For men, (mechanics, &c.)per week.	3 00	3 00 to 4 00	2 64	3 35	3 50
For women employed in factoriesdo	2 00	3 00	2 29	2 48	2 25

Statement showing the retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, and of house-rent and board, in the following towns of the province of Quebec, Dominion of Canada.

PROVISIONS. PROVISIONS. Provisions P	•	Heming- ford.	Quebec.	Stanstead	Three Rivers.	Quebeo.
Tea, Oolong or other good black per lb	Articles.	1873.	1872.	1872.	1873.	Average luce of Q
Tea, Oolong or other good black per lb. 65 70 90 75 75 Coffee, Rio, green	PROVISIONS.					
Tea, Oolong or other good black per lb. 65 70 90 75 75 Coffee, Rio, green	Flour, wheat, superfine. per bbl. Flour, wheat, extra family do Flour, rye. do	\$7 00 7 25 5 00	7 50 4 00	9 50	ช 50	8 19 4 50
Tea, Oolong or other good black per lb. 65 70 90 75 75 Coffee, Rio, green	Beef, fresh, roasting pieces per lb Beef, fresh, soup pieces do Beef, fresh, rump-steaks .do Beef, corned .do Veal, fore quarters .do Veal, iniq quarters .do Weal cutlets .do Mutton, fore quarters .do Mutton, leg .do	12 05 08 08 12 12 04 09	10 09 09 09 10 10 10 08	19 06 13 08 03 08 12 10	10 10 10 07 12 10 10	11 063 10 0-4 984 104
Ten, Oolong or other good black per lb	Mutton chops .do Pork, fresh .do Pork, corned or salted .do Pork, bacon .do Pork, hanns, smoked .do Pork, sboulders .do Pork, sansages .do Lard .do Lard .do	10 07 10 12 14 10 121 10	10 11 15 15 19 15	12 <u>i</u> 11 12 <u>i</u> 12 <u>i</u> 15	9 121 15 12 10 15	11 <u>1</u> 14 13 <u>1</u> 10 1
Ten, Oolong or other good black per lb	Codinsh, dry .00 Mavckerel, pickled .do Butter .do Cheese .do Potatoes .per bush Rice .per lb Beans .per qt Milk .do Eggs .per doz	07 10 22 16 40 05 07 07	05 23 13 35 05 06	08 25 15 35 07 08 05	05 20 17 50 05 05	40 054 064
DOMRSTIC DRY GOODS, ETC. Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard quality per yd. 23 15 14 194 164 Shirtings, bleached, 4-4, standard quality do. 15 18½ 15 124 15½ 1	GROCERIES, ETC.	65 30 33 11 10 12 45 40 70 08 12 8 00 2 00	15 19 09 10 25 25 25 50 08 15 5 26 4 80 3 20	25 30 10 12½ 75 10 15	10 25 35 50 07 15 8 75 5 50 4 50	26 27½ 10 104 11 31½ 61½ 06½ 144 7 33 4 10 3 17
Four-roomed tenementsper month. 3 00 4 50 4 00 5 00 4 19 Six-roomed tenements	DOMESTIC DRY GOODS, ETC.		,,	,,	101	
Four-roomed tenementsper month. 3 00 4 50 4 00 5 00 4 19 Six-roomed tenementsdo 5 00 6 00 7 00 9 00 6 78 BOARD.	Shirtings, brown, 4-1, standard quality per yd. Shirtings, bleached, 4-4, standard quality do. Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, standard quality do. Steton-fiannel, medium quality do. Fickings, good quality do. Frints, Merrimac do. Mousseline de laines do. Soots, men's heavy per pair.	15 16 18 30 37 <u>1</u> 15 40	184 95 35 95 90 90 90	15 17 20 30 191 25	35 65 30 35 13 15	3 25 22 32 32 32 32 32 32 32 32 32 32 32 32
Six-roomed tenements	HOUSE-RENT.	3.00	4.50	4 00	5.00	4 19
	Six-roomed tenementsdo			7 00		
For women employed in factoriesdo 9 50 1 50 9 50 9 00 2 12	For men, (mechanics, &c.)per week. For women employed in factoriesdo	2 50 2 50	3 00 1 50	3 00 2 50	9 50 9 00	2 75 2 12

Statement showing the retail prices of provisions, groceries, and other leading articles of consumption, and of house-rent and board, in the following towns of the provinces of New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, and Newfoundland, and in the town of Kingston, Jamaica, West Indies, in the year 1873.

Articles.	NEW BR	UNSWICK.	PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.	NEWFOUND- LAND.	Average in maritime provinces of Dominion.	JAMAICA.
an decision	St. John.	Fred- erickton.	Charlotte- town.	St. John's.	Average in itime prov of Domini	Kingston.
PROVISIONS.					•	
Flour, wheat, superfine per bbl. Flour, wheat, extra familydo	11 00	\$7 50 8 75	\$7 50 9 00	\$9 00 10 00	\$8 25 9 69	\$11 12
Flour, rye do. Corn meal do Beef, fresh, ronsting-pieces per lb Beef, fresh, soup pieces do. Beef, fresh, sup pieces do. Beef, fresh, sup pieces do. Beef, fresh, ronsting-pieces do. Beef, fresh, ronsting-pieces do. Beef, fresh, ronsting-pieces do. Beef, corned do. Veal, fore quarters do. Watton, leg. do. Mutton, fore quarters do. Mutton, fore quarters do. Mutton, fore quarters do. Pork, fresh do. Pork, fresh do. Pork, special do. Pork, becon do. Pork, becon do. Pork, sausages do. Lard do. Codfish, dry do. Mackerel, pickled do. Butter do. Choese do. Potatoes per bush, Rice per lb. Beanus per do. Eggs per dos.	06 08 10 06 10 15	4 50 19 09 13 11 05 07 11 11 10 10 13 13 15 15 15 09 22 22 22 22 22 20 60 60 60 90 90 90 91 91 91 91 91 91 91 91 91 91 91 91 91	4 50 12 08 04 05 05 05 06 08 08 10 12 09 12 15 04 06 22 22 25 06 12	8 00 4 755 20 10 10 15 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20	7 00 4 44 002 002 152 152 153 114 112 113 113 117 115 115 005 205 006 006 007 111 115 115 115 115 115 115 115 115 11	6 28 122 123 121 151 151 151 181 181 182 182 183 184 184 185 186 187 187 187 187 187 187 187 187 187 187
Tea, Oolong or other good black per lb.	60	52	40	85	59	1 20
Coffee, Rio, green do Coffee, Rio, roasted do Sugar, good brown do Sugar, yellow C do Sugar, yellow C do Sugar, orfee B do Molasses, New Orleans per gall Molasses, Porto Rico do Sirup do Soap, common per lb do fuel, coal per ton do Fuel, wood, hard per cord Fuel, wood, pine do do do fuel, wood, pine do do per gall DOMESTIC DRY GOODS, ETC.	28 34 12 11 10 10 16 7 00 5 00 55	26 32 10 11 13 50 09 17 7 50 4 00 2 75 50	15 23 09 12 	30 35 12 10 13 50 09 10 8 00 3 50	243 31 103 11 13 50 56 1 00 091 153 6 37 5 00 3 87 48	36 36 06 12 12 1 44 1 44 96 24 12 3 84 72
Shirtings, brown, 4-4, standard qual- ityper yd Shirtings, bleached, 4-4, standard qual-	13	15	14	15	141	12
Sheetings, brown, 9-8, standard qual-	17	17	15	. 20	171	24
Sheetings, bleached, 9-8, standard	17 22	17	28	30	23 281	12
quality per yd. Cotton-fannel, medium quality do Pickings, good quality do Prints, Merrimac do Mousseline de laines do Satinets, medium quality do Boots, men's heavy per pair	22 24 33 16 20 60 4 50	17 45 28 15 30 80 4 50	30 27 39 15 20	44 25 35 16 20 40 4 00	224 301 32 154 171 60 4 38	24 12 18 12 36 48 2 40
HOUSE-RENT. Four-roomed tenementsper month Six-roomed tenementsdo	6 00 9 00	4 00 5 50	6 00 8 00	4 00 6 00	5 00 7 12	6 00 14 52
BOARD. For men, (mechanics, &c.) per week. For women employed in factories. do	4 00 3 50	3 00	3 00 2 00	6 00 2 50	4 00 2 67	2 52

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V.—WEEKLY EXPENDITURES OF WORKINGMEN'S FAMILIES.

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of the families of worknen in the following towns in the province of Ontario, in the Dominion of Canada, with theyear 1873.

	rovince io.	q ni enereza. rataO lo	81 424 434 434 434 434 434 434 434 434 434	8888	10 15 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	9 15	- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	1 23 3	9 74	506 65 11 45	618 18	16 00 838 00
	Prescott.	g adulta and 2 children.	. 8 885 8	3558	នដង	8	\$ 245	528	5 50	286 458 388 388	340 75	364 80 804 80
	Post Hope.	2 adults and 4 children.	100 100 100 88 88 88	88.873	3523	88	3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 4 3 4 3 4 3 4 3 4 3 4	1 25	12 33	641 16 100 80 5 88	746 41	21 85 88 88
	Picton.	2 adults and 4 children.	8 75 10 60		2822	88	8225	100	4 85	825 825 80 80 80	333 20	10 00 520 00
	Ottawa.	2 adults and 3 children.	\$0 70 1 00 15 15	88	8888	52	6888	1 888	7.27	378 04 75 00 6 00	459 04	00 00
	Cornwall. Godoricb. Hamilton.	2 adrilta and 5 children.	\$0 90 1 50 1 25 1 25	54 8	888	88	1 30 194 194	3 374 1 00	13 81	718 12 100 24 24 00	843 36	780 00 780 00
3.00	Goderich.	S adults and .nerblids 6	\$1 50 4 00 1 75	£5 8	8 8	88; -	- 848	3 00	16 45	388 388 388	1, 185 40	8 00 00 00 00 00 00
	Cornwall.	2 adults and 4 children.	200 200 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	23 - 8 - 8 - 5	888	288	2 83	2 00 1 50	14 78	768 100 00 00 00 00	873 56	1,040 00
,	Brock. ville.	La adulta and La children.	1 20 1 20 15 15	5885	8553	ងដ	32 5	ខេង	7 70	5 0 4 5 0 0 3	454 40	- 35 88
med was well as	Belleville.	2 adulta and 2 children.	광 꽁용성송	a & .	222	ଞ	R 2 R	1 8 2 2	2 00	960 50 00 00 00 00 00	328 00	88
		Articles.	Flour and bread Meata, fresh, corned, salted, or smoked Lard Butter Chases	Sugar and molasees Milk Coffee	Rich, fresh and sait Song, starch, sait, pepper, vinegur, &c.	Politoes and other vegetables. Fruits, green and dried	Find the state of	House rent Educational, religious, and benevolent objects	Total weekly expenses	Total exponses (59 wocks) Clothing per year These per year	Total yearly expenses	Weekly earnings. Yertly earnings, (30 weeks).

Table showing the average weekly expenditures of the families of workmen in the following towns of the provinces of Quebec, Nova Sootia, New Brunswick, and New Indian, we the war 1873.

JAMAICA.	Kingston.	ga stlubs 2 .aestelide 6		1,980
e prov-	miths. iaimoC	nt ni 928797 A. I do 800 ai	20	13 20 20 20
NEWFOUND-	St. John's.	Lagastubas Sebildren.	### ### ### ### ### ### #### #### ######	e 88 88
NEW BRUNG-	St. John.	2 adulta and 2 children.	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	1,948 90
BEG. NOVA SCOTIA.	Windsor.	R sdults and some sublides.	#1 858 858 858 858 858 858 858 858 858 85	12 69 624 00
NOVA (Picton.	S sdults and 3 children.	**************************************	2 2 2 3 3 4 5 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8
	-vorq	A verage in an and	8 4 28 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	8 22 5 3
	Woodly	Sadnits and capitas and	#	58 88 88
ic.	Three Rivers.	g sdnite snd schildren.	28	390 30 300 30 300 30
QUE.	Stanstead	S advilta and foliate.	25. 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	6 8 6 80 6 80
	Morris- burg.	S adults and 5 children.	88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88	10 530 90
Lical Constants, and in sec tours	Hunting- don.	Le adulta and Le children.	88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88	364 90
uma finate	•	. Articles.	Hour and bread Mesta, fresh, corned, salted, and smoked Lard Lard Lard Lard Lard Lard Lard Lar	Weekly earnings

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England	389
France	443
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Cost of labor in Antwerp	99, 138, 141, 1	680, 704 660-663 646-652 703-703 148-159 638 632-635 53 576-680
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Cost of labor in Antwerp Belgium Denmark England Greece Italy Rome Sweden Cost of living in Aix-la-Chapelle Athens Barmen	99, 138, 141, 1	680, 704 660-663 646-652 703-703 148-159 638 632-635 53 576-680 570 33-35
Cost of labor in Antwerp	99, 138, 141, 1	680, 704 660-663 646-652 703-709 148-159 638 632-635 53 676-680 570 33-35
Cost of labor in Antwerp	99, 138, 141, 1	580, 704 560-663 546-652 703-703 148-159 638 532-635 576-630 570 570 570 570 570
Cost of labor in Antwerp Belgium Denmark England Greece Italy Rome Sweden Cost of living in Aix-la-Chapelle Athens Barmen Berlin, Prussia Charleroi, Belgium Chemnitz Coyenhagen	99, 138, 141, 1	680, 704 660-663 646-652 703-703 148-159 638 632-635 53 576-680 570 570 570 570 672 554, 570 705, 708
Cost of labor in Antwerp Belgium Denmark England Greece Italy Rome Sweden Cost of living in Aix-la-Chapelle Athens Barmen Berlin, Prussia Charleroi, Belgium Chemnitz Coyenhagen	99, 138, 141, 1	680, 704 660-663 646-652 703-703 148-159 638 632-635 53 576-680 570 570 570 570 672 554, 570 705, 708
Cost of labor in Antwerp Belgium Denmark England	99, 138, 141, 1	680, 704 660-663 646-652 703-703 148-159 638 632-635 53 576-680 570 570 570 570 672 554, 570 705, 708
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